Language Education Policy and Language Practices in Teaching English as a Foreign Language in A Saudi Newly Established University: An Interpretive Case Study

By

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Abstract

This study constitutes an interpretive case study to explore the preparatory year programme (PYP) of a newly established university in Saudi Arabia. The number of Saudi universities has drastically expanded from eight public universities by the end of the twentieth century to more than twenty-six public universities besides several private universities nowadays. This study investigates the relationship between language education policy (LEP), the perceptions of English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers towards using L1 in teaching L2 and these teachers' language practices inside the classroom with a focus on the role of L1 and the use of code-switching between L1 and L2. This study adopts an interpretive case study approach to analyse the EFL classrooms in this university. The LEP of the PYP towards L1 and the EFL teachers' perceptions towards using L1 are explored using audio-recordings of semi-structured interviews with the Director of the English language centre and four EFL teachers. Two of the participants speak English as their L1 and the remaining three participants speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2. The language practices of the EFL teachers are assessed through classroom observations and their reflections using an audio-recorder and fieldnotes. The audio-recorded interviews, classroom observations and reflections are verbatim transcribed and analysed using NVivo. Data analysis reveals that L1 is banned by the LEP of the PYP, but the EFL teachers are not certain about this ban. The EFL teachers do not support or implement this ban on L1. The participants report that they do not always implement this policy by using L1 themselves and/or their students. My EFL classroom observations reveal that the EFL teachers do not always implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 by using L1 themselves and/or permitting their students to use it in varying degrees. This use of L1 is not random, but it is used to serve particular functions of code-switching. These functions aim to achieve core goals or framework goals that assist in improving the classroom environment.

To my parents, Issa

and Shamma -May

Allah have mercy on

them

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Table of Contents

List of abbreviations

L1	First language
L2	Second language
EFL	English as a foreign language
ESL	English as a second language
ESP	English for specific purposes
ELC	English Language Centre
PYP	Preparatory year programme
LEP	Language education policy
"	Quotes from academic literature
'	Participants quotations
(XXXX)	To represent unintelligible words
< >	Translation of Arabic words
[ ]	Description of actions or observations
…	To show a break in the flow of speech

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1 Chapter overview

This chapter will introduce this study. It will begin with reviewing the rationale of this study and identifying the research gap. Then, it will analyse the status of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL) in Saudi Arabia in both public and higher education to function as a background of this study. Finally, this chapter will conclude with providing brief descriptions of the structures of the following chapters in addition to outlining their contents.

1.2 Research rationale

This section will reveal the research rationale for this study and it will identify the research gap. Saudi Arabia is characterised as a monolingual society where Arabic is its first language (L1). However, globalisation has affected the Saudi society in many aspects. The English language, for instance, is considered the most popular foreign language in Saudi Arabia. American movies and TV programmes are popular nowadays among Saudis. As a result, the majority of Saudis have a virtual, instead of an actual connection, with the English language and western culture in their daily life.

Since the beginning of the 21st century, the number of Saudi universities has vastly expanded from eight public universities to more than twenty-six public universities in addition to many private universities. The majority of the newly established universities are located in the small cities of Saudi that did not have universities before. These

universities increased the opportunities for high school graduates to pursue their undergraduate education.

The Saudi Council of Higher Education (2007) states in article 11 that "Arabic is the language of education in universities and it is permitted when appropriate to teach with another language by a decision of the concerned university." Nevertheless, in contrast to Saudi public schools, the vast majority of Saudi universities have adopted the English language as their medium of instruction at science colleges and this language education policy (LEP) has been extended recently to include humanities colleges. This created a gap between high schools and undergraduate education because students would usually graduate from high schools with low proficiency in the English language.

Teaching EFL has raised a controversial debate in Saudi Arabia (see for example Al-Jarf, 2008; Alshammari, 1989; Habbash, 2011). The first side calls for expanding teaching EFL in the Saudi educational system to include primary schools and kindergarten. The second side proposes cancelling EFL modules in the Saudi educational system and establishing a national translation academy that would lead to Arabizing the educational system of the undergraduate education to preserve the status of the Arabic language as the national language of the country.

The high status of EFL in Saudi Arabia could be credited to Arabian American Oil Company (ARAMCO). For instance, ARAMCO contributed in establishing King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals (KFUPM) in the Eastern Province of Saudi Arabia. KFUPM was the first university in Saudi Arabia to introduce a preparatory year programme (PYP) for its new students and to implement an intensive EFL module to prepare students for their undergraduate studies where the English language is the medium of instruction. The community college branches of KFUPM, as well as other

universities, adopted this intensive model. They all decided to introduce the PYP for new students to bridge the resultant gap between public schools and undergraduate education. The main objective of the PYP is to improve students' proficiency in the English language.

Recent developments in the field of higher education in Saudi Arabia have led to a renewed interest in language teaching and LEP in the Saudi educational system. Nonetheless, the literature shows that the relationship between LEP and language practices in relation to teaching EFL in the PYP has not been investigated in the Saudi newly established universities yet (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alenezi, 2010; Almulhim, 2014; Alshammari, 2011; Alsuhaibani, 2015; Faruk, 2014; Habbash, 2011; Pavan, 2016). Although the impact and the role of EFL in the LEP and language practices in the Arab context in general and in the Saudi educational system in specific have attracted a great deal of attention, the originality of this study's contribution to knowledge relies on investigating the relationship between LEP and language practices of teachers of L2 in the PYP of a Saudi newly established university focusing on the role of L1 in this relationship. The researched university in this study will be named Barzan University as a pseudonym henceforth.

Al-Nofaie (2010) explored the attitudes of Saudi EFL teachers and their students towards using L1 as a facilitating tool in public schools. She asserted that both teachers and their students had positive attitudes towards L1.

Alenezi (2010) studied EFL students' language attitudes towards code-switching between L1 and L2 as a medium of instruction in a Kuwaiti context and the influence of these attitudes on their academic performance. He revealed that EFL students had positive attitudes towards code-switching.

Almulhim (2014) studied the functions of code-switching that are used by EFL teachers and their students in a Saudi university. He declared that both teachers and students used various functions of code-switching, but they were uncertain about the LEP of their university towards using L1.

Alshammari (2011) investigated the use of L1 in EFL classes and teachers and their students' attitudes towards it in Saudi technical colleges. He found out that L1 was mainly used for clarification purposes and he emphasised that L1 was necessary to increase learners' comprehension.

Alsuhaibani (2015) conducted a study in Saudi Arabia to investigate the perceptions of teachers, administrators and students towards L1, as well as teachers and students' use of L1 in the EFL classrooms. He observed that the institutional policy had a crucial role in EFL teachers use of L1 inside the classroom.

Faruk (2014) compared and contrasted between the Chinese and Saudi English education policies in terms of the status of English, the objectives of English language teaching and the preferred variety of English. He discovered that the Saudi and Chinese LEPs were similar.

Habbash (2011) conducted a qualitative study in Saudi Arabia to analyse the global spread of English, its role in shaping English LEP and practice in public schools. He noted an increasing change regarding the government's rhetoric towards LEP of EFL. He maintained that there was a discrepancy between the Saudi government's rhetoric on EFL education goals and its LEP.

Pavan (2016) analysed Saudi textual sources to study the influence of the developments on the Saudi higher education policies within the Saudi society. She reported on the

Saudi flaming debate regarding how to merge tradition and globalisation to improve its higher education system.

I worked as an EFL teacher in the PYP of Barzan University. One of the classes that I taught was a low-level class. The directory of the English language centre (ELC) and I both anticipated that the majority of students in that class were going to repeat this level. That anticipation resulted from the fact that all the students in that class failed their placement exam at the beginning of the course and they did not show any evidence at that time that they had acquired the required second language (L2) proficiency. The Director of the ELC attended one of my sessions with this class to evaluate my teaching approach. At the end of this session, he criticised my use of L1. He asked me not to use L1 because it was against the LEP of the PYP. This comment by the Director raised several questions in my mind. What was the actual LEP of the PYP towards L1? Did that policy consider the voices of the EFL teachers and their attitudes towards using students' L1 in teaching L2? And did it take into account the ecology of the EFL classrooms?

The discussed literature in this section indicated that the relationship between LEP and language practices of the EFL teachers has not been investigated in the PYP of Saudi newly established universities before. Therefore, this study aims at investigating this relationship in the PYP of a Saudi newly established university with a focus on the role of L1 in it. This study was conducted in the PYP of a newly established university (Barzan University) in Saudi Arabia to accomplish three objectives. The first objective is to identify the LEP of the PYP towards the use of learners' L1 (Arabic) and to identify EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. The second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding their use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. The

third objective is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. Hence, the three questions that this study seeks to answer are:

Q1- What is the LEP of the PYP towards the use of L1, and what is the EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy?

Q2- What do the ELC staff report to be their language practices inside and outside the EFL classroom?

Q3- How do the EFL teachers' language practices relate to the LEP of the PYP?

This section discussed the rationale for conducting this study and identified the research gap. It reviewed the status of EFL in Saudi Arabia and the role of the PYP in preparing university students for their undergraduate education. The previous literature and my personal experience were visited to identify the research gap. The objectives of this study and its questions were stated to highlight the purpose of this study.

1.3 The status of EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia

1.3.1 Teaching EFL in public schools

This section will review the status of teaching EFL in Saudi Arabia to serve as a background of this study. Saudi Arabia has an exam-oriented educational system, with public schools being divided into three stages. The first stage is elementary school for six years, followed by three years of intermediate school, and a final three years of secondary school. The Arabic language is the medium of instruction in all the stages of public schools in Saudi Arabia. There is a type of schools that are called private

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international schools. These schools are under the direct supervision of the Ministry of Education and they are mainly dedicated to non-Arabs where the English language is usually the medium of instruction.

Although Saudi Arabia adopts a segregation system between male and female students in both public and higher education, the same textbooks and teaching methods are used in both types of schools. The only foreign language that is taught in public schools is the English language (Al-Seghayer, 2005; Al-Abed Al-Haq and Smadi, 1996). There was a reluctance to teach the English language and other foreign languages during the early history of education in Saudi Arabia (Elyas and Picard, 2010). Nevertheless, the English language was first introduced in Saudi public schools in 1924 (Faruk, 2014). It was a required subject beginning from the seventh grade, but in the academic year 2002-2003, it was decided to begin teaching EFL from the sixth grade (Al-Seghayer, 2005). Students attend four 45-minute sessions of EFL every week (Al-Seghayer, 2005). Integrated skills of EFL (listening, speaking, writing and reading) are taught in public schools. The methods of teaching English in Saudi Arabia are the Audio-Lingual Method and to some extent, the Grammar-Translation Method (Al-Seghayer, 2005).

The majority of EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia have graduated from either colleges of education or colleges of arts. They work within a strict hierarchy where national and/or religious identity frames the educational system, language practices, and pedagogy (Elyas and Picard, 2010). However, their academic qualifications have received some criticism. Al-Hazmi (2007) highlights the nationwide rising concern in Saudi Arabia towards the low proficiency level in the English language among secondary school graduates and the insufficient number of well-trained English language teachers. Al-Seghayer (2014) argues that Saudi EFL teachers are not sufficiently trained to assist in

improving learners' English proficiency level. For instance, EFL graduates of colleges of education and colleges of arts take only one course on EFL pedagogy (Al-Hazmi, 2003). Al-Hazmi (2003) suggests that the gap between the content of teacher education programmes and the needs of the classroom is expanding.

1.3.2 The preparatory year programme

This part will review the PYP with a focus on its intensive EFL module. This study is conducted in the PYP of Barzan University. Consequently, this section will review the PYP in Saudi universities to serve as a background of this study. After graduating from secondary school, the vast majority of young Saudis join universities. Nevertheless, they have to attend and pass the PYP before starting their undergraduate majors to improve their proficiency in EFL. The PYP is categorised into three tracks: medical; engineering and science; and humanities. All the tracks provide an intensive EFL module that reaches to twenty hours every week. Additional foundation modules in medical, engineering and science fields are provided. These modules are mainly repetitions of what students have already learnt in public schools by using the English language as a medium of instruction. The main objective of these modules is to prepare learners for the undergraduate modules that use the English language as a medium of instruction especially in the engineering, science and medical departments. Learners have to pass all these modules before being allowed to select their preferred undergraduate major. This study was conducted in the medical and engineering and science tracks of the PYP in Barzan University. Section (3.5) will review in detail the reasons behind conducting this study in these tracks.

Learners at the PYP are generally young men and women aged between 18 and 20 years old. They must have a science certificate from secondary school to join either medical

or engineering and science tracks or join the humanities if they have an arts certificate. The vast majority of them are Saudis and male and female students are segregated from each other.

Learners have to attend a placement test to measure their English language proficiency before starting the EFL module. The placement test is unified for all the attendees and learners are assigned into sections according to their scores in this test to group students with similar L2 proficiency together. Learners are grouped in a similar way in the next levels according to their final scores in the current level. However, during the collection of data for this study, a new policy was introduced where students were permitted to choose their preferred section and teacher regardless of their L2 proficiency.

The intensive EFL module consists of four levels. The duration of every level is seven weeks. During every level, learners attend several quizzes and a major exam besides a final exam at the end of the level. All these quizzes and exams are unified. Learners have to pass every level to be permitted to attend the next level. The majority of the PYP students were attending the third level of the intensive EFL module during data collection for this study. Thus, this study was conducted in the third level of the intensive EFL module only.

The EFL module is taught by a mixture of teachers who speak the target language (the English language) as their L1 and teachers who share an L1 (the Arabic language) with their students and speak the target language as their L2. Teachers who speak the target language as their L1 hold the nationality of an English-speaking country. On the other hand, the majority of the teachers who share an L1 with the students are not Saudis, but from another Arabic speaking country.

The EFL module consists of a mixture of textbooks that are prescribed by the administration of Barzan university. Gray (2000) claims that English materials in Saudi Arabia are introduced with almost no references to English-speaking cultures. However, most of the textbooks in the PYP are published in the West. The main textbook is New Headway Plus Special Edition by Liz Soars and John Soars. This textbook teaches integrated skills of English (listening, speaking, writing and reading) and it consists of four books: elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate and upper-intermediate. The first textbook is taught in the first level and the fourth textbook is taught in the final level and the other textbooks are taught in the remaining levels. This textbook has a special edition for Saudi Arabia. This special edition avoids topics that may be sensitive in Saudi Arabia such as the western understanding of nightlife. This textbook sometimes uses Arabic names in its examples. In addition, Keep Writing by Harrison, R. (1989) is used to familiarise learners with the basic conventions of spelling, punctuation and capitalisation, to enable them to write simple and accurate paragraphs on a variety of themes. The Medical track provides additional textbooks that teaches the English language in a medical theme to enrich learners' medical vocabulary.

The PYP in Saudi Arabia has recently started to attract researchers' attention. For instance, Yushau (2016) explored the difficulties that PYP learners encounter during learning mathematics due to the conflict between the Arabic language and the English language. He noticed several examples of learners' conscious or unconscious written code-switch between English and Arabic.

This part reviewed the status of EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia in both public schools and the PYP. This section will act as the background of this study.

1.4 Thesis structure and chapters outline

This section will summarise the contents of every chapter in this study.

Chapter 2: This is the literature review chapter. This chapter will serve as the background for the data analysis of this study. The first section of this chapter will begin with discussing the concepts of language planning and language policy. This discussion will reveal the role of governments in these concepts and how a foreign language could receive an official status. Then, this section will investigate the term LEP through highlighting its influence on using L1 in L2 classes before pointing out the role of language teachers in implementing LEP. The second section of this chapter will explore the role of L1 and the use of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. This section will begin with a short historical review of code-switching research from a sociolinguistic perspective. Then, the debate on using L1 in the L2 classroom will be discussed. This section will investigate the critical recommendation that advocates reconsidering learners of L2 as bilinguals before conducting a short discussion of the term translanguaging. Language practices of teachers of L2 and the role of L1 in them will be analysed prior to studying the functions of code-switching in teaching L2. The third section of this chapter will involve a brief, but significant discussion of classroom interaction with a particular concentration on teacher's talk in the language classroom.

Chapter 3: This chapter will reveal the methodological approach of this study. It will begin with stating the research questions of this study. After this, the qualitative approaches will be reviewed. This chapter will then study the significance of case study inquiry in data collection. A new section will introduce the backgrounds of the participants in this study. The instruments that were used for data collection will be discussed in separate sections. Then, the issues of validity, reliability and ethical

considerations will be indicated. This chapter will describe the process of data analysis before discussing my pilot study that was conducted before starting data collection.

Chapter 4: This chapter is the first data analysis chapter. It will conduct an analysis of my semi-structured interviews with the research participants. The data analysis in this chapter will investigate the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University and the participants' perceptions towards using L1 inside and outside the EFL classroom. In order to keep the readers on track, a summary of the major findings will be pointed out at the end of every section.

Chapter 5: This chapter is the second data analysis chapter. It will analyse my observations from the EFL classrooms. The focus of data analysis in this chapter is on how the EFL teachers used L1 and/or permitted their students to use it. The analysis of the use of L1 in the observed EFL classrooms is based on the research on the functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. Seven major functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching) developed from my analysis of the audio-recorded classes. This chapter will survey these functions in separate sections using extracts from the audio-recorded classes. These sections will also highlight the participants' reflections on my classroom observations. At the end of every section, a summary of the major findings will be presented to keep readers on track.

Chapter 6: This is the discussion chapter that will review my findings from the two data analysis chapters. The main aim of this chapter is to accomplish the three objectives of this study. This chapter will connect my findings from the two data analysis chapters with the previous literature.

Chapter 7: This is the conclusion chapter. This chapter is divided into four sections. This chapter will summarize the main findings of this study before pointing out its limitations. Then, it will highlight the contributions to the field of knowledge. My recommendations for future studies will be revealed in a separate section.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Chapter overview

This chapter aims at surveying the literature to build the stage for this study. The first section of this chapter will begin with reviewing the concepts of language planning and language policy with a focus on the role of governments in language planning and language policy and how language policy may adopt a foreign language. The discussion will lead to exploring the term language education policy (LEP) with a particular focus on its perception towards the role of L1 in the L2 classroom. This section will discuss the influence of teachers on facilitating the implementation of LEP. The second section of this chapter will investigate language practices inside the L2 classroom with a focus on the role of L1 and the use of code-switching between L1 and L2. This section will start with a brief historical review of code-switching research from a sociolinguistic perspective. This section will explore the debate on using L1 in the L2 classroom before highlighting the significant viewpoint that supports reconsidering learners of L2 as bilinguals. After discussing the term translanguaging, an investigation about the role of L1 in the language practices of teachers of L2 will be conducted. This section will, then, analyse the functions of code-switching in teaching L2. The third section of this chapter will include a short exploration of interaction in the L2 classroom with a focus on teacher's talk.

2.2 Language planning and language policy

This section will discuss the concepts of language planning, language policy and LEP. The first objective of this study is to identify the LEP of the preparatory year programme (PYP) towards

the use of learners' L1 and EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. Thus, this section will assist in achieving this objective. This section will start with reviewing the concepts of language planning and language policy. It will highlight the influence of governments in language planning and language policy and it will identify the elements that may have an impact on adopting foreign languages by language policy. The terms acquisition planning, language-in-education policy and LEP will be explored. The role of LEP on language policy will be indicated with a reference to the issue of banning L1 in the L2 classes by the LEP. The impact of teachers on implementing LEP will be indicated with a reference to their differences in implementing LEP and the possible challenges that they may encounter as a result of banning L1 in the L2 classroom.

Despite the common view that perceives language as closed, stagnated and rule-bound, it is viewed by some sociolinguists as personal, open, free, dynamic, creative, constantly evolving and it spreads beyond words (Shohamy, 2006). Language policy is sometimes used as a synonym for language planning (Cooper, 1989; Mesthrie, et al., 2009). Nevertheless, the literature reveals a distinction between language policy and language planning. The term language planning appeared for the first time in the literature in Haugen (1959). Cooper (1989) acknowledges that language planning does not have a single universally accepted definition. For instance, Haugen (1959, p. 8) defines it as "the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar, and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech community." However, the most common definition of language planning has been proposed by Cooper (1989). Cooper (1989, p. 45) defines language planning as "deliberate efforts to influence the behaviour of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes." Cooper in his definition of language

planning highlights influencing linguistic behaviour instead of changing it or solving problems (García, 2015).

Status planning and corpus planning were introduced by the German sociolinguist Kloss (1969 cited in García, 2015, p. 354) as the two types of language planning. Whereas status planning is the process of selecting a language or variety for use, corpus planning is the process by which the language or variety selected is codified. Cooper (1989) adds acquisition planning as the third type of language planning. Acquisition planning will be discussed in detail in section (2.2.1).

Lo Bianco (2010) remarks that status planning refers to how societies indicate the roles and functions of languages using laws and regulations. For instance, the Saudi Basic Law of Governance states in the first article that the Arabic language is the official language of the country. Cooper (1989) reveals that Kloss viewed the objective of status planning to be recognition by a national government of the importance or position of one language in relation to others as a result of his interest in the language rights of minorities. Nevertheless, Cooper (1989) reports that the focus of status planning has been extended to include the allocation of languages or language varieties to given functions such as the medium of instruction. On the other hand, corpus planning includes coining new terms, reforming spelling and adopting a new script (Cooper, 1989). Cooper (1989) provides the establishment of the Académie française and the feminist campaign against sexist usage in the United States of America (USA) as two examples of corpus planning.

García (2015) illustrates that scholars in the field of language planning concentrated originally on what could be accomplished by the government to systematically encourage linguistic change. However, García (2015) indicates that poststructuralist and critical scholars refuted the

idea that a community's approach of speaking could be planned and changed by authoritative agencies because there are beliefs, practices, and regulations that impact how people use language. She reveals that some scholars recommended renaming the field of language planning as language policy to recognize these multiple forces that influence behaviour toward language. Language policy often refers to the goals of language planning (Cooper, 1989). These goals include the more general linguistic, political and social goals underlying the actual language planning process (Mesthrie, et al., 2009). Hence, Baldauf (2005) argues that the discipline of language planning distinguishes between the plan in language policy and the implementation of the plan in language planning. This study investigates the policy of the PYP as a planned rule regarding the use of students' L1 and the implementation of this policy by the EFL teachers.

García (2015) emphasises that the field of language policy can be perceived as a branch of the sociology of language. Language policies are bodies of ideas, laws, regulations, rules, and practices that are intended to achieve some planned language change (Baldauf, 2005). Spolsky (2004, p. 8) notes that "language policy exists even where it has not been made explicit or established by authority". Thus, language policy can be classified into overt policies and covert aspects of the policy (Baldauf, 2005; Schiffman, 1996). Schiffman (1996) illustrates that overt policies are explicit and formalized whereas the covert aspects are implicit and informal. Bassiouney (2009) asserts that a policy can be implemented without being written or understood by all community members. Schiffman (1996) contends that many researchers and policy-makers focus on the overt policies and ignore the covert aspects of the policy. This study will explore the LEP of the PYP in Barzan university towards L1 and identify whether this policy is overt or covert.

Although political decisions are informed and shaped by ideologies, they do not always achieve their objectives (Ricento, 2000). For example, the USA does not state an official language in its constitution. However, Schiffman (1996) highlights that the USA has a covert language policy that favours the English language and perceives attempts to use different languages as illegitimate. On the other hand, there are several countries that define themselves as monolingual in their constitutions, but these countries are practically multilingual due to significant marginalised foreign minorities (Spolsky, 2004). In Saudi Arabia and the other Gulf countries, there are large communities of expatriates who do not speak the Arabic language as their L1, but their languages are not officially recognised by the policies of these governments.

Spolsky (2004, p. 9) states that "language practice" means "the sum of the sound, word and grammatical choices that an individual speaker makes, sometimes consciously and sometimes less consciously, that makes up the conventional unmarked pattern of a variety of a language". Spolsky's definition of language practice is adopted by this study. Bassiouney (2009) contends that language practice is a factor that is directly related to language policy. However, language policy's effect on language practices cannot be assured or be consistent even when it is formal and written (Spolsky, 2004). Bassiouney (2009) argues that language practice is superior to language policy and it is not guaranteed that the language policy will be implemented if it clashes with language practice. Section (2.4) will discuss in detail EFL teachers' languages practices with a focus on their use of L1 and code-switching between L1 and L2.

Saudi Arabia has a relatively conservative society where the Arabic language is the main language of daily communication. The Arabic language is the official language of communication that is used by the government departments, the media and public schools. Conversely, the English language is used mainly by major private sector corporations, such as

the petroleum industry, and the banks in addition to its significant role in the higher education sector. The English language is becoming a significant prerequisite condition for hiring new graduates from universities by many employers in the private sector of Saudi Arabia. Thus, it could be argued that the English language is gaining a developing role in Saudi Arabia at the expense of the Arabic language.

Bassiouney (2009) explains that the Standard Arabic (SA) has been in the forefront of the constitutions of the Arab countries. Nonetheless, she points out the distinction between SA and its vernaculars and these vernaculars competition for official status along with foreign languages and minority languages. This points out the debate in the Arab region including Saudi Arabia about whether to use the Arabic language or the English language in education (see for example Al-Jarf, 2008; Alshammari, 1989; Habbash, 2011). The first side of this debate supports adopting SA as the official language in all aspects of the daily life including the media and higher education. The second side contends that the English language is a global language and the language of science and they contend that it has to be the medium of instruction in public schools.

Cooper (1989) emphasises that the Académie française is the world's best known and the most consistently respected academy. He believes that establishing the Académie française is an ideal example of the principle that understanding language planning cannot be accomplished without reference to its social context. The nineteenth century witnessed a huge interest in the standardisation and codification of languages that lead to establishing additional language academies in some European countries (Martin-Jones, Blackledge and Creese, 2012). Grammarians and lexicographers played a significant role in the ideological processes that

linked language to political authority and legitimacy in different national contexts (Martin-Jones, et. al, 2012).

The interest in establishing language academies in Europe has expanded to influence the Arab region as part of their fight to protect the Arabic language. There were several attempts that were conducted by groups of enthusiastic Egyptian intellectuals to establish an Arabic language academy because they were concerned that the Arabic language was losing its position on the national and international linguistic map (Gorgis, 2012). Nonetheless, the first Arab Science Academy was established in Syria in 1919 and it played a crucial role in Arabizing all the official documents from the previous dominating powers in Syria, namely: Turkey and France (Gorgis, 2012). Nowadays, there are at least five language academies in the Arab region (Bassiouney, 2009). Arab language purists have been campaigning through the Arabic language academies for political decisions that would institutionalize standardization of the Arabic language because they believe that it is threatened by several factors (Gorgis, 2012). These factors include: globalization; the spread of the Arabic language vernaculars in mass media and education; and the use of foreign languages in many domains such as private education. However, these academies lack authority and there is no guarantee that writers in particular and society, in general, will follow their recommendations (Bassiouney, 2009). This could be a result of the large number of these academies. Whereas there is one Académie française that is located in France and is working on preserving the French language, there are at least five academies in the Arab region and it would not be an easy task to gather these academies into issuing one agreed decision about how to preserve the Arabic language. Additionally, these academies lack the political and public support of their recommendations. This reveals that the language academies in the Arab region are not winning their struggle to adopt SA as the official

language in the daily life because it seems that the vernaculars in addition to the English language are winning the battle.

2.2.1 Language education policy

This section will discuss LEPs with a concentration on their role in the education of L2. Policies might reassure implementing the language spoken by the majority of its community, revive a dead language that is no longer used by its community or introduce a foreign language that is not widely spoken by the majority of its community. Planners of these language policies may be led by political, educational or practical considerations to formulate policies that have the effect of changing the status of a particular language or variety (Hoffmann, 1991). The global status of the English language and the fact that it is the international language of trade and science cannot be disregarded as major reasons behind adopting it by many policy-makers as a medium of instruction.

Language policies have to be implemented and introduced to their communities. Hence, language planning has tended to perceive education as the area of implementing language policy (Hoffmann, 1991, Lo Bianco, 2010). This means that LEP is best considered as a subdivision of language policy/language planning (Paulston and Heidemann, 2006). Education is the most significant dimension of language planning because the curriculum provides governments with opportunities to shape the attitudes and behaviours of the next generation (Ferguson, 2006). In Saudi Arabia, for instance, the English language does not have any official status in its language policy. Nevertheless, it is the medium of instruction in the undergraduate science colleges. Language planners often use the school system whenever they intend to promote a second or a foreign language (Cooper, 1989).

Cooper (1989) introduced acquisition planning as a third type of language planning besides status planning and corpus planning. Acquisition planning aims at increasing the numbers of users/speakers of a given language (Ferguson, 2006). Cooper (1989) highlights that acquisition planning is significant for two major reasons. First, substantial planning is directed towards language spread to increase the users of a language or a language variety. The second reason is that changes in function and form that are required by status and corpus planning affect and are affected by the number of the users of a language and, in addition, new users may be attracted by the new uses to which a language is put.

Acquisition planning has been relevant to the formation of educational language policies in historical and contemporary contexts (Wiley and García, 2016). For instance, it concentrates on increasing the number of users of any given language (García, 2015). Teaching EFL in Saudi universities is an example of acquisition planning. Acquisition planning expanded the classical language planning activity beyond governments and authoritative agencies to indicate that other planners also participate in this activity (García, 2015). It is a characteristic of all the levels of the educational institution beginning from the ministry of education to the classroom teacher (Cooper, 1989). However, accomplishing the objectives of acquisition planning by schools does not always mean that the target language would be used outside the classroom (Cooper, 1989). Therefore, determining the degree of success of a language planning or an acquisition planning objective is complicated including indicating the variables that contributed in the outcome and the relative contribution of every variable in the outcome (Cooper, 1989).

Cooper (1989) classifies acquisition planning according to the overt language planning goals and the used method to achieve these goals. He underscores that it is possible for the overt language planning goals to be acquisition of a second or a foreign language, reacquisition of a

language or language maintenance. The overt language planning goal in the Saudi universities in general and in the science colleges, in particular, is the acquisition of EFL. Cooper (1989) outlines three methods that may be used to achieve the overt language planning goals. He asserts that these methods may be creating or improving the opportunity to learn, the incentive to learn or both the opportunity and the incentive all together. Cooper (1989) explains that the methods that focus on the opportunity to learn can include direct methods such as classroom instruction and indirect methods through efforts to shape learners' L1 to be similar to L2. He provides the inclusion of the English language as a compulsory subject in schools and setting of language prerequisites for employment as an example of methods that employ the incentive to learn. Immersion and bilingual education programmes are two examples of the methods that promote both the opportunity and the incentive to learn by using the target language as the medium of interaction (Cooper, 1989).

Due to the significance of acquisition planning in the field of education, it has been named as language-in-education planning by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) whereas Shohamy (2006) named it as LEP. Language-in-education planning and acquisition planning are treated as synonyms (Kaplan and Baldauf 1997; Kaplan and Baldauf, 2005). Language planning is a function of governments that affects many sectors of society whereas language-in-education planning affects the educational sector only (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). Thus, language-in-education planning exemplifies the public dimension of language planning because it has a direct influence on individuals within society (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997). Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) recommend for language-in-education planning to be an outcome of the national language planning. However, Kaplan and Baldauf (2005) admit that language-in-education planning, in reality, is the only component of language planning in many polities. Language-in-education planning is the most relevant area to language learning and teaching (Baldauf,

2005). Hence, the education sector has to realise what languages are preferred by its community and how those languages will be used because language-in-education planning is part of human resource development planning (Kaplan and Baldauf, 1997).

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997, pp. 127-139) propose five steps that have to be taken into consideration in language-in-education policy as part of any language-in-education implementation programme. These steps are: curriculum, personnel, materials, community and evaluation policies. Kaplan and Baldauf explain that the curriculum policy has to focus on the given space to language instruction because of the limited time of school year and the limited objectives of the curriculum. They assert that the personnel policy has to concentrate on training teachers in language pedagogy and improving their L2 proficiency to be reasonably fluent in it. They stress that the material policy has to indicate the content that will be used in language teaching and the methodology of language instruction. Kaplan and Baldauf emphasise that community policy is significant because teachers and their students live in a community beyond the classroom and students' parents are concerned about their children's education. Kaplan and Baldauf highlight that the evaluation policy has to indicate the evidence that the proposed plan and its implementation is cost-effective to justify the necessary expenditure.

According to Shohamy (2006, p. 76), LEP is "a mechanism used to create de facto language practices in educational institutions, especially in centralised educational systems." LEP serves as a tool to promote and perpetuate political, ideological, social and economic agendas (Shohamy, 2006). Shohamy's definition of LEP is adopted by this study. The decisions regarding LEP in countries that have centralised educational systems are made by central authorities to serve as a mechanism to achieve national language policy agendas (Shohamy, 2006). The institutions that have the power to make LEPs for public and higher education in

Saudi Arabia are the King and the Council of Ministers. On the other hand, the Dean of the PYP, the Director of the ELC and the PYP board have the power to make LEPs for the PYP in Barzan university. However, seizing the power by central authorities to make decisions about LEP may lead educational staff and personnel to implement LEPs without questioning their qualities, appropriateness and relevance to spread the ideology of the policy (Shohamy, 2006). EFL teachers in the PYP do not usually have significant influence on the decisions about the LEP of the PYP. For instance, Mansory (2016) revealed, in his study, the limited role that EFL teachers are given by the LEP of the PYP in Saudi universities that they do not even have the power to assess their students. He discovered that these teachers supported expanding their involvement in the educational process. Nonetheless, EFL teachers still have a power in implementing the PYP inside their classes and enforcing policies to assist them in managing their classes as data analysis in chapter five will indicate.

Shohamy (2006) clarifies that LEP includes making language policy decisions in relation to the use of L1 and L2 in schools and universities. According to Chimbutane (2013), "principled and optimal use of L1 always needs to be defined empirically with reference to local sociolinguistic, cultural and educational policy conditions". Nevertheless, conflicts and tensions regarding code-switching between L1 and L2 in the EFL context mirror concerns of policy-makers and institutional authorities who, both, are likely to perceive code-switching as a form of deficit behaviour (Raschka, Sercombe and Chi-Ling, 2009). This perception is a result of a wider subscription to, and advocacy of, the necessity of adhering to a monolingual medium of language instruction (Raschka, et al., 2009). Sections (2.3) and (2.4) will discuss in detail the use of L1 in second and foreign language education.

LEP has become a topic of interest in many developing countries for a long time (Kaphesi, 2003). Among these policies is the teaching of foreign languages and the use of L1. Therefore, the global spread of the English language has caused a contradiction between some of the countries' official languages and their LEP. The South Korean government, as an example, has a policy that recommends EFL teachers in the primary stage to use English only in their classrooms (Kang, 2008). The Japanese LEP bans using L1 in the L2 classroom (Glasgow, 2014). It considers overuse of L1 in the EFL classroom as an obstacle to efficient instruction that has to be avoided (McMillan and Rivers, 2011).

Turkey states in its constitution that Turkish is its official language. The Turkish Council of Higher Education (2014) reveals that Turkish is the main language of instruction in the vast majority of the higher education institutions whereas the remaining universities introduce a foreign language to their learners through a PYP. It adds that there are a number of universities that use the English language as a medium of instruction for around one-third of their modules and such type of universities is expanding.

Qatar states in its constitution that the Arabic language is its official L1. Nonetheless, the Qatari Education and Training Sector Strategy 2011-2016 describes learners' underachievement in the English language as a challenge that has to be met to improve the education and training sector.

Abu Dhabi, the capital emirate of the United Arab Emirates (UAE), is an additional example. The UAE highlights in its constitution that the Arabic language is its official L1. Nevertheless, Gallagher (2011) points out that the Abu Dhabi Educational Council has announced that starting from the academic year 2010-2011 a new school reform plan was launched gradually in the public schools of Abu Dhabi. She remarks that this plan involved an introduction of compulsory bilingual schooling through using the English language as an additional medium of instruction

besides the Arabic language. Access to education in the English language was only granted to the social elite before this reform plan through private education that adopted full immersion in the English language and L1 was taught as a subject (Gallagher, 2011). Gallagher (2011) anticipates that families who would like their children's education to be in their L1 may seek private fee-paying education as a consequence of this plan.

A further contradiction between language policy and LEP of a country can be seen in Oman. The official language in Oman, according to its constitution, is the Arabic language. However, the Omani government has adopted EFL as the medium of instruction in the undergraduate education sector (Al-Bakri, 2013). Al-Bakri (2013) emphasises that adopting the English language as a medium of instruction would eventually influence the status of L1 because the relationship between the two languages is not balanced. This led Al-Bakri to urge the policy-makers in Oman to reconsider adopting L1 as a medium of instruction instead of L2 to provide students with the opportunity of graduating with profound knowledge in their majors.

The Education Policy in Saudi Arabia (1995), the context of this study, states in article 24 that "principally, the Arabic language is the language of education in all subjects and all stages unless there is a necessity of teaching with another language." Although this policy does not name the other language that may be needed, Arabic is the medium of instruction in public schools with a daily class of the English language. Furthermore, as explained in chapter one, the Saudi Council of Higher Education (2007) states in article 11 that "Arabic is the language of education in universities and it is permitted when appropriate to teach with another language by a decision of the concerned university." An intensive module of EFL is introduced to learners in the PYP in addition to the other modules that use the English language as the medium of instruction. Students have to pass this programme before progressing to their undergraduate

majors that also use the English language as a medium of instruction. This particularly happens in science and medical colleges.

2.2.2 The role of language teachers in the language education policy

This study focuses on implementing LEP by teachers of L2. Therefore, this section will discuss the role of language teachers in LEP. Language teachers have a significant role in LEP as a result of the fact that formal policy documents and textbooks cannot anticipate local contexts and personal needs of learners (Lo Bianco, 2010). Teachers in their professional lives are inescapably engaged in language planning activities because teaching goes beyond the intention and aspirations that are included in the curriculum statements or the textbooks (Lo Bianco, 2010). Learners' language skills and attitudes, norms and expressive practices are developed by their teachers (Lo Bianco, 2010). However, most LEP decisions are taken at the political level without involving or listening to the teachers (Shohamy, 2006). This includes the PYP of Barzan University. Therefore, it is not always guaranteed for LEPs to be well conceived, received, resourced or implemented (Wiley and García, 2016). It is possible for LEPs and practices to either encourage or restrict the teaching of languages (Wiley and García, 2016). Wiley and García (2016) remark that introducing a new LEP relies on the features of this policy and the extent to how it is adequately resourced, understood, valued, and implemented effectively.

During its implementation, policy interpretation at a local level is often influenced by institutional and individual experiences, values and perceptions (Creese and Leung, 2003; Hornberger and Johnson, 2007). Teachers' reactions to language policies are influenced by their personal interpretation of policy imperatives and their own knowledge about and sense of belonging to local communities of practice (Creese and Leung, 2003). Consequently, classroom

practices reflect both explicit and implicit implementation of policies instead of the policies themselves (Paulston and Heidemann, 2006). The focus of this study is on the extent of how EFL teachers in a Saudi undergraduate context vary in their interpretation and implementation of LEP.

Implementing teaching practices that are consistent with teachers' pedagogical stances may be limited by their obligations to respect the norms prevalent in their institutions (Tan and Lan, 2011). However, there is a significant argument that even if a foreign language is officially adopted as the language of instruction in a particular context, it does not necessarily mean that this language will be executed smoothly in the classroom. For instance, Garton (2014) discovered a discrepancy among EFL teachers' proficiency in L2 that created a significant obstacle to their implementation of LEP. Moreover, it is possible for the wording of an LEP to be challenging when it does not provide actors with guidance regarding how to implement the policy successfully (Glasgow, 2014). Individual differences can be applicable to teachers in terms of their teaching approaches and how they understand language policies in their context. They differ in their interpretation and implementation of LEPs in their classrooms (Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013; Glasgow, 2014). They may even resist or do not implement an LEP if it contradicts with their professional beliefs or their contextual realities (Glasgow, 2014). Creese (2005 cited in Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013, p. 345) indicates that teachers and learners resort to a range of creative strategies for dealing with language policy limitations.

The rationales that are used to justify L2-only policy inside the classroom are not conclusive or pedagogically sound (Auerbach, 1993). Raschka, et al. (2009) add that L2-only policy is impractical. Teachers of L2 may oppose LEP's ban on L1 through using code-switching between L1 and L2 and using continuous stretches of L1 for parts of their lessons (Raschka, et

al., 2009). The possibility of challenging LEP's ban on L1 would probably increase when both teachers and their learners have the same L1 (Raschka, et al., 2009). Therefore, there have been expanding calls to reconsider LEP's attitude towards the role of L1 in the L2 classroom. These calls recommend altering the focus of LEP from emphasising on L2-only to reconsidering how to use L1 efficiently (Garton, 2014; Raschka, et al., 2009). Garton (2014) asserts that this recommendation would probably provide learners with beneficial opportunities of learning and it would eliminate the possible feeling of guilt and inadequacy that many teachers may feel due to their use of L1. LEP should empower teachers with tools that would assist them in realising their roles (Glasgow, 2014). Students' L1 could be one of these tools. Thus, Glasgow (2014) advises policy-makers to broaden the objectives of their policies through taking into consideration teachers and the contexts of their work. This could be achieved through adopting an "English-mainly" policy instead of an English-only policy (McMillan and Rivers, 2011). However, Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009) clarify that teachers, when making policies for L1 use inside the classroom, need to decide whether both they and their learners will be using L1 or not.

2.2.3 Section summary

This section reviewed the concepts of language planning and language policy. The role of governments in language planning and language policy and the variables that may influence adopting foreign languages by language policy were discussed. The terms acquisition planning, language-in-education policy and LEP were highlighted. The impact of LEP in implementing a language policy was stressed with a reference to the dilemma of banning L1 in the L2 classes by LEP. The influence of teachers on facilitating the implementation of LEP was pointed out with reference to teachers' differences in implementing LEP and the possible challenges that

they may face as a result of banning L1 in the L2 classes. This section will serve as a background in chapter four to assist in achieving the first objective of this study.

2.3 The use of code-switching in L2 teachers' language practices

This section will review the use of code-switching between L1 and L2 (henceforth code-switching) in the language practices of teachers of L2. This study has three objectives. The first objective is to identify the LEP of the PYP towards the use of learners' L1 and EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. The second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. The third objective is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. Thus, discussing the role of L1 and the use of code-switching in the L2 classroom are vital in achieving the objectives of this study. This section will begin with conducting a brief historical review of code-switching research with a focus on its definition and its significance in the field of sociolinguistics. After this, it will review the debate on using L1 in the L2 classroom to clarify the positive and negative aspects of using L1. The crucial viewpoint that supports reconsidering learners of L2 as bilinguals will be investigated. Then, a short discussion of the term translanguaging will be performed. Language practices of teachers of L2 and the role of L1 in them will be investigated prior to studying the functions of code-switching in teaching L2.

2.3.1 Historical review on code-switching research

This section will provide a short historical review of code-switching research with a focus on the sociolinguistic aspect. The term code-switching was used for the first time in the literature

by Vogt (1954). His work was inspired by Weinreich (1953) who described switching as a major characteristic of bilinguals. Eldridge (1996, p. 303) defines code-switching as "the alternation between two (or more) languages". Eldridge's definition of code-switching will be adopted in this study. A code-switch may include a single word or chunks of language (Then and Ting, 2011). Poplack (1980) mentions, from a grammatical perspective, three types of code-switching: inter-sentential, intra-sentential and tag-switching. Inter-sentential switching means that a switch occurs at a clause or sentence boundary where clauses or sentences are in different languages (Qian, Tian and Wang, 2009). A switch in intra-sentential switching occurs within the clause or sentence boundary (Bullock and Toribio, 2009; Qian, et al., 2009). In tag-switching, an insertion of a tag or a short fixed-phrase in one language is added into an utterance that is completely in the other language (Qian, et al., 2009). Below are three examples of these three types of code-switching.

Inter-sentential switching: We went on a family trip yesterday. زرنا حديقة الحيوانات <We visited the zoo>.

Intra-sentential switching: He was suffering from الانفلونزا <flu> yesterday.

Tag-switching: You have to attend the classes on time, واضح <clear>?

It is possible for bilinguals who do not acquire advanced level in one of the languages to be able to use tag-switching (Bullock and Toribio, 2009). On the other hand, Poplack (1980) reports that intra-sentential switching is mostly used by advanced bilinguals because it requires advanced skills in both L1 and L2. Bullock and Toribio (2009) add that both intra-sentential and inter-sentential switching require advanced level of bilingual proficiency. Azlan and Narasuman (2013) discovered in their study that the three types of code-switching including

inter-sentential, intra-sentential and tag-switching were used among students and between students and their teachers.

Contrary to the popular belief, code-switching is not a random mixing of two languages (Bullock and Toribio, 2009). It involves spontaneous complex use of grammar and vocabulary from two different languages (Cook, 2013). Code-switching is a common linguistic phenomenon within bilingual populations (Hughes, et al., 2006). It mirrors an intellectual advantage (Arnfast and Jørgensen, 2003; Bullock and Toribio, 2009; Hughes, et al., 2006). Code-switching involves clever manipulation of two language systems for different communicative functions (Bullock and Toribio, 2009). One of the communicative functions of code-switching is bridging the gaps in the discourse (Moore, 2002). For instance, these gaps may happen when students do not understand what their teacher of L2 is talking about. Therefore, code-switching may play a significant role through using a mutually understood language to resolve any break in the communication. Code-switching assists bilingual speakers in negotiating their social relations (Arnfast and Jørgensen, 2003). It may serve as an indicator of group membership and solidarity (Bullock and Toribio, 2009; Foley, 1997). However, bilinguals sometimes use code-switching unintentionally without any communicative objective (Bullock and Toribio, 2009; Poulisse and Bongaerts, 1994). Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994) hypothesise that unintentional code-switching may result from committing errors during accessing the intended L2 lemma.

The research literature shows a great interest in developing theories on code-switching types and functions from, mainly, a sociolinguistic perspective. One of the renowned theories was developed by Blom and Gumperz (1972). Blom and Gumperz (1972) classified code-switching into situational switching and metaphorical switching. They conducted their study in a

Norwegian community to investigate code-switching from an interactional sociolinguistics perspective. Blom and Gumperz (1972, p. 422-423) propose three successive stages in the speaker's processing of contextual information. These stages include:

1. the setting "to indicate the way in which natives classify their ecological environment into distinct locales."

2. the social situation "activities carried on by particular constellations of personnel, gathered in particular settings during a particular span of time."

3. the social event "the opportunities and constraints on interaction offered by a shift in personnel and/or object of the interaction."

Blom and Gumperz (1972) illustrate that situational switching means that alternation between varieties redefines a situation whereas alternation in metaphorical switching enriches a situation, allowing for allusion to more than one social relationship within the situation. My data analysis of the classroom observations did not reveal instances of situational or metaphorical switching.

Myers-Scotton (1993) criticized the Situational versus Metaphorical Model arguing that the quantity and diversity of the motivations in the metaphorical code-switching are not clear. Therefore, she introduced the Markedness Model. This model focuses on investigating the socio-physical motivations behind code-switching (Myers-Scotton, 1993). According to Myers-Scotton (1993, p. 75), the Markedness Model "proposes that speakers have a sense of markedness regarding available linguistic codes for any interaction, but choose their codes based on the persona and/or relation with others which they wish to have in place." Li Wei (1998) points out that the Markedness Model focuses on analysing the participants' intentions during bilingual conversations. Myers-Scotton (1993) theorises that code-switching signals a

set of rights-and-obligations between people who are interacting. Myers-Scotton (1988) illustrates that speakers select their choices and the others interpret these choices according to their possible consequences. Li Wei (1998) reports that this model enjoyed a significant influence in the social and pragmatic fields of code-switching. He observes that Myers-Scotton advocates that the Markedness Model has global and predictive validity within all bilingual and multilingual communities even though she conducted her studies on using code-switching within African contexts only. Li Wei remarks that the Markedness Model focuses on the analyst's perspective whereas the role of the participants in the conversation in interpreting their interlocutor's linguistic choices to negotiate meaning is disregarded.

One of the earliest classifications of functions of code-switching among bilinguals was introduced by Gumperz (1982). This classification indicated that code-switching is not a random mixing of two languages, but it serves a particular function. Gumperz (1982) outlines six functions of code-switching from a conversation analysis perspective using discourse analysis. These functions are:

1. Quotations in a form of direct quotations or reported speech.

2. Addressee specification to address one of several possible addressees.

3. Interjections to indicate an interjection or sentence filler.

4. Reiteration through repeating a message, either literally or in a modified form, from one code to the other.

5. Message qualification through qualifying constructions of sentences, verb complements or predicates that come after a copula.

6. Personalization versus objectivization where Gumperz (1982, p. 80) states that code-switching in this function "relate to such things as: the distinction between talk about

action and talk as action, the degree of speaker involvement in, or distance from, a message, whether a statement reflects personal opinion or knowledge, whether it refers to specific instances or has the authority of generally known fact."

This study focuses on investigating the use of code-switching in the teaching of L2 in an EFL context. Two main questions are raised when we attempt to analyse code-switching between L1 and L2 in the language classroom. The first question would be can we treat language classrooms as a truly bilingual situation. Analysing code-switching inside the classroom may not be the same as analysing code-switching outside the school context (Yletyinen, 2004). The second question would be does code-switching between two languages inside the classroom have the same functions as the ones that were developed by Gumperz (1982).

According to Martin-Jones (1995), research on code-switching in the field of L2 education began in the 1970s in the United States in bilingual education programmes for linguistic minority children. It then expanded in the 1980s to be conducted in various additional bilingual and multilingual contexts (Martin-Jones, 1995). The major motivation for conducting most of the classroom-based research on code-switching is to analyse how LEPs are represented by daily classroom communicative practices (Martin-Jones, 1995). This study aims at exploring the LEP of a PYP towards L1 in Barzan University and how this LEP is implemented in the EFL classrooms.

2.3.2 The debate on using L1 in the EFL classroom

This section will review the debate on the significance of using L1 in teaching EFL. In the foreign language classroom, the expectation is that L2 will be used. Thus, using L1 inside the classroom is considered an instance of code-switching. For this reason, the literature on code-

switching is relevant to the use of L1. The foreign language classroom is a microcosm of the communication practices outside it (Simon, 2001). However, permitting the use of L1 in the L2 classroom is a complicated issue because it relies on the instructional context (Ellis, 2008). One of these contexts is the context of bilingual education. Hall and Cook (2012) describe monolingual teaching as teaching L2 without using any other language whereas bilingual teaching involves the use of another language that students already know. Cummins (2008, p. xii) defines bilingual education as "the use of two (or more) languages of instruction at some point in a student's school career." Creese and Blackledge (2010) criticize bilingual education's approach to keeping languages separate through teaching some lessons in one language and teaching the others in a different language. Hence, they urge bilingual schools to adopt a flexible bilingual approach that would employ two or more languages alongside each other (see section 2.3.4). On the contrary to bilingual education, this study is conducted in a context of teaching EFL where the English language is the target language and the medium of instruction. Code-switching is often a banned practice in foreign language contexts that has to be avoided (Simon, 2001). The main argument behind this ban is that the classroom may act as learners' main source of exposure to the L2 (Ellis, 2008). Simon (2001, p. 316) states that in the foreign language context "the teacher is mandated by society to be a giver of knowledge and the aim of the communication in this context is for learners to acquire this knowledge progressively."

The literature reports various positions towards using code-switching in the L2 classroom. Macaro (2001) introduces three main positions towards the use of code-switching in L2 education: the virtual position, the maximal position and the optimal position. The virtual position adopts total exclusion of L1 because this position does not recognize any pedagogical value of L1. The maximal position permits using L1 because this position admits that teaching and learning conditions are not perfect. On the other hand, the optimal position advocates that

L1 has pedagogical value and it may play a positive role in enhancing the learning process. This study adopts the optimal position in its support of permitting the use of L1 in teaching EFL. However, this use of L1 has to be purposeful (Edstrom, 2006). Macaro (2001) supports developing some principles for code-switching in foreign language classrooms through understanding its functions and consequences (see section 2.3.6). Code-switching has to be well administered by teachers and learners (Cipriani, 2001). Therefore, teachers and students should be given the authority to decide what constitutes optimal use of L2 and L1 according to the immediate context of the classroom (McMillan and Rivers, 2011).

The debate on the value of using L1 in teaching L2 has two main sides. The first side of this debate argues that L1 constitutes an obstacle to the learning of L2. Ellis (1984) suggests that teachers' use of L1 in the EFL classroom would deprive students of valuable input in L2. However, it could not be claimed that increased use of L2 would improve learning (Macaro, 2001). Krashen (1982) claims that L1 forms a negative influence on students' learning of L2 because errors that result from using L1 would restrict production of formally-correct sentences in L2. Schools, teachers and the majority culture have tended to perceive code-switching as a negative trait (Hughes, et al., 2006). Teachers and researchers in the field of English as a second language (ESL) view code-switching as a sign of failure in learning L2 or lacking the motivation to learn it (Eldridge, 1996). Franklin (1990) hypothesises that using L1 during teaching L2 would not prepare students for face-to-face communication. For these reasons, teachers and researchers have been focusing on minimizing code-switching inside the classroom (Eldridge, 1996). Although studies on language practices inside the classroom show regular use of code-switching by teachers and students, this use tends to be accompanied by their feelings of guilt (Simon, 2001).

The other side of this debate asserts that L1 may act as a positive element in the L2 classroom to improve the learning process. Therefore, Atkinson (1993) refutes the principle that L1 has to be banned in foreign language classrooms. The monolingual approach that bans L1 inside the classroom does not have any substantial theoretical evidence that supports it (Atkinson, 1993). It is not essential that the trending views in the literature mirror the actual practices in real life (Hall and Cook, 2012). This can be seen in the contradiction between the mainstream literature advocacy of monolingual teaching for the past century whereas the use of L1 remained the normal practice in several educational contexts (Hall and Cook, 2012). Research proves that the use of students' linguistic resources, including their L1, can be advantageous (Auerbach, 1993). Hence, asking language teachers to use L2 as the exclusive medium of instruction obstructs their task (Atkinson, 1993). L1 is the most valuable asset that learners bring to the foreign language learning classroom (Butzkamm, 2003). Butzkamm (2003, p. 31) describes L1 as "the master key to foreign languages, the tool which gives us the fastest, surest, most precise, and most complete means of accessing a foreign language." L1 enhances the learning of L2 because it is the initial means of learning to think and communicate and developing an understanding of grammar (Butzkamm, 2003).

A great deal of research has been conducted to investigate the use of code-switching in the language classroom. For instance, Edstrom (2006) studied her own use of code-switching during her teaching of the Spanish language as a second language in a university-level course in the United States within one semester. Uys and Dulm (2011) used the Markedness Model to explore the functions and possible benefits of code-switching in classroom interactions in multilingual secondary schools of South Africa. Researchers investigated the use of code-switching in foreign language education in Tunisia, Australia, Sweden, Scotland, England, New Zealand, Finland and the United States (Baoueb and Toumi, 2012; Crawford, 2004; Flyman-

Mattsson and Burenhult, 1999; Franklin, 1990; Hobbs, Matsuo and Payne, 2010; Kim and Elder, 2005; Kim and Elder, 2008; Lehti-Eklund, 2013; Polio and Duff, 1994; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). Additionally, Copland and Neokleous (2011) studied bilingual English language teachers' use of L1 in Cypriot private English language schools. Then and Ting (2011) used Gumperz's model of conversational code-switching to study science and English teachers' use of the reiterative function of code-switching in multilingual classes of Malaysian secondary schools. Studies paid special focus to the use of code-switching in EFL classes in Brazil, Turkey, Portugal, Sweden, South Korea, the UK, Japan, Iran, Indonesia, the Netherlands, China, Taiwan, Saudi Arabia and Finland (Cipriani, 2001; Eldridge, 1996; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Liu, Baek, and Han, 2004; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Momenian and Samar, 2011; Mujiono, et al., 2013; Poulisse and Bongaerts, 1994; Qian, et al., 2009; Raschka, et al., 2009; Rezvani and Rasekh, 2011; Storch and Aldosari, 2010; Tien, 2009; Yletyinen, 2004). Findings from these studies will be discussed throughout section (2.4).

The debate on the use of L1 during teaching L2 led some researchers to publish books to advocate using L1 in teaching L2. Butzkamm and Caldwell (2009, p. 13) wrote a book as "an act of theoretical house-cleaning" to sweep away the ban on L1 in foreign language teaching through deep development of the idea that language is learnt only once. One of the reasons for using L1 in the classroom is that it facilitates the teaching of translation skills. Malmkjær (1998) supports treating translation as an independent natural language skill. A comprehensible translation cannot be produced without performing an extensive amount of reading, writing, speaking and listening (Malmkjær, 1998). Translation is a crucial element of language teaching in many countries (Malmkjær, 1998). Therefore, Malmkjær (1998) discussed in her edited book the advantages for language classes in adopting translation as a teaching methodology. Hall and Cook (2012) argue that all this debate on using L1 in teaching L2 encouraged several major

publishers who are interested in publishing EFL materials that are dedicated towards particular countries or regions to include a partial use of L1 in translating vocabulary and grammatical explanation.

Copland and Neokleous (2011) point out that bilingual teachers of L2 keep undermining the use of L1, their most valuable asset. L1 has to be seen as a useful tool similar to pictures, objects and demonstration (Nation, 2003). Raschka, et al. (2009) asserted that the teachers' use of code-switching indicated that they had a high level of general communicative competence. It has been noted that using L1 would assist teachers in achieving multiple goals (Edstrom, 2006; Eldridge, 1996; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Liu, et al., 2004; Raschka, et al., 2009; Rezvani and Rasekh, 2011). It is possible for L1 to serve affective functions. Edstrom (2006) revealed that a sense of moral obligation towards students was a crucial reason behind her use of L1. L1 is said to assist in improving the relationship between teachers and their students (Harbord, 1992; Qian, et al., 2009). For instance, Franklin (1990) noted that teachers used L1 to avoid their students' boredom. Tien (2009) asserted that code-switching was used to avoid and resolve tensions and conflicts.

L1 may act as a practical tool in improving the classroom's environment. Using students' L1 may save the class's time (Atkinson, 1987). L1 facilitates conducting successful teacher-student interaction (Eldridge, 1996; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Harbord, 1992; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Rezvani and Rasekh, 2011). Teachers of L2 tend to use code-switching whenever they feel that their students are encountering comprehension difficulty (Edstrom, 2006; Liu, et al., 2004; Uys and Dulm, 2011). For instance, Kim and Elder (2005) noted that language teachers tended to use L1 in complex interactions with their students. Kim and Elder (2008) revealed

that one of the major factors that influenced teachers' use of L1 was their students' reaction during their discourse.

The process of learning could be enhanced through the use of code-switching (Cipriani, 2001; Edstrom, 2006; Eldridge, 1996; Ferguson, 2009; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Harbord, 1992; McMillan and Qian, et al., 2009; Raschka, et al., 2009; Rivers, 2011; Sert, 2005; Then and Ting, 2011). Hence, learners' preference for using L1 as a learning strategy should not be disregarded (Atkinson, 1987). The vast majority of students in the context of this study share a common L1. This type of students tends to use L1 during performing tasks instead of using L2 as a result of three major reasons (Nation, 2003). Using L1 is the default expected behaviour with people who share a common L1, using L1 is communicatively efficient and students who suffer from low confidence would be embarrassed from using L2. Tien (2009) stresses that implementing L2-only policy is not possible when learners' L2 proficiency level is low. Studies highlight that students use L1 to compensate for their low proficiency in L2 (Baoueb and Toumi, 2012; Ferguson, 2009; Franklin, 1990; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Liu, et al., 2004; Poulisse and Bongaerts, 1994; Simon, 2001; Then and Ting, 2011). Thus, code-switching assists students in comprehending complex materials that would consume a great amount of time to be taught in L2 only (Liu, et al., 2004). Code-switching should be considered as a significant element even in advanced EFL classes (Momenian and Samar, 2011). For instance, Liu, et al. (2004) discovered that students' use of L1 and L2 in their interactions with their teachers relied on the level of difficulty and complexity of the discussed topic and the proficiency level of the students in L2.

There have been increasing calls for permitting a systematic use of L1 because it is students' strongest ally (Atkinson, 1987; Butzkamm, 2003). For example, Atkinson (1987) recommends

using L1 at a ratio of five percent at beginner level classes. Nevertheless, there is no universally agreed upon ideal amount of L1's use (Edstrom, 2006). Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) declared that teachers did not prefer using code-switching. Qian, et al. (2009) reported that teachers used L2 most of the class's time and L1 was only used when it was needed to improve the instruction. Qian, et al. observed that teachers use of code-switching was gradually reduced according to the development of their students' L2 proficiency. On the other hand, Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) remarked that L1 was used frequently and it was considered a valuable teaching resource by bilingual EFL teachers. There are several factors that influence the amount of using L1 in the L2 classroom. Some of these factors are the proficiency level of the students and the difficulty of the discussed topic. This means that every language classroom is an isolated situation and a specific amount of L1 that is ideal for all language classrooms cannot be decided.

Research indicates that teachers of L2 could not anticipate the percentage of their use of L1 and their purposes for using it (Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Polio and Duff, 1994). Copland and Neokleous (2011) theorize that this may result from teachers' sense of guilt due to contradictions between their pedagogic ideals and their contextual realities. In addition, studies point out that teachers of L2 vary drastically in the amount of the used L1 and L2 (Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Duff and Polio, 1990; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Kim and Elder, 2005; Liu, et al., 2004; Momenian and Samar, 2011). Teachers' personal attitudes towards the use of L2 is a major factor in the varying degrees of their use of L2 (Kim and Elder, 2008). For instance, Duff and Polio (1990) discovered that the percentage of university teachers' use of L2 in foreign language context varied between ten and a hundred percent. Liu, et al. (2004) noted that language teachers' use of L2 in their teaching ranged between ten and sixty percent. Code-switching is used in elementary classes more than both pre-intermediate and advanced classes

(Greggio and Gil, 2007; Momenian and Samar, 2011). Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) revealed that teachers used code-switching less frequently than their students.

It has to be admitted that in addition to its positive aspects, code-switching has negative influences on the processes of teaching and learning (Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010). Franklin (1990) describes exposure to L2 in order to learn it as common-sense. Therefore, researchers warn that L1 should not be over-used (Atkinson, 1987; Nation, 2003; Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). Permitting the use of L1 in language classrooms does not mean that both teachers and learners should be permitted to become entirely dependent on it (Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain, 2009).

Language teachers have a significant role in preventing the negative impact of code-switching on L2's learning process (Sert, 2005). However, teachers' encouragement of their students to use L2 does not necessarily mean that they would be doing it themselves (Polio and Duff, 1994). Hence, language teachers are advised to avoid turning code-switching into a habit that is used whenever they encounter an obstacle (Qian, et al., 2009). For instance, Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) remarked that teachers used code-switching during discussing issues that were not relevant to the lesson. Yletyinen (2004) noted that teachers were sometimes using code-switching unintentionally as a lapse. Edstrom (2006) admitted that laziness was the reason behind her use of L1 in some instances. Teachers may even use L1 in response to their students' use of it (Polio and Duff, 1994; Yletyinen, 2004). Teachers who share an L1 with their students tend to have a temptation of using it to manage their classroom (Franklin, 1990). Nonetheless, Nation (2003) recommends encouraging the use of L2 and using it in classroom management.

Supporting the use of L1 in the L2 classroom does not mean that teachers and students should be permitted to use L1 whenever it is convenient for them. Languages would be lost if they are

not used (Butzkamm, 2003). Hence, researchers urge teachers of L2 to implement a maximum use of L2 in the classroom (Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Edstrom, 2006; Nation, 2003; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). The major justification behind advocating a maximal use of L2 is the significant hypothesis that the classroom may be the sole source of exposure to L2 for most students (Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Polio and Duff, 1994; Turnbull and Arnett, 2002). L2 learners have to experience exposure to a substantial amount of L2 in addition to practising it (Hall and Cook, 2012). Crawford (2004) revealed that foreign language teachers believed that maximizing the use of L2 would indicate their confidence in their students' ability to learn it and would improve students' learning experience.

This section shows that the role of L1 in the L2 classroom has attracted a great deal of attention among researchers and it has caused a controversy about its significance. However, L1 should be perceived as a significant element in the L2 classroom and it should not be disregarded. The positive value of L1 inside the L2 classroom should be acknowledged instead of treating it as a burden to successful education. There is a significant possibility for L1 to assist teachers in their teaching task and students in developing their proficiency in L2. Nevertheless, teachers of L2 should not forget that the main objective of their classes is teaching L2. Therefore, teachers should make sure that their students are mainly exposed to L2. The use of L1 inside the L2 classroom should be controlled to be certain that it plays a positive role. Code-switching should only be used to improve the processes of teaching and learning L2 (see section 2.3.6).

2.3.3 Reconsidering L2 learners as bilinguals

This section will review the calls to reconsider learners of L2 as bilinguals instead of encouraging them to disregard L1 during learning L2. Widdowson (2003) illustrates that the sociolinguistic literature distinguishes between compound bilingualism and coordinate

bilingualism. The two languages in the former type blend into a single signifying system whereas the two languages in the latter type are treated as separate systems. L2 pedagogy supports coordinate bilingualism through separating L1 and L2, but research points out that learners accomplish the process of learning through using compound bilingualism within interlanguage stages (Widdowson, 2003). Thus, Widdowson (2003) asserts that the EFL module has to be treated as a bilingual module. Widdowson (2003, p. 149) states that in the field of teaching EFL, students

> "come to class with one language (at least) and our task is to get them to acquire another one. So if bilingualism is the prime example of language contact in the individual, presumably we should be busy getting the first language (L1) and the foreign language (L2) into contact in our learners. But in many ways what we seem to be busy doing is exactly the opposite."

Bilinguals have the ability to keep the two languages separate (Poulisse and Bongaerts, 1994). Nonetheless, attempting to store languages in separate compartments in the mind is doomed to failure because these compartments are eventually connected in several ways (Cook, 2001). Thus, bilinguals' ability to separate the two languages does not mean that these languages are stored in separate compartments because this is not how the mind functions. Cook (2012) introduced the term multicompetence. He defines multicompetence as "the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind or the same community". Cook (2013) illustrates that multicompetence includes the entire mind of the speaker. Cook (2013) reveals that multicompetence distinguishes between multilingual and monolingual people instead of perceiving multilinguals as deficient monolinguals.

Cook (1999) introduced the term L2 user. Cook (2012) points out that this term "refers to people who know and use a second language at any level". Code-switching is a normal part of L2 use outside the classroom where both participants share two languages and, therefore, it may be a part of the external L2 goals of teaching if it is permitted inside the classroom (Cook, 2001). L2 learners will never be monolingual speakers of L2, but, instead, they have the opportunity of becoming bilingual speakers of the two languages (Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain, 2005). The global spread of the English language reduced the need and desirability of native-speaker models among many learners of it (Hall and Cook, 2012). Cook (2013) insists that L2 users have to be perceived as typical modern people of the 21st century. Therefore, L2 learners' degree of success should be measured against the standards of L2 users and not the standards of native speakers (Cook, 2001). Cook (2013) emphasises that L2 learners should be taught how to use L2 successfully for their personal reasons during their communications with native speakers or other L2 users.

Before reviewing the language practices of teachers of L2 and the influence of L1 on their language practices, a short discussion of translanguaging will be conducted in the next section.

2.3.4 Translanguaging

The discussion of the use of L1 by bilinguals has moved beyond describing it as code-switching to describing it as translanguaging. The term translanguaging was first proposed by Cen Williams (1994, cited in Hornberger and Link, 2012, p. 268). It originally referred to the deliberate pedagogical alteration between languages in spoken and written, receptive and productive modes (Hornberger and Link, 2012). Nevertheless, García (2008, p. 58) defines translanguaging as "multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds." García (2008) points out that although translanguaging

incorporates code-switching, it goes beyond it. Translanguaging refers to describing the language practices of bilinguals from the perspective of the bilinguals instead of the perspective of the language (García, 2008). Instead of focusing on the language and how to relate it to a monolingual standard, translanguaging clarifies that there are no clear-cut boundaries between the languages of bilinguals (García, 2008). Additionally, García (2007) declares that translanguaging "normalises bilingualism without diglossic functional separation." García (2008) contends that translanguaging practices are considered as the normal mode of communication that characterises communities globally.

García (2007) highlights that pedagogical practices have to be based on peoples' language practices instead of relying on the prescriptions of the school system. Li Wei and García (2014) assert that translanguaging is transformative through the process of languaging between systems that have been described as separate. Therefore, translanguaging can act as a transformative practice in bilingual education to give a trans-space of change and an interdisciplinary of knowledge and understandings (Li Wei and García, 2014).

Translanguaging enables students to be creative through providing them with the opportunity of choosing between obeying and disobeying the principles and norms of the one language only or one language at a time ideologies of language classrooms (Li Wei and García, 2014). The notion of translanguaging expands the research focus through investigating a variety of communicative modes in addition to spoken languages (Hornberger and Link, 2012). Teachers' and researchers' awareness and orientation to translanguaging can be developed to fully understand resources that learners bring to school for successful educational experiences (Hornberger and Link, 2012). However, Baker (2003) asserts that language learners have to acquire sufficient development in both L1 and L2 for translanguaging to be relevant.

The language learners in this study have low proficiency level in L2 as the data analysis in chapters four and five will discuss in detail. In addition, as my data analysis of the EFL classes in chapter five will reveal, the use of L1 and L2 by the teachers and the students was not, as Li Wei and García (2014) describe, transformative or enabled students to be creative. Therefore, the term translanguaging will not be used in this study and the focus will be on the term code-switching.

2.3.5 L2 teachers' language practices

This section will explore the language practices of teachers of L2 with a focus on the role of L1 on them. This study focuses on exploring the language practices of teachers of L2 in terms of their perceptions and uses of their students' L1. The tendency of discouraging the use of L1 in the L2 classroom results from the association of using L1 and translation with the Grammar-Translation Method (Atkinson, 1987). The teaching of EFL was initiated by speakers of English as their L1 who mostly did not share a language or a culture with their students (Butzkamm, 2003). Thus, teacher training courses have often been designed with a focus on training teachers who speak English as their L1 to be working in multilingual classes in the West (Atkinson, 1987). The strategy of avoiding L1 was largely influenced by the increasing number of British-based training programmes that concentrated on teachers who were working in multilingual classes (Harbord, 1992). However, any given pedagogical approach may be valid in certain contexts where teachers who speak the target language as their L1 operate, but claiming that this type of approaches has universal validity signals denial of diversity (Widdowson, 1994).

A combination of EFL teachers who speak English as their L1 and EFL teachers who speak English as their L2 and Arabic as their L1 participated in this study. Widdowson (1994) compares teachers of L2 who speak the target language as their L1 with teachers who speak it

as their L2. The former have the advantages of knowing the appropriate contexts of language use and defining possible target objectives whereas the latter have the advantage of knowing the appropriate contexts of language learning. Teachers of L2 who speak the target language as their L1 and teachers who speak it as their L2 may have different opinions towards the use of L1 in teaching L2 (Harbord, 1992). For instance, Glasgow (2014) emphasised that teachers of L2, in his study, perceived sharing an L1 with their students as an advantage. Nevertheless, McMillan and Rivers (2011) discovered that teachers' proficiency in their students' L1 did not have a significant influence on their attitude towards using L1. Hobbs, et al. (2010) revealed that foreign language teachers who speak the target language as their L1 (Japanese) and teachers who speak it as their L2 varied in their use of code-switching whereby the former used the target language significantly less than the latter. In addition, there exist many instances where language teachers use L2 only because they do not speak their students' L1 (Littlewood and Yu, 2011). Eldridge (1996) anticipates that native speaking teachers who do not speak their students' L1 are often not able to decide when to use code-switching. The impact of the EFL teachers' L1 on their attitude towards their students' L1 and use of it inside the classroom will be analysed in detail in chapters four and five.

Researchers outline several variables that have a crucial influence on language teachers' use of code-switching (Duff and Polio, 1990; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu, et al., 2004). The first variable is the LEP of their institutions towards the use of L1 (Duff and Polio, 1990; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu, et al., 2004). The second variable is teachers' beliefs towards the use of code-switching in teaching L2 (Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu, et al., 2004). Kim and Elder (2008) highlight the influence of students' proficiency levels and the status of L2 in the L1 community on the overall language teachers use of L2 in their teaching.

Researchers discovered a discrepancy between schools' LEP towards L1 and language teachers' use of code-switching inside the classroom (Raschka, et al., 2009; Tien, 2009). The necessity of creating efficient communication inside the classroom would sometimes lead teachers to ignore the L2-only LEPs by using code-switching (Then and Ting, 2011). This could particularly happen when both the teachers and their students share an L1 (Simon, 2001).

Hall and Cook (2012, p. 294) state that "the extent to which own-language use occurs in a language classroom will in many ways depend on the teacher's and learners' perceptions of its legitimacy, value and appropriate classroom functions." Teachers' beliefs towards the use of L1 are influenced by many factors (Hall and Cook, 2012; McMillan and Rivers, 2011) including their personal experiences as L2 learners, their professional teaching experiences of what could be implemented in class and the perspectives of others such as colleagues, managers, policy-makers and academic researchers. However, teachers' pedagogical beliefs are not always reflected in their language practices (Edstrom, 2006). Copland and Neokleous (2011) assert that the beliefs of teachers of L2 towards using L1 often contradict their practices.

2.3.6 Functions of code-switching

The functions of code-switching in the teaching of L2 will be discussed in this section. This study aims to explore the use of L1 inside the EFL classroom. This exploration is conducted through studying the language practices of the teachers in terms of their personal use of L1 and/or their permission for the students to use it. The uses of L1 in the EFL classroom is analysed in this study in light of the research on the functions of code-switching in the L2 classroom. There are some vital functions of code-switching that may enhance the language learning environment (Sert, 2005). Nonetheless, identifying the exact function of every code-switching instance is not always feasible (Bullock and Toribio, 2009). One of the reasons for

this is the possibility for any given code-switching instance to be multifunctional (Eldridge, 1996; Ferguson, 2009; Raschka, et al., 2009). Additionally, language teachers may code-switch unconsciously without being aware of the functions and outcomes of their code-switching (Sert, 2005). For example, one of the participants in this study (Ahmed) admitted that he sometimes code-switched unconsciously without prior consideration of the purpose or function of it (see chapter five). Jakobsson and Rydén (2010, p. 9) state that "for some people code switching is as normal as breathing, it comes naturally and without any thought behind it at all."

This study in its data analysis of the functions of code-switching in the EFL classroom adopts two functions from Eldridge (1996) (1-2 below), three functions from Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) (3-5 below) and one function from Ferguson (2009) (6 below). The functions of code-switching that this study will adopt in the data analysis of the EFL classroom are:

1. Equivalence in using or eliciting a similar item in the other language.

2. Metalanguage through commenting, evaluating, and talking about the task that would probably be in L1.

3. Affective functions that can be seen in spontaneous expressions of emotions between teachers and their students.

4. Socialising functions through using L1 to signal friendship and solidarity with students.

5. Repetitive functions in code-switching to convey the same message in both languages for clarity.

6. Code-switching for classroom management where the teacher uses code-switching to manage his students' behaviour.

My analysis of the classroom observations revealed instances of the equivalence function in using or eliciting a similar item between teachers and their students using L1. Below is an

example of the equivalence function between one of the EFL teachers who speaks English as his L1 (John) and his students. This extract highlights that the equivalence function in using or eliciting a similar item in L1 is relevant to the objectives of this study.

Extract

1	John: got, yeah! have both got. What's the meaning of both?
2	Ss: كلاهما <**both**> together
3	John: Yeah, yeah, when there's two. Only when there's two. Number seven Mat, Adel! Did you get number
4	seven Mat?

Atkinson (1987) supports permitting students to provide the meaning of vocabulary items using L1. Using L1 could facilitate teaching vocabulary tasks that may be beyond the capabilities of the learners (Moore, 2002; Nation, 2003). Researchers indicate that teachers of L2 use code-switching in teaching L2 vocabulary and in translating the meanings of vocabulary items (Cipriani, 2001; Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Franklin, 1990; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Kim and Elder, 2008; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Liu, et al., 2004; Nation, 2003; Polio and Duff, 1994; Sert, 2005; Yletyinen, 2004). Greggio and Gil (2007) discovered that the teachers of the beginner-level used synonyms and gestures in addition to code-switching in their teaching of vocabulary meaning.

My analysis of the classroom observations revealed instances of using the metalanguage function by teachers, among students and during interactions between teachers and their students. The extract below is an example of using the metalanguage function between two students in the classes of one of the EFL teachers who speaks English as his L1 (Steve). This extract reveals that the metalanguage function is relevant to the objectives of this study.

Extract

1	AS1: Why teacher don't use where?
2	Steve: Where?
3	AS1: Yes.
4	Steve: Which?
5	AS2: يقولك يبي يروح <**He is telling you that he is going to**> (XXXX).
6	Steve: Number one or number two?

7   AS1: OK!

Atkinson (1987) recommends permitting students to use L1 during cooperation among themselves. Nonetheless, students' language practices tend to be influenced by their teachers' language practices (Baoueb and Toumi, 2012; Liu, et al., 2004). For this reason, language teachers are urged to develop a strategic classroom that would facilitate learner's autonomy (Macaro, 2009). Teachers who do not speak their students' L1 could permit their students to use it during their group work (Lucas and Katz, 1994). McMillan and Rivers (2011) remarked that some teachers supported students' use of L1 during interactions with their colleagues. Storch and Aldosari (2010) declared that students used L1 to a fairly limited extent. Eldridge (1996) revealed that the vast majority of learners' code-switching instances were related to classroom tasks and they rarely used code-switching to talk about something irrelevant to the learning objectives. For instance, students may use L1 among themselves to check their mutual understanding of the received information (Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010). Lehti-Eklund (2013) declared that students used L1 inside the classroom to resolve common daily and institutional interaction difficulties of hearing, understanding and problems with the agenda of the lessons. Storch and Aldosari (2010) asserted that using L1 offered students with opportunities to gain a joint understanding of the task requirements and to give and receive timely assistance about word meanings and word searches. Yletyinen (2004) implied that students' low proficiency in L2 was not the main reason for their use of code-switching, but they used it to attract their teacher's attention and to help less competent colleagues through translating their teacher's instructions. Therefore, Yletyinen (2004) points out that this ability to translate teacher's instructions is a sign of student's developing proficiency in L2. Conversely, Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) reported that the most common use of L1 among students was for matters that were not relevant to the lesson.

Two of the code-switching functions that emerged from my data analysis of the classroom observations were the affective function and the socialising function. The extract below contains examples of both the affective function and the socialising function between one of the teachers who speaks English as his L2 (Ahmed) and a student. This extract shows that the affective and the socialising functions are relevant to the objectives of this study.

Extract

1 Ahmed: إذاً <Therefore,> we have these verbs in the present continuous. جت الأفعال عندي هذي في زمن ال <I have
2 these verbs in the tense of the> present continuous. Why? Because we have an action and these verbs describe
3 this action. النشاط أو الحدث الي موجود في الجملة activity <these verbs described the> الأفعال هذي وصفت ال <the activity or
4 the action that exists in the sentence>. OK!
5 AS: السلام عليكم <**Islamic greeting**> [Entering the class].
6 Ahmed: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله. حيا الله زايد <**Reply to Islamic greeting. Welcome, Zayed**>
7 AS: أنا كنت عند السكرتير مشوين <**I was at the secretary's office moments ago**>.
8 Ahmed: أي، مافي مشكلة. توكل على الله. حياك الله <**Yes, no problem. Trust in God. Welcome**>. OK! Now, who can put
9 these verbs in a correct full sentence? مين يقدر يعطيني ال... ال... الأفعال الموجودة هنا <Who can give me the… the… the
10 verbs that exists here> in a full correct sentence?

[Note: Ahmed, in the above extract, used both L1 and L2 in lines 1 to 4. Then, a student entered the classroom in line 5. Ahmed and this student used L1 only during their interaction in lines 5 to 8. When Ahmed ended his interaction with this student in line 8, he resumed using both L1 and L2 in lines 8 to 10.]

Code-switching is used in the affective function by teachers to express emotions and to build a relationship with students (Mujiono, et al., 2013; Sert, 2005). There is a significant possibility for L1 to be used in socialising with students (Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Macaro, 1995; Mujiono, et al., 2013; Uys and Dulm, 2011). Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994) reported that L1 was used in signalling an identity. Teachers may use code-switching in enhancing solidarity with their students (Azlan and Narasuman, 2013; Polio and Duff, 1994; Poulisse and Bongaerts, 1994).

My analysis of the classroom observations revealed instances of using the repetitive function mainly by the EFL teachers to convey the same message in both languages for clarity. The

extract below is an example of using the repetitive function by one of the teachers who speaks English as his L2 (Hamza). This extract shows that the repetitive function is relevant to the objectives of this study.

Extract

1 Hamza: OK! It's OK. So, **while the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth,** بينما كان طبيب الأسنان ينظف أسنان

2 المريض. شغال هو قاعد ينظف... أسنان المريض، شغال <**While the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth. He is**

3 **working cleaning… the patient's teeth working>. This is a continuous action in the past.** لحظة في مستمر عمل

4 الماضي <**continuous action in the moment of the past>. His assistant…** المساعد أو المساعدة <**his assistant male**

5 **or female>** was suck suck.

The literature outlines that the functions of repetition and reiteration were employed by teachers of L2 during their use of code-switching to clarify their messages and to repeat their information to enhance students' comprehension (Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult, 1999; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Mujiono, et al., 2013; Sert, 2005; Then and Ting, 2011; Yletyinen, 2004). Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) observed that the use of the repetitive function was both partial and full and it tended to go from L2 to L1. Yletyinen (2004) reported that teachers used code-switching to repeat their explanations, to translate vocabulary and to teach grammar. In addition, some students may use the repetitive function to display their understanding or lack of understanding of the given information (Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010). The extract below is an example of a student using L1 to repeat his teachers' question to check his understanding of the instructions.

Extract

1 Ahmed: Thing. OK? Now, can you, please, **can you translate the question for me in Arabic? Can… can you**

2 **translate it into Arabic?**

3 AS: أحوله عربي <**I convert it into Arabic>?**

4 Ahmed: Yes, عربي تحوله ما ،لا <No, do not convert it into Arabic>. What did you understand from the question?

5 شو الي فهمته من السؤال <What did you understand from the question>?

Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) warn that the repetitive function has positive and negative aspects. On the one hand, students who are interested in improving their L2 proficiency would listen to the information in L2 and, then, they would listen to the repetition of the same information in

L1 to cover the information gaps that they have encountered. On the other hand, some low-level students may not improve their proficiency in L2 because they would be waiting for the information to be repeated in their L1 (Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Sert, 2005).

One of the major uses of code-switching in the EFL classes that I observed was to teach L2 grammar. Studies indicate that teachers of L2 use code-switching in their teaching and explanation of L2 grammar (Atkinson, 1987; Butzkamm and Caldwell, 2009; Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Crawford, 2004; Edstrom, 2006; Franklin, 1990; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Kim and Elder, 2008; Liu, et al., 2004; Polio and Duff, 1994; Sert, 2005; Yletyinen, 2004). Moreover, Greggio and Gil (2007) remarked that students used code-switching during grammar explanations. Atkinson (1987) declares that using L1 during teaching L2 grammar may assist in checking students' comprehension of grammar explanation. Copland and Neokleous (2011) support using L1 in explaining L2 grammar because it tends to be complex for the learners to comprehend it without using L1. Using code-switching in explaining grammar may save time, improve classroom experience and reduce students' anxiety (Copland and Neokleous, 2011). On the other hand, Copland and Neokleous (2011) reported that some of the teachers in their study did not support using L1 in explaining grammar because students would struggle in comprehending it through comparing L2 and L1 grammars.

Some of the instances of using code-switching in the analysed EFL classes were relevant to providing instructions. Atkinson (1987) provides giving instructions as a technique that may benefit from using code-switching. Franklin (1990) discovered that teachers struggled in using L2 during giving task instructions. Therefore, studies show that teachers of L2 tend to use L1 during providing and clarifying instructions (Cipriani, 2001; Franklin, 1990; Greggio and Gil, 2007; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Kim and Elder, 2008; Macaro, 1995). Greggio and Gil

(2007) indicated that the teachers and the students of the beginner-level classes used code-switching during giving and receiving instructions.

My data analysis of the EFL classes revealed a few instances of code-switching for classroom management function. Researchers declared that teachers of L2 used code-switching for classroom management (Edstrom, 2006; Kim and Elder, 2008; Littlewood and Yu, 2011; Polio and Duff, 1994; Rezvani and Rasekh, 2011; Uys and Dulm, 2011). Mujiono, et al. (2013) pointed out that code-switching served several additional functions such as information clarification, asking questions and giving advice.

The literature shows an increasing interest by researchers on how teachers of L2 could incorporate L1 in the L2 classroom for it to improve the classroom environment. For instance, Littlewood and Yu (2011, p. 70) designed a framework to suggest a principled approach to teachers' use of L1 and L2 based on Kim and Elder's (2005) work. In their framework, Littlewood and Yu classified the use of L1 and L2 into core goals (teaching the target language) and framework goals (managing the classroom situation). Littlewood and Yu indicate that the core goals are accomplished through concentrating on certain techniques and tasks that are constructed to use L1 in assisting students to internalise, comprehend and produce L2. My data analysis in chapter five will reveal that the metalanguage function, the repetitive function and the equivalence function assisted in achieving the core goals through using L1 in teaching L2 grammar and vocabulary. Littlewood and Yu remark that the framework goals are attained through implementing L1 to create affective and material conditions for learning to avoid the sense of alienation that the exclusion of L1 may cause for some learners. My data analysis in chapter five will reveal that the classroom management function, the affective function and the

socialising function had a crucial impact on achieving the framework goals through socialising and exchanging solidarity between teachers and their students.

2.3.7 Section summary

Code-switching was discussed in this section with a particular focus on the role of L1 in teaching L2. A short historical review of code-switching was conducted with an attention to its definition and its significance in the field of sociolinguistics. Then, the debate on using L1 in the L2 classroom was explored to clarify its positive and negative aspects. The significant argument that urges reconsidering learners of L2 as bilinguals was highlighted. After this, the term translanguaging was briefly visited and it was pointed out that it was not relevant to the scope of this study. Language practices of teachers of L2 and the role of L1 in them were analysed before reviewing the functions of code-switching in teaching L2. This section will act as a background to assist in achieving the three objectives of this study in the data analysis in chapters four and five.

2.4 L2 classroom interaction

This section will explore interaction in the L2 classroom with a focus on teacher's talk. The third objective of this study is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. Thus, this section will conduct a short review of classroom interaction with a particular focus on teacher's talk to assist in achieving this objective.

Studies on classroom interaction began in the 1960s when the audio-recorders facilitated recording, transcribing and conducting detailed studies of classroom interactions (Jenks and Seedhouse, 2015 cited in Walsh and Li Li, 2016, p.488). I used an audio-recorder during my

classroom observations to record interactions inside the classroom. One of the prominent models of studying classroom interaction was developed by Sinclair and Coulthard (1975) who adopted a Discourse Analysis approach in their development of the three-part sequence of the classroom interaction. Their three-part sequence consists of teacher's initiation (I), student's response (R) and teacher's follow-up or feedback (F). However, Seedhouse (2004) maintains that the Discourse Analysis approach of classroom interaction tends to homogenize and oversimplify the interaction. Therefore, Seedhouse (2004) supports studying classroom interaction from a Conversation Analysis perspective. Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975) three-part sequence model did not exist in all the instances of classroom interactions in the EFL classes that I observed. My data analysis of the classroom interactions in chapter five will reveal that some of the extracts are conducted between a teacher and a student or a group of students and some of them are conducted among the students without a major involvement by the teacher. On the other hand, some of the analysed extracts did not involve any participation by the students. Thus, this study adopts a Conversation Analysis perspective on its investigation of the classroom observations.

In contrast to Discourse Analysis, Conversation Analysis has the ability to reveal the reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction (Seedhouse, 2004). The Conversation Analysis approach of studying institutional-discourse was derived from studies of L2 classrooms that used the Discourse Analysis approach (Seedhouse, 2004). Nevertheless, the Conversation Analysis approach expanded the exploration and developed connections with the social and the institutional contexts (Seedhouse, 2004). Harvey Sacks was the main founder of the field of Conversation Analysis (Seedhouse, 2004). Conversation Analysis has a dynamic, complex and highly empirical perspective on context and its main objective is creating an emic perspective (Seedhouse, 2004). Deviant cases are illuminating in the Conversation Analysis methodology

(Seedhouse, 2004). My data analysis in chapter five focuses on analysing the use of L1 in the EFL classroom by teachers and/or students and teachers' implementation of the LEP of the PYP towards L1. It will compare and contrast the EFL teachers' implementation of this policy and the functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 that are used by them and/or their students.

According to Seedhouse (1996, p. 333), "the core goal of L2 classroom interaction is that the teacher will teach the learners the L2." This describes the major goal of the EFL classes that I observed. However, Seedhouse (2004) reveals that every instance of L2 classroom interaction has a complex personality because it simultaneously displays homogeneity and heterogeneity and it functions on three different levels at the same time. Seedhouse (2004) termed these levels as a three-way view of context and he named them as the micro context, the L2 classroom context and the institutional context. The interaction is perceived at the micro level context as a singular unique occurrence (Seedhouse, 2004). In my study, this level represents the instances of using code-switching in every extract in the observed EFL classrooms. At the L2 classroom level context, the interaction is viewed as an instance of communication within a certain L2 classroom context (Seedhouse, 2004). The L2 classroom level context is represented in my study by the functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 (see section 2.3.6). The interaction is perceived at the institutional level context as an instance of L2 classroom discourse (Seedhouse, 2004). This level can be achieved in my study through comparing my findings with findings from other studies.

The communicative language teaching was the dominant language teaching approach in the EFL classrooms that I observed. Students according to the communicative language teaching have dual roles as listeners and speakers (Cook, 2008). Nevertheless, the topic of discussion is mostly controlled by teachers (Cook, 2008; Walsh, 2002). This means that teacher and learners

have asymmetrical roles (Walsh, 2002; Walsh and Li Li, 2016). Therefore, teachers are able to shape their classrooms according to the interests of their students and their objectives within the boundaries of their school or educational rooms (Cook, 2008). Language teachers have the power to promote or discourage classroom interaction through contributing in constructing or obstructing students' involvement in the interaction (Walsh, 2002). For instance, Walsh and Li Li (2016) describe speech modification as one of the most important features of L2 classroom discourse. Teachers consciously and deliberately use speech modifications to provide students with the opportunities of tracking the interaction and participate (Walsh and Li Li, 2016). Walsh and Li Li (2016) provide several examples of speech modifications. They may include, for instance, simplified vocabulary, limited range of tenses and fewer modal verbs and extensive use of standard forms. However, Ellis (2008) emphasises that the basis that teachers rely on in their modifications of their talk are not clear. I noticed differences between the EFL teachers in my study in their approaches to teaching L2, their interactions with their students, their use of L1 and their permissions for students to use L1. Hence, the form of ideal standards of teacher's talk do not exist (Ellis, 2008). Both teachers and students can shift the L2 classroom context with a great amount of rapidity and fluidity from turn to turn (Seedhouse, 2004). Thus, the methodology of analysing the language classroom interaction involves a turn-by-turn holistic and emic analysis of the sequential environment (Seedhouse, 2004).

The main focus of chapter five is to analyse the EFL teachers' talk through analysing their use of L1 and/or their permission or ban of students from using L1. Ellis (2008) classifies teacher's talk in the L2 classroom into: teacher's questions, use of the L1, use of metalanguage and corrective feedback. Asking a lot of questions is a typical characteristic of teachers in all types of classrooms (Ellis, 2008; Walsh, 2002; Walsh and Li Li, 2016). Teachers usually use questions as an elicitation technique to encourage students to contribute in the classroom

(Walsh and Li Li, 2016). Display questions and referential questions are the two main types of questions that are used in the classroom. Display questions are appropriate in conducting quick check of learners' understanding of what they already know while referential questions are suitable in promoting discussions and assisting learners in improving their oral fluency (Ellis, 2008; Walsh and Li Li, 2016). However, categorising questions as referential or display questions is not always an easy task (Ellis, 2008).

My data analysis of classroom interaction in chapter five focuses on the role of L1 in teaching L2. Ellis (2008) asserts that the teacher's use of L1 in the L2 classroom is a complex and controversial topic. It is complex because facilitating the use of L1 relies on the instructional context while it is controversial because the theories on L2 acquisition have not reached an agreement on the value of using L1 in the classroom (Ellis, 2008). See section (2.3) for further details.

My data analysis of the classroom interactions revealed that metalanguage was used in teaching and learning EFL. In fact, metalanguage was one of the functions of code-switching in the classes of all the EFL teachers that I observed. Metalanguage is used by language teachers in communicative lessons (Ellis, 2008). The main use of metalanguage in the classrooms that I observed was to teach L2 grammar. A general acceptance has been developed that a type of formal attention to grammar can provide beneficial impact on learning (Borg and Burns, 2008). Metalinguistic explanation involves knowledge of grammatical metalanguage and the ability to comprehend explanations of rules (Ellis, 2006). I noticed that the EFL teachers in my study varied in the degree of their use of L2's grammatical terminology and their translation of it to L1. Borg (1999) revealed that L2 teachers' decisions about the role of grammatical terminology

in their teaching are affected by a complex variety of experiential, cognitive and contextual elements.

Negotiation strategy	Description
Request for clarification	An utterance that elicits clarification of the preceding utterance.
Confirmation check	An utterance immediately following the previous speaker's utterance intended to confirm that the utterance was understood.
Recast	An utterance that rephrases the learner's utterance by changing one or more components (subject, verb, object) while still referring to its central meaning (Long, 1996 cited in Ellis, 2008, p.227).
Repetition	An utterance that repeats the learner's erroneous utterance highlighting the error.
Metalinguistic feedback	An utterance that provides comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance.
Elicitation	A question aimed at eliciting the correct form after a learner has produced an erroneous utterance.
Explicit correction	An utterance that provides the learner with the correct form while at the same time indicating an error was committed.

Table 1: Strategies used in the negotiation of meaning and form (from Ellis, 2008, pp. 227-228)

My data analysis of the classroom interactions between teachers of L2 and students revealed several instances of negotiations of meaning and form. These negotiations were used to facilitate interactions with the students or to provide a corrective feedback to an error that was committed by a student or a group of students. Teacher's reaction to a student's error may be disregarding the error, highlighting the error and correcting it, encouraging learners to correct their own errors or pointing out the error and encouraging other students to correct it (Walsh and Li Li, 2016). Corrective feedback is a type of negative feedback that takes the form of a response to a learner's utterance containing a linguistic error (Ellis, 2009). Chaudron (1977, p.31) defines corrective feedback as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner's utterance." On the other hand, uptake refers to a learner's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that relatively forms a reaction to the teacher's intention to attract attention to an aspect of the learner's initial utterance (Lyster and Ranta, 1997). Ellis (2008) states in table 1 above the seven most common types of strategies that are used by language teachers in their negotiation of meaning and form with students. These strategies are: request for clarification; confirmation check; recast; repetition; metalinguistic feedback; elicitation; and explicit correction. I discovered instances of these strategies in my data analysis of the EFL classrooms' interactions as chapter five will reveal. In addition, some of the EFL teachers used L1 to perform these strategies.

This section provided a short review of classroom interaction in language classrooms from a Conversation Analysis perspective. It mainly focused on language teacher's talk inside the classroom and how it may assist them in improving their students' learning and participation experiences in the classroom. This section will act as a background to assist in achieving the third objective of this study in my data analysis of classroom interactions in chapter five.

2.5 Chapter summary

This chapter conducted a survey of the literature to assist in building the stage for this study. It started in the first section with discussing the concepts of language planning and language policy with a concentration on the government's role in them and how the language policy may introduce a foreign language. This section analysed the term LEP with a particular focus on its perception towards the role of L1 in the L2 classroom before exploring the impact of teachers on implementing the LEP. The second section of this chapter reviewed the role of L1 and the use of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the language practices inside the L2 classroom. This section included a short historical review of code-switching research from a sociolinguistic perspective. It highlighted the debate on using L1 in the L2 classroom. Then, the significant viewpoint that supports reconsidering learners of L2 as bilinguals was addressed. The term translanguaging was reviewed before exploring the role of L1 in the language practices of teachers of L2. This section studied the functions of code-switching in teaching L2. The third section of this chapter involved a short exploration of L2 classroom interaction with a focus on teacher's talk. This chapter will serve as a background in my data analysis in chapters four and five to assist in attaining the three objectives of this study.

Chapter Three

Methodology

3.1 Chapter overview

The purpose of this chapter is to outline the methodological approach of this study. First, this chapter will begin with stating the research questions of this study, followed by reviewing the qualitative approaches. Then, this chapter will review the significance of interpretive case study in data collection. This will be followed by introducing the backgrounds of the participants in this study before reviewing the instruments that were used for data collection. The issues of validity, reliability and ethical considerations will be clarified. Finally, the process of data analysis will be described and my pilot study will be discussed after it.

3.2 Research questions

The present study focuses on researching the implementation of the language education policy (LEP) of the preparatory year programme (PYP) in Barzan University in Saudi Arabia. This study aims at answering three research questions:

Q1- What is the LEP of the PYP towards the use of L1, and what is the EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy?

Q2- What do the ELC (English language centre) staff report to be their language practices inside and outside the EFL classroom?

Q3- How do the EFL teachers' language practices relate to the LEP of the PYP?

The first question investigates Barzan University's, as an institution, LEP towards the use of learners' L1 (Arabic) inside the campus of the university and particularly in the interactions between EFL teachers and their learners. This study aims to discover the university's policy towards the use of L1 within the premises of the PYP. That is whether it completely bans L1 or it permits it. In addition, the first question explores EFL teachers' attitude towards this LEP. It will detect these teachers' degree of agreement or disagreement with this policy. The second question studies the perspective of the members of the ELC, as individuals, towards their language practices in terms of their use of L1 to explore their actual belief regarding the use of L1 whether inside or outside the EFL classroom. The third question analyses how the LEP of the PYP relates to the EFL teachers' language practices inside their classrooms. This question investigates the EFL teachers' language practices inside the classroom and how and why L1 is or is not used during class time by them and/or by their learners. In order to answer the research questions, qualitative research is adopted as the epistemological position of this study with using interpretive case study inquiry for data collection. The case study inquiry focuses on classroom observations, semi-structured interviews, fieldnotes and audio-recordings. The participants in this study are the Director of the ELC in Barzan University and four EFL teachers. Section (3.3) will discuss qualitative approaches in relation to the focus of this study. This will be followed by highlighting the significance of the interpretive case study inquiry as the research approach of this study in section (3.4).

3.3 Qualitative approaches

This section will discuss the epistemological position of this study. Moyer (2008, p. 18) states that "research is an activity that requires analytical and critical thinking at all stages". Attempting to describe things as they are without some type of perspective or even a set of

aiming questions will fail the study and nothing would be reported (Silverman, 2014). Therefore, a systematic approach is needed to answer a set of questions (Moyer, 2008). The research agenda will be influenced largely by the researcher's identity and his/her field of interests (Lanza, 2008). Selecting an appropriate research methodology is crucial in studies and they rely on theoretical ideas about the phenomenon that will be investigated (Moyer, 2008). Hence, what the researcher is attempting to discover should be the parameter for choosing the appropriate research method (Silverman, 2014). In other words, research questions influence the decision of selecting either qualitative or quantitative approach (Robson, 2011).

Robson (2011) illustrates that quantitative research has a fixed design whereas qualitative research has a flexible design. Flexibility in qualitative research encourages some researchers to be innovative whereas some other researchers criticise this flexibility because it refers to lack of structure (Silverman, 2014). However, conducting flexible design research requires flexible researchers (Robson, 2011). Qualitative research supporters argue that it is significant since the focus of social research is on human beings in social settings (Robson, 2011). The main advantage of qualitative research is its ability to investigate phenomena that are not accessible elsewhere (Silverman, 2014).

This study focuses on researching the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in Barzan University in Saudi Arabia and the language practices of the EFL teachers. A qualitative approach is adopted to accomplish this study. Human consciousness and language, interactions between people in social situations and the fact that both the researcher and the researched are humans urged the focus on qualitative research in social sciences (Robson, 2011). Table 2 below shows some qualitative research features from the social sciences perspective. This study aims at observing EFL classrooms and conducting interviews with them. The interviews are divided into two

parts. The first part asks questions about the LEP of Barzan University and the perceptions of the participants towards the use of L1 inside and outside the EFL classroom. The second part is about EFL teachers' reflections on my observations in their language classrooms.

Qualitative social research: typical features
- Accounts and findings are presented verbally or in other non-numerical form. There is little or no use of numerical data or statistical analysis.   - An inductive logic is used starting with data collection from which theoretical ideas and concepts emerge.   - A focus on meanings   - Contexts are seen as important. There is a need to understand phenomena in their settings   - Situations are described from the perspective of those involved   - The design of the research emerges as the research is carried out and is flexible throughout the whole process.   - The existence and importance of the values of researchers and others involved is accepted.   - Objectivity is not valued. It is seen as distancing the researcher from participants.   - Openness and receptivity of the researcher is valued.   - The generalizability of findings is not a major concern.   - It takes place in natural settings. Artificial laboratory settings are rarely used.

- Both the personal commitment and reflexivity (self-awareness) of the researcher are valued.

- It is usually small-scale in terms of numbers of persons or situations researched.

- The social world is viewed as a creation of the people involved.

(from Robson, 2011, p. 19)

Table 2: Typical features of qualitative social research

The researcher is an instrument in qualitative research instead of depending on specialist tools and instruments in quantitative research (Robson, 2011). Silverman (2014) indicates that qualitative research can employ naturally occurring data to discover the sequences of participants' meaning and practices deployment. Consequently, qualitative research needs a trained and experienced researcher (Robson, 2011). It requires personal qualities of an open and enquiring mind, being a good listener, general sensitivities and responsiveness to contradictory evidence and relevant professional experience (Robson, 2011). The data of qualitative research are usually non-numerical and for this reason, statistical analysis is not possible (Robson, 2011).

All types of data collection and transcription in qualitative research have drawbacks including equipment failure, environmental distractions and interruptions, and transcription errors (Robson, 2011). Silverman (2014) remarks that contextual sensitivity is not always highlighted by qualitative researchers. In all studies that involve people, the issues of bias and rigour are present (Robson, 2011). For instance, a close relationship between the researcher and the setting, and between the researcher and respondents typically exist in qualitative research (Robson, 2011). Researchers tend to become accepted and initial reactivity is reduced when

they spend a long time in the setting (Robson, 2011). However, this prolonged involvement may create a positive or negative bias (Robson, 2011). This bias may be reduced through returning to respondents and showing them material such as transcripts, accounts and interpretations (Robson, 2011). Searching for negative cases is a significant tool for challenging researcher bias (Robson, 2011).

Maxwell (1992 cited in Robson, 2011, p. 160) explains that internal and external are the two types of generalizability. The generalizability of conclusions within the studied setting is internal generalizability whereas external generalizability refers to generalizability beyond that setting (Robson, 2011). In contrast to external generalizability, internal generalizability is a significant issue in qualitative research (Robson, 2011).

3.4 Case study inquiry

This section will review the significance of case study as a research inquiry in language classroom research. This study is a case study inquiry. The majority of case study definitions assert the bounded and singular essence of the case besides the significance of context, the availability of multiple sources of information and the in-depth essence of analysis (Duff, 2008). Yin (2014) defines case study inquiry as "an empirical inquiry that

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the "case") in depth and within its real-world context, especially when

- the boundaries between phenomenon and context may not be clearly evident.".

This study adopts Yin's (2014) definition of case study inquiry.

Stake (2005) explains that the name case study attracts attention to the question of what specifically can be learned about the single case. Case study is a common and significant approach to research in the fields of applied linguistics and several other academic and professional fields (Duff, 2012). It focuses on experiential knowledge of the case and close attention to the impact of its social, political and other contexts (Stake, 2005). The investigated cases may prove, disprove, complicate, explain, describe or extend existing knowledge in various ways and relying on various epistemologies and theoretical and methodological frameworks (Duff, 2012).

Case study can be conducted over any period of time (Hua and David, 2008). Many case study researches in the field of applied linguistics are longitudinal especially if the study is part of major funded institutional research or dissertation or thesis work (Duff, 2012). This study was conducted between January and April 2015 to study the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University in Saudi Arabia and the LEP's impact on the language practices of the EFL teachers. A longer-term perspective may be crucial in some fields of work such as language policy to understand local linguistic ecologies, educational practices, the politics of language choice, and non-linguistic aspects affecting policy development and implementation (Duff, 2012). Table 3 below summarises some of the characteristics of case study inquiry in terms of its focus, type of problem best suited for its design, its discipline background, its unit of analysis, its data collection forms, its data analysis strategies and its written reports.

Characteristics	Case study
Focus	Developing an in-depth description and analysis of a case or multiple cases

Type of problem best suited for design	Providing an in-depth understanding of a case or cases
Discipline background	Drawing from psychology, law, political science, medicine
Unit of analysis	Studying an event, a program, an activity, more than one individual
Data collection forms	Using multiple sources, such as interviews, observations, documents, artefacts
Data analysis strategies	Analysing data through description of the case and themes of the case as well as cross-case themes
Written reports	Developing a detailed analysis of one or more cases

Table 3: Characteristics of case study (from Creswell, 2007, p. 78)

The literature highlights some of the advantages of case study inquiry. It presents the opportunity of studying real people in real situations to assist readers in gaining clear understanding of ideas better than through presenting these ideas using abstract theories or principles (Cohen, Manion and Morrison, 2007). It has the ability to establish cause and effect relationship through observing effects in real contexts (Cohen, et al., 2007). Some of well-accomplished case study advantages include: having a high degree of completeness, depth of analysis, and readability in addition to the possibility of generating new hypotheses, models, and understandings about the nature of language learning or other processes (Duff, 2008). Although defining the studied case would assist to a large extent in organizing it, one of the

advantages of case study inquiry is the ability to redefine the case after collecting some early data (Yin, 2012).

On the other hand, scholars point out some of the disadvantages of case study inquiry. Yin (2014) reveals that compared to other forms of inquiry, there have been concerns that led to perceiving case study as a less desirable form of inquiry. He reports a significant debate that there is a need for greater rigour in doing case study inquiry through following systematic procedures. He indicates a confusion between case study inquiry and case studies that are used in teaching where the material in the latter type may be deliberately altered to demonstrate a particular point effectively. Some of the additional disadvantages of case study inquiry include: concerns about its generalizability; issues connected with its thick description and triangulation; the need for skills in many techniques to be able to use multiple sources of data; its unsuitability of statistical analysis; and researcher's tendency of bias (Duff, 2008; Hua and David, 2008). Hua and David (2008) highlight the necessity of repeated access to subjects as a drawback. Duff (2008) mentions several additional disadvantages of case study inquiry that she describes as claimed disadvantages or limitations. They contain the use of abnormal cases to construct a model of normal behaviour, the data-driven instead of theory-driven approach, attrition and ethics that are mainly related to difficulties protecting the anonymity and privacy of case study participants.

There has been a tendency of lack of trust in the credibility of case study researcher's procedures that may include: suffering from accusations of biases because the researcher may appear to be finding what he/she had planned to find; and he/she may not be able to generalize his/her findings to any broader level (Yin, 2012). However, the major objective of a case report is representing the case and not representing the world (Stake, 2005). Therefore, Yin (2014)

asserts that case studies are generalizable to theoretical propositions instead of populations or universes. Case study includes systematic data collection and analysis procedures, and its findings can be generalized to other situations using analytic instead of statistical generalization (Yin, 2012). Analytic generalization relies on using a study's theoretical framework to create a logic that may be applicable to other situations (Yin, 2012).

Case study is a qualitative research where the researcher investigates a bounded system or multiple bounded systems within a period of time (Creswell, 2007). The investigated case could be single or collective, multi-sited or within-site, focused on a case or on an issue (Creswell, 2007). This study is a single case study that was conducted in the PYP of Barzan University in Saudi Arabia. Case study inquiry is able to investigate the behaviour of an individual or a small group (Hua and David, 2008). The researched cases may be an individual, several individuals, a programme, an event or an activity (Creswell, 2007). The participants in this study are the Director of the ELC in the PYP and four EFL teachers. Case study usually includes rich contextualization and a deep, inductive analysis of data from a small number of participants, sites, or events to comprehend characteristics of language learning or use (Duff, 2012). Hence, as a result of the few number of involved participants or sites, a great degree of contextualization can be included in case study inquiry and the complexities of the interaction between participants and their social, political, educational, or interpersonal situations can be explored deeply (Duff, 2012). Nevertheless, concerns about the uniqueness or artefactual conditions surrounding the case are usually reflected by criticism about single-case studies (Yin, 2014). For instance, deriving broader principles or observations of relevance to the field or to other readers beyond the researched cases are one of the challenges for case-study researchers (Duff, 2012).

Despite the idea that the case functions as the main unit of analysis in a case study, a case study can include embedded units within the main unit to develop an embedded design (Yin, 2012; Yin, 2014). Embedded unit of analysis is a unit lesser than the main unit of analysis from which case study data are collected (Yin, 2014). The embedded units of analysis in this study are the Director of the ELC and four EFL teachers. It is possible that the subunits would add opportunities for extensive analysis and enhance the insights into the single case (Yin, 2014). Nonetheless, one of the drawbacks of an embedded design is when the case study focuses only on the subunit level and does not manage to return to the larger unit of analysis (Yin, 2014).

Case study is capable to provide detailed and in-depth data collection using multiple sources of data (Creswell, 2007; Hua and David, 2008). Qualitative approaches to data analysis that highlight the interpretation of the data instead of quantitative or statistical approaches are often used by case studies (Hua and David, 2008). Case study depth of description and layers of triangulation may involve substantial primary data from various sources (Duff, 2008). Some of the sources of case study evidence include documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant-observation, and physical artefacts (Yin, 2014). The main data collection instruments in this study are interviews and observations.

Case study inquiry has not received widespread recognition as a method of choice where some people believe it is a method of last resort. This is partly because case study inquiry is considered as the exploratory phase for using other social science methods, but compared to experiments and surveys that have their own exploratory modes, case study inquiry goes far beyond exploratory functions (Yin, 2012). Yin (2014, p. 238) points out that the purpose of conducting a case study inquiry could be: exploratory, descriptive or explanatory. Yin illustrates that an exploratory case study is "a case study whose purpose is to identify the research

questions or procedures to be used in a subsequent research study, which might or might not be a case study." Yin adds that a descriptive case study is "a case study whose purpose is to describe a phenomenon (the "case") in its real-world context." On the other hand, according to Yin, explanatory case study is "a case study whose purpose is to explain how or why some condition came to be". This study aims to conduct an explanatory study. Its main objective is investigating the LEP of the PYP and the language practices of the EFL teachers. It will engage with analysing the extent of the LEP's influence on the language practices of the EFL teachers and the reasons behind this influence. Thomas (2011) emphasises that the explanatory case study is the most common purpose in the field of case study inquiry because case study tends to neglect breadth of coverage in an exchange for a deep understanding that would lead to possible explanations. However, explanatory case studies are the most complicated type and they might be the most frequently challenged (Yin, 2012). Therefore, the credibility of an explanatory case study can be strengthened enormously through searching for and testing rival explanations (Yin, 2012). It should compare evidence that supports an explanation of what has occurred in a case with other evidence that would illustrate what may happen instead (Yin, 2012).

Qualitative research is interpretive in its nature where the researcher makes his/her personal assessment of a description that fits the situation or themes that capture the major categories of information (Creswell, 2008). Interpretation in qualitative research refers to the researcher stepping back and forming a type of large meaning about the phenomenon relying on personal views, comparisons with past studies or both (Creswell, 2008). Case study in the field of applied linguistics is usually connected with the interpretive approach (Duff, 2008). This study adopts the interpretive approach in studying the LEP of the PYP and the language practices of the EFL teachers. Case study inquiry and the interpretive approach complement each other because they

both support rich and intensive understanding of the multifaceted nature of social situations (Thomas, 2011). Cohen, et al. (2007) remark that case studies often follow the interpretive approach through observing the situation using the eyes of participants.

It is acknowledged that the interpretive approach is constituted of varied observations and multiple realities (Duff, 2008). Hence, any given interpretive study should contain multiple sources of field data (Walsham, 2006). An in-depth understanding and deep immersion in the field are implemented by the interpretive approach (Thomas, 2011). Nevertheless, the interpretive paradigm of case studies tends to employ certain data collection instruments such as semi-structured interviews, observation, narrative accounts and documents and tests (Cohen, et al., 2007). The main research instruments in this study are semi-structured interviews and observations.

The major data sources in interpretive approaches are people and their interpretations, perceptions, meanings and understandings (Mason, 2002). Therefore, interpretive researchers do not claim that they are reporting facts, but they are reporting their interpretations of other people's interpretations (Walsham, 1995). This highlights one of the major challenges for the interpretive approach which is how to ascertain that data are not being invented (Mason, 2002). Thus, researchers who opt to adopt the interpretive approach have to develop a transparent and systematic mechanism for arriving at their interpretations and for drawing on lay interpretations (Mason, 2002). Interpretive researchers have to construct some credibility to the reader through detailed description of how they have arrived at their conclusions (Walsham, 1995).

3.5 Research participants

This section will review the background information of the participants. All the participants are members of the ELC in Barzan University. They are all males because female participants could not be included in this study's sample for cultural and administrative boundaries. The ELC contains a mixture of EFL teachers who speak English as their L1 and others who speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2. The vast majority of the EFL teachers are not Saudis. Therefore, this study has a preparticipation condition that every participant has to have at least two years of teaching experience in a Saudi educational context. This condition was set to make sure that all the participants have sufficient teaching experiences and comprehension of the complexities of the Saudi educational context. The Director of the ELC in addition to two EFL teachers who speak English as their L1 and two other EFL teachers who speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2 participated in this study. The participants are either from the medical or the engineering and science tracks. This study focuses on learners of the PYP who are prepared to pursue their undergraduate major with the English language as the medium of instruction whereas the vast majority of the learners in the humanities track will be taught in Arabic when they pass the PYP. Thus, I did not ask EFL teachers in the humanities track to participate in this study. Amara, et al. (2009) conducted observations during their study according to the convenience of class meeting times and the teachers' attitude towards participation. Table 4 below summarises background information about the participants. The participants in this study are given pseudonyms to protect their identities. I did not have access to the learners' name lists in the classes that I observed. Therefore, I do not have the actual number of the registered learners in these classes. However, I managed to count the number of learners in the sessions that I observed. I discovered that the number of learners in these sessions was not consistent among the EFL teachers and within the sessions of every teacher. This

inconsistency may have been caused by the fact that learners were permitted to change their sections during that time or some students missed some of the sessions.

	Zain	Steve	John	Hamza	Ahmed
Nationality	Tunisian	British	British	Jordanian	Jordanian
Highest qualification	MA in Linguistics	B.Sc. in Geography	MA in TESOL	MA in English Literature	MA in TEFL
Spoken languages	Arabic, French, English and little Italian	English and little Italian	English, little Arabic and little Bulgarian	Arabic, English and Urdu	Arabic, English and little French
Years of teaching experience	13 ½ years	14 ½ years	14 years	20 years	7 years
Years of teaching experience in a Saudi context	More than 5 years	5 years	3 ½ years	7 ½ years	4 years
Years of administrative experience in a Saudi context	3 years	NA	NA	NA	NA
Teaching track	NA	medical	medical	medical	science and engineering
EFL taught level	NA	Levels 3 and 4	Level 3	Levels 3 and 2	Levels 3 and 4
Number of students in the observed class	NA	13-9	22-17	13-9	18-11

Table 4: Background information about the research participants

3.5.1 Zain

The first participant (Zain) is the Director of the ELC. Zain is Tunisian and his highest qualification is a Master of Arts (MA) degree in Linguistics from a Cambridge college in Banbury, the UK. Zain speaks Arabic as his L1 besides French, English and little Italian. Zain

has thirteen and half years of teaching experience in general and more than five years of them are in a Saudi context. Zain has been the Director of the ELC for two years during the data collection and he had a one-year experience before that as the coordinator of the EFL module for undergraduate students. Zain was not teaching an EFL module in the PYP during data collection, but he was teaching an undergraduate module for students who passed the PYP. The extract below is a sample of Zain's voice about his years of experience in administration.

Extract

1 **R:** Are you doing any teaching hours currently?
2 **Zain:** Yes, I am teaching… what we call here post prep programme. It is a university English programme that is
3 direct to students of the college of engineering and it is a writing course.
4 **R:** Uh-huh! OK! How many years in administration in general within the field of English as a foreign language
5 do you have? Or a second language?
6 **Zain:** … Yeah, actually I have three years because I have been coordinating the English language programme for
7 some time… at the college of engineering at the University of [name of the researched university] and then… I
8 have been assigned the position of Director of the English Language Centre since September 2013, so we can say
9 it is about 3 years now.
10 **R:** And… I think you answered my next question. How many years of experience as the director of English
11 Language Centre?
12 **Zain:** Oh! It is 2 years now.

3.5.2 Steve

The first EFL teacher (Steve) is British and he has a Bachelor of Science (B.Sc.) in Geography. Steve speaks English as his L1 and little Italian because he lived in Italy for a while. Steve has fourteen and half years of teaching experience and five years of them are in a Saudi context. Steve is a teacher in the medical track and he was teaching levels three and four during the data collection. The number of learners in Steve's sessions varied between thirteen and nine. The extract below is a sample of my interview with Steve to reveal his perspective about the significance of learning his students' L1 in teaching EFL.

Extract

1 **R:** So, do you think if you knew Arabic, it would help you or improve your teaching methods, for example?
2 **Steve:** I would know how they are thinking. I would know the mistakes they make. I would know what to
3 concentrate on, of course!
4 **R:** OK! Interesting!

5   **Steve:** Hmm! I slowly get to know the kind of mistakes they make month after month. So, I think obviously there
6   is a big difference between Arabic and English here. But I never know exactly.
7   **R:** Uh-huh! Interesting!

3.5.3 John

The second EFL teacher (John) is British and he holds an MA in Teaching English to Speakers

of Other Languages (TESOL). John speaks English as his L1, little Arabic and little Bulgarian.

John has fourteen years of teaching experience and three and half of them are in a Saudi context.

John is a teacher in the medical track and he was teaching level three during data collection.

Between twenty-two and seventeen learners attended John's sessions. Below is a sample of

John's reflections about the use of L1 in teaching EFL.

Extract

1   **R:** What would be your criteria to sometimes accept the Arabic word from students and sometimes ask them to
2   give you the English?
3   **John:** My criteria is that I am open to them trying anyway that they can to show that they know the meaning and
4   if they give me in English, I would not say OK!, but what is the Arabic word. Well, usually I would not unless I
5   think the other people do not understand what he just said. So, if he had replied to me instantly. It means when I
6   give something of my contemporary period in perfect English I would have accepted that unless I thought nobody
7   else will understand what you just said. Give me an Arabic word as well, but it is like when you reply to me in
8   Arabic and I know the word in Arabic, fine. That means everybody in the room knows now because they all know
9   the word. If I do not know the word, I need more. Give me an example or something like that. So, I do not think
10   that I tend to specify what is the meaning, give it to me in English? What is the meaning, give it to me in Arabic?
11   I wait for what they give me and I say yeah fine, but I do not know that word. Or yeah, that is fine.

3.5.4 Hamza

The third EFL teacher (Hamza) is Jordanian and he has a complicated situation with his highest

qualification. Hamza holds a PhD from American World University (AWU), but it was not

recognised by both his government and Barzan university because he was awarded this degree

through distance learning. Consequently, Barzan University recognised only his MA in English

literature as his highest qualification. Hamza speaks Arabic as his L1, English and Urdu. Hamza

has twenty years of teaching experience in general and seven and half years of them are in a

Saudi context. Hamza is a teacher in the medical track. During the period of data collection,

Hamza was teaching levels three and two. The number of learners in Hamza's sessions varied

between thirteen and nine. The extract below is an example of Hamza's reflections about his

perspective towards the use of L1 by his students inside the EFL classroom.

Extract

1   **R:** Uh-huh! OK! So, in another instance, you said, 'What day is it?' A student said, 'it is Tuesday.' Then another
2   student rose his hand and you looked at him. The other student gave you an answer regarding the date. You seemed
3   to me that you did not understand his answer and you asked him 'Why did you raise your hand?' And then the
4   student said 'التاريخ <the date>'. Said that in Arabic. You said loudly 'don't talk in Arabic.'
5   **Hamza:** Yeah.
6   **R:** You did not want him to say anything in Arabic.
7   **Hamza:** Yeah. So, what is your question? What do you want me to say?
8   **R:** I just need to hear your comment. For example, one student…
9   **Hamza:** Well, here I asked them this question in order to differentiate between the day and the date because
10 students should know the difference between date and day. Date he has to give me the full date, the day, the month
11 and the year whereas day he has to tell me which day of the week it is. The second student raised his hand. He
12 could not tell something that I could not comprehend. So, I was trying to give him another chance to speak. To
13 give the same answer in another way, but all of a sudden, I found him speaking in Arabic. I do not want to give
14 anyone or any student a chance to speak in Arabic in my class. Why? Because if I gave them a chance to speak in
15 Arabic, then it will be a habit for them to break it and speak in Arabic trying to get out of the language the bondage
16 of the language. So, I try not to give any chance to speak in their own native language. Just he has to try hard in
17 order to give the answer in English. Especially with these simple questions.

3.5.5 Ahmed

The fourth EFL teacher (Ahmed) is Jordanian and he holds an MA in teaching English as a

foreign language (TEFL). Ahmed speaks Arabic as his L1, English and little French. Ahmed

has seven years of teaching experience in general and four years of them are in a Saudi context.

Ahmed is a teacher in the science and engineering track and he was teaching levels three and

four during the data collection of this study. The attendees of Ahmed's sessions varied between

eighteen and eleven learners. Below is an extract from Ahmed's reflections to highlight his

perspective towards the use of L1 by his students inside the classroom.

Extract

1   **R:** Uh-huh! OK! Yeah, here for example in this instance you asked the student to answer a question, but the student
2   said he cannot because he does not know the answer. He said 'ما اعرف الإجابة <I do not know the answer>'. He said
3   it in Arabic
4   **Ahmed:** Yeah, he said ما اعرف اجاوب <I do not know how to answer>. Yes.
5   **R:** Is it allowed, for example, you speak to students in English and they reply in Arabic?
6   **Ahmed:** I think in this case the student does not have any way to say that he does not know the answer. He has
7   only his first language to say انا ما اعرف الإجابة <I do not know the answer>. He cannot say it in English. So, it is
8   better than staying without any talk.

3.6 Classroom observation

The first main instrument for data collection in this study is classroom observation. The third objective of this study is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. Classroom observation is adopted to achieve this objective. Observation refers to the process of gathering open-ended, first-hand information by observing people and places at a research site (Creswell, 2008). Observation, as an instrument, can be developed as part of the case study protocol where the fieldworker may attempt to assess the occurrence of certain types of behaviours during certain periods of time in the field (Yin, 2014). According to Cohen, et al. (2007, p. 258), the objective of observation in case studies is "to probe deeply and to analyse intensively the multifarious phenomena that constitute the life cycle of the unit with a view to establishing generalizations about the wider population to which that unit belongs". Observational work in classroom-based or workplace studies may assist in comprehending the physical, social, and linguistic contexts of language use and in collecting relevant linguistic and interactional data for data analysis (Duff, 2008).

Participant observation and non-participant observation are the two major types of observation (Cohen, et al., 2007). Creswell (2008) advises researchers to determine at the beginning of their research their role as either a participant or a non-participant observer. A non-participant observer is an outsider observer who visits a site and records notes without being involved in the activities of the participants (Creswell, 2008). I used non-participant observation in this study where I sat quietly in the classroom and observed the interactions between teachers and their learners in addition to asking the teachers to wear an audio-recorder inside their shirt pockets.

Observation in interpretive case studies is often not guided by a predetermined observational protocol (Duff, 2008). What the researcher observes and how he/she observes and records observations depend to a great extent on the theoretical framework and traditions of the researcher's work (Duff, 2008). All my observations started with mock observations without audio-recording them to get familiar with the class and to focus my observation. The conventional approach of collecting observational data includes using the researcher's five senses, taking fieldnotes and eventually creating a narrative that relies on what have been seen, heard or sensed (Yin, 2012).

The research question(s) and the type of investigated information are the leading force behind the use of observation (Robson, 2011). Data of observation can contradict or complement information collected by any other research instrument (Robson, 2011). For this reason, observation can be part of a multistrategy design (Robson, 2011). The observation instrument of this study is accompanied by interviews with the EFL teachers to listen to their reflections about my observations. Observation usually precedes interview recordings to assist in building rapport and develop trust in the field (Copland and Creese, 2015).

Robson (2011) contends that observation is usually very time-consuming. It may include conducting many visits and observations with taking notes about the people, social spaces and social practices in the investigated site (Copland and Creese, 2015). A disadvantage of observation is reactivity, which refers to the extent of the observer's effect on the observed situation (Robson, 2011). Hence, ensuring that the observed do not know that they are being observed or getting them to be so accustomed to the presence of the observer are some of the tactics of reducing the effect of reactivity (Robson, 2011). However, the researcher's mere presence makes him/her inevitably an unofficial participant in the speech event that would lead

to possible alteration to the researched activities or behaviours (Duff, 2008). There is always an observer's effect because the whole classroom changes when a researcher enters it and many of the observations are reactions, adjustments and adaptations to this change (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). Nevertheless, this effect may diminish when the fieldwork progresses (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). For instance, the possible alterations and identifying how typical the observations are could be identified through extended observations (Duff, 2008).

Self-reported data can yield interesting insights, but they should not be used as a substitute for naturally occurring speech because of the multiple conditions that shape speaker's opinions and their contextually situated nature (Codó, 2008). Asking people directly is a clear shortcut to answering research questions (Robson, 2011). However, observation provides the opportunity to record information as it occurs in a setting, to study actual behaviour and to study individuals who have difficulty verbalizing their ideas (Creswell, 2008).

Amara, et al. (2009), in their study, pointed out that classroom may be the most significant field of language interaction because most of the students' time is spent on it and it is structured by the presence of the teachers and the influence of curriculum. Amara, et al. (2009) observed classrooms to identify who uses which language with whom, when, where and for what purpose.

The classroom observations of this study were conducted between January and April 2015. The EFL classrooms of four different teachers were attended to observe EFL teachers' language practices inside their classrooms and the relationship between their language practices and the LEP of the PYP. Six sessions with every EFL teacher were attended. This means that I attended twenty-four sessions, but I only audio-recorded sixteen sessions. The maximum duration of every session was fifty minutes, but some of the sessions lasted less than that either because the

teacher started late or the learners did not attend the class on time. A mock observation was conducted in the first two sessions to provide teachers and their learners the opportunity to get used to my presence in the classroom. The mock observations aimed at reducing the influence of my presence on the language practices of the teachers and the learners to make sure that they would act naturally during the actual observation. I asked both the teachers and the learners to ignore my presence and I informed them that my observations would not be shared with anyone else from their university. The observations were conducted according to the convenience of the teachers and their schedules. Some of the teachers preferred the observations to be conducted within three days with two sessions per day whereas the others preferred conducting the observations within six days with a session every day.

The focus of the classroom observations was on EFL teachers' use of L1 (Arabic), when and why teachers use or do not use L1 and whether they tolerate the use of L1 by their learners or not. Instances of teachers' use of L1 were categorised and analysed. Teachers' permission or ban of their learners from using L1 inside the classroom were observed and analysed.

3.6.1 Fieldnotes

Fieldnotes was an instrument that I used during my classroom observations. The third objective of this study is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. Fieldnotes play a major role in achieving this objective. Fieldnotes are text that is used in qualitative research by researchers to record their observations (Creswell, 2008). Fieldnotes are common to virtually every case study (Yin, 2012). Emerson, Fretz, and Shaw (2011) illustrate that fieldnotes are an approach to capture and preserve observations and understandings that are inspired by close and long-term experiences. Fieldnotes are mainly

employed in this study to record my observations inside the EFL classrooms. Due to the limited time of data collection and the short period between classroom observations and meetings with the EFL teachers to discuss their reflections on my observations, fieldnotes were a great assistance during these meetings.

Fieldnotes are vital in constructing an archive of research and represent a material memory of fieldwork about what has been learned and how they have been learned (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). However, there is no particular technique or strategy of writing the observations (Emerson, et al., 2011; Mason, 2002). Hence, researchers have the opportunity to choose their preferred approach that will partly reflect and constitute their methodological and theoretical orientation (Mason, 2002). The initial notes may be in a form of jottings that may not involve complete sentences, but they may be in a form of brief tallies or hand-drawn sketches (Yin, 2012). Nonetheless, these jottings should be rendered into more formal writing as soon as possible (Yin, 2012). Fieldnote descriptions of a single event will vary according to the choices, positioning, personal sensitivities and interactional concerns of the observer (Emerson, et al., 2011). Researchers have to make a habit of re-reading their notes and they have the right to decide what they will release from them (Blommaert and Jie, 2010).

Fieldnotes improve recording quality and they are one of the best ways of developing observational skills (Clemente, 2008). They assist in preserving observations near the moment of their occurrence to deepening reflections and understanding of these observations (Emerson, et al., 2011). Writing fieldnotes keeps observations open and assist in choosing to describe what seems significant to the participants (Copland and Creese, 2015).

Fieldnotes are not collections or samples that are decided in advance depending on a prescribed criterion (Emerson, et al., 2011). Everything that seems closely or remotely relevant to the

research should be collected (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). Fieldnotes could be initially long and detailed and become more succinct and brief gradually (Copland and Creese, 2015).

I took fieldnotes during all the attended sessions, including the mock-observation sessions. Fieldnotes helped me in recording all the observations that seemed significant and the observations that the audio-recorder was not able to record. Additionally, after the first observed session with every teacher, I gave him my fieldnotes of this session to give him an impression of what I was interested in. Showing the EFL teachers my fieldnotes assisted me in gaining the trust of the teachers and helped them to feel more relaxed about my presence in their classes. There was a limited time for the data collection of this study. Besides this, to seize the opportunity of discussing EFL teachers' reflections on my observations while they were still fresh in their minds, fieldnotes were my major instrument and document of my observations during our meetings. Below is an example of my fieldnotes from one of the sessions that I attended.
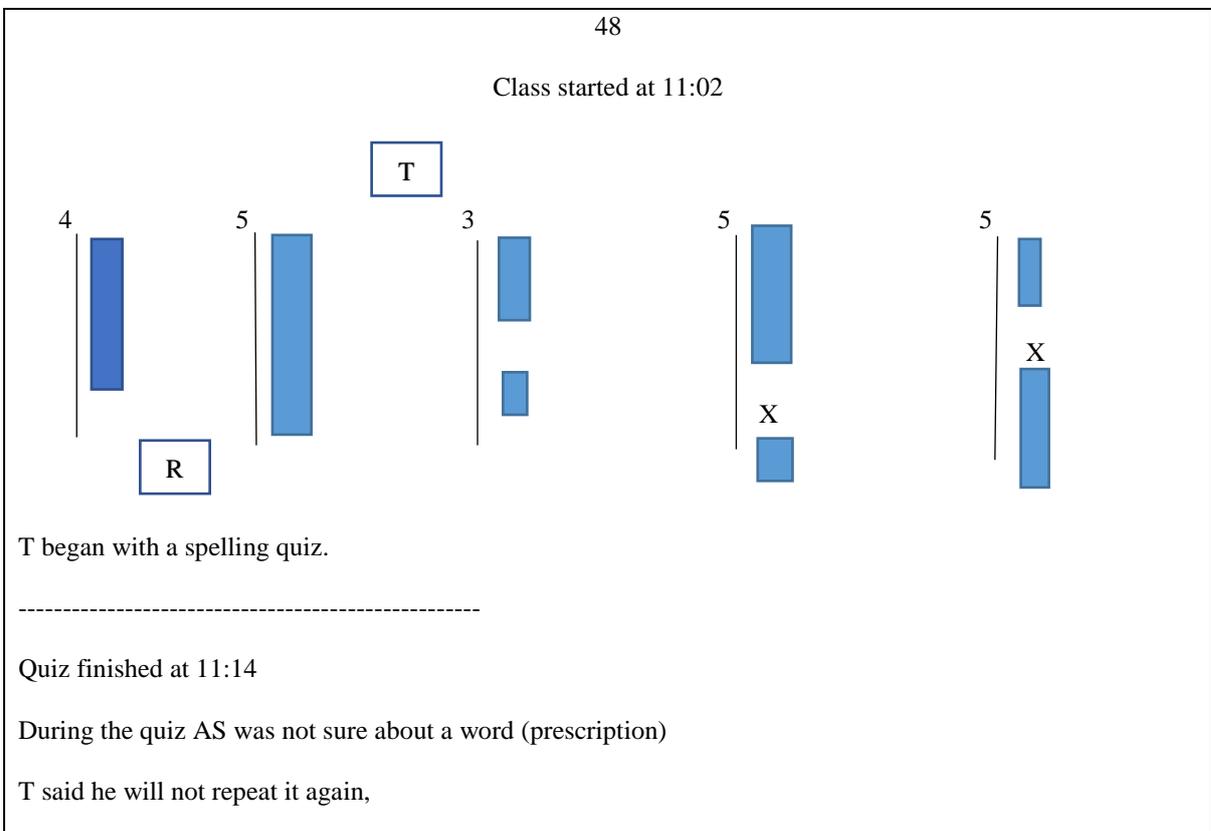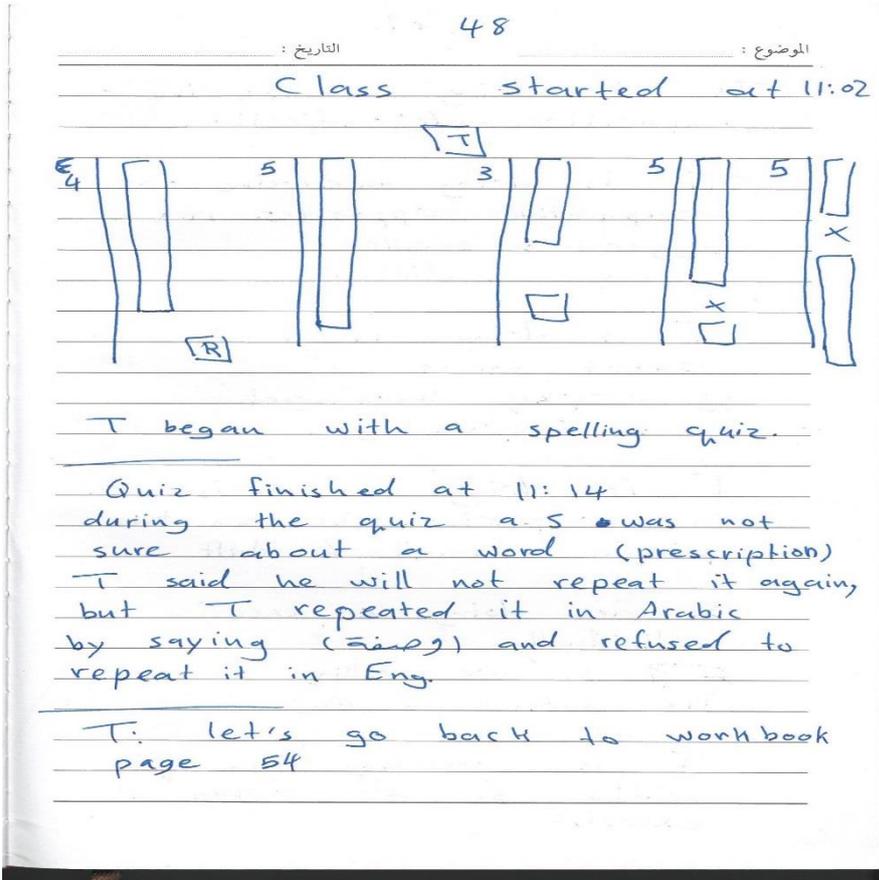
48

Class started at 11:02

T began with a spelling quiz.

Quiz finished at 11:14
during the quiz a S was not
sure about a word (prescription)
T said he will not repeat it again,
but T repeated it in Arabic
by saying (وصفة) and refused to
repeat it in Eng.

T: let's go back to workbook
page 54

48

Class started at 11:02

T began with a spelling quiz.

Quiz finished at 11:14

During the quiz AS was not sure about a word (prescription)

T said he will not repeat it again,

But T repeated it in Arabic
By saying (وصفة) and refused to repeat it in Eng.

T: let's go back to workbook page 54

Number 48 at the top of this page is the page number in my fieldnotes diary. Then, the example shows the time of the beginning of the session according to my watch. The diagram below it refers to the seating arrangement in the attended session. The square at the top of the diagram with the letter T inside it represents the position of the teacher whereas the second square with the letter R shows my position. The learners were divided into five rows. The numbers at the top of every row are the number of learners in that row and the rectangles point out how they were seated with the letter X to symbolize an empty chair between the learners. The comments below the diagram are my observations from that session. The session began with a spelling quiz and I noted down the time when the quiz finished. I added one of my observations during that quiz when a student asked the teacher to repeat a word, but the teacher refused to repeat it in English and he repeated it in Arabic. The final comment on that page indicates that the teacher was referring the class to a certain page on their workbooks.

3.7 Interview

Interview is the second main instrument in this study. Interview is an exceptional tool that contains gathering of data using direct verbal interaction between individuals (Cohen, et al., 2007). The first objective of this study is to identify the LEP of the PYP towards the use of learners' L1 and EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. This study's second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. Interview is the research instrument that is used to achieve these two objectives.

There are three types of interview in qualitative research: structured interview, semi-structured interview and unstructured interview. This study adopts semi-structured interview in its data collection stage. The semi-structured interview provides the opportunity to develop specific questions to ask the interviewees with the ability to paraphrase or translate these questions when the interviewees do not understand the question. It permits the researcher to follow up on interviewees' responses and to ask for clarification and to encourage them to elaborate on their responses. Consequently, this section focuses on the semi-structured interview and the other two types are not discussed.

Semi-structured interview varies in its degree of structure between being almost fully structured to allowing the interviewer a greater freedom (Robson, 2011). A group of questions are designed in the semi-structured interview to act as a guide for the researcher (Copland and Creese, 2015). The interviewer in this type of interview has a guide of topics and default wording and order of the questions that are flexible and relies on the flow of the interview besides unplanned questions to follow up on interviewee responses (Robson, 2011).

Interview has the possibility of offering rich and highly informative data (Robson, 2011). Interview provides both the interviewers and the interviewees the opportunity to discuss their interpretations of their world and to express their viewpoints of the situations (Cohen, et al., 2007). Interview is used to collect data that is difficult to be collected using other types of research instruments or to investigate issues that can be accessed indirectly when interactional data is implemented (Codó, 2008). For instance, it can be used to discuss with informants extracts of interactional data (Codó, 2008). Interview allows researchers to collect efficiently large bodies of data in relatively short time (Codó, 2008). For example, Copland and Neokleous

(2011) conducted interviews with teachers of L2 after observing their classrooms to discuss their beliefs about using L1 in the classroom.

Interview is common in case study research (Yin, 2014). The best implementation of interview is through triangulation (Codó, 2008). For instance, observation is usually combined in case studies with interview to explore the participants' perspectives on their actions or behaviours (Duff, 2008). This study employs a triangulation approach in its research instruments. In addition to interviews, it uses observations, fieldnotes and audio-recordings. Interview is as popular as observations in qualitative research (Creswell, 2008). Interview provides participants with the opportunity to describe detailed personal information and the interviewer has the advantage of controlling the types of received information (Creswell, 2008).

This study conducted classroom observations before interviewing the EFL teachers. When the interview focuses on actions, it should always be considered verbal reports only because the interviewee's responses are subject to the common problems of bias, poor recall, and poor or inaccurate articulation (Yin, 2014). Hence, the extent of participants' willingness and ability to describe the observed features of social life determine the worthiness of the interview as a valuable tool (Emerson, et al., 2011). My fieldnotes assisted me in reminding the EFL teachers about the instances that they were not able to remember during our reflections meetings.

Interviewing is a skill that requires paying attention to a range of factors including interview venue and interaction between interviewer and interviewee (Copland and Creese, 2015). Researchers are often worried that informant's responses do not represent their actual opinions on certain themes. This may result from attempting to satisfy the researcher, feeling constrained by the interview situation from expressing their opinions or intending to advertise a certain image of themselves and their community (Codó, 2008). Interviewers should provide their

maximal efforts to build a relaxed and friendly atmosphere at the beginning of the interview and construct a relationship with the informants (Codó, 2008). It is important to pilot the interview before conducting it and time and location of the interview must be selected and left for the informants to decide (Codó, 2008).

The main types of interview items are closed, open and scale items (Robson, 2011). The advantages of open-ended questions include: their flexibility; deepening the investigation; testing respondent's knowledge; encouraging cooperation and rapport; permitting real assessment of respondents' beliefs; and the possibility of producing unexpected answers (Robson, 2011). The interview questions in this study are open-ended to provide teachers with the opportunity to express themselves freely and openly. Open-ended questions provide the participants with the opportunity of voicing their experience without being constrained by any perspectives of the researcher or past research findings (Creswell, 2008). However, the main disadvantages of open-ended questions are: the possibilities of interviewer's loss of control; and the difficulty of analysing them compared to closed questions (Robson, 2011).

The contents of the semi-structured interview are: a set of items; suggestions for so-called probes and prompts; and proposed sequence for the questions (Robson, 2011). A probe is a device to get the interviewee to expand on a response when the interviewer has the feeling that the interviewee has more to give whereas prompts suggest to the interviewee a range of possible answers that the interviewer expects (Robson, 2011). Probe questions could be used to follow up on interviewee's responses to elicit details or examples that assist the researcher in enhancing their understanding of the interviewee's experience (Copland and Creese, 2015).

The interview instrument is divided in this study into two parts. The first part is interviews with pre-set open-ended questions about the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University, the interviewees'

attitude towards the LEP and questions related to the participants' perspectives on their language practices regarding the use of L1 inside and outside the EFL classroom (see Appendix IV and Appendix V). The second part is about the participants' reflections on my observations in their EFL classrooms. The first part will be named the interviews and the second part will be named the reflections henceforth to distinguish between the two parts. The Director of the ELC and four EFL teachers participated in the interviews whereas the same four EFL teachers only participated in the reflections. After observing the language classrooms of every EFL teacher, I asked the teacher to be interviewed individually to discuss the interviews and his reflections on my observations. These meetings were divided into two or three sessions where every session's maximum duration was approximately sixty minutes. In addition, by the end of the data collection, I requested an interview with the Director of the ELC and he agreed to participate in the study. The meetings were conducted in the participants' offices or their places of preference to allow them to feel relaxed and comfortable. The participants were asked to choose their most convenient time for the meetings according to their schedules and preferences.

3.8 Audio-recording

Audio-recording is one of the instruments that I used during data collection. Recording spoken data is usually required in researching talk in context (Copland and Creese, 2015). It has two significant functions. It provides raw data that can support research analysis as evidence and example (Blommaert and Jie, 2010; Clemente, 2008). It also provides an archive of the research (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). The immediate context of the bilingual phenomenon is seized by recordings (Clemente, 2008). Repeated and deferred observation can be conducted through

recording (Clemente, 2008). However, a mere slice of ongoing social life is captured by audio- and video-recordings (Emerson, et al., 2011).

Audio-recording observations contribute to preserving the linguistic character of interactions (Duff, 2008). It is cheaper and simpler than video recording (Clemente, 2008). Digital audio-recording is becoming popular because it is easy to upload the data to computers for replay, transcription, analysis and presentation (Duff, 2008). Digital recording retains the quality of the original file during copying or uploading it (Clemente, 2008). Silverman (2014) emphasises that audio-recorded files are a public record, they can be replayed to improve the transcripts and they preserve sequences of talk.

Recordings are always sensitive tools that might be perceived as threatening by people (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). For this reason, participants will insist that researcher attain official permission before making recordings and they may request a copy of the recordings or ask to destroy the recordings after completing the research (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). A recording device should not be used when an interviewee refuses permission or appears uncomfortable in its presence or there is no specific plan for transcribing the interview (Yin, 2014). The participants have the rights to be guaranteed anonymity, to have access to their recordings and the right to withdraw at any time with destroying their data (Lanza, 2008). Thus, participants have to understand and agree to two major things (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). Firstly, the recordings are essential and they will be used exclusively for academic purposes. In addition, a process of modifications of these data, including changing of names and consulting other people in cases of doubt, will be performed in the scientific use of these recordings.

Careful preparation is required before recording code-switching between L1 and L2 data because people might not switch codes in front of a microphone, or in front of a stranger

(Nortier, 2008). For instance, participants may modify their usual behaviour because of the presence of the microphone (Copland and Creese, 2015). Hence, building a relationship with the participants before starting to record is helpful (Copland and Creese, 2015). Nonetheless, teachers might feel quite uncomfortable with hanging microphones around their necks and they will have a tendency of talking to the mike instead of the classroom (Blommaert and Jie, 2010).

Researchers have to make sure of several things before starting to record (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). These things include making arrangements and appointments, recording things that will be maximally salient and informative, their recording devices work and putting the recording devices in spots that enable them to capture adequate quality data without disturbing the scene. Excessive noise in the background is an obstacle to transcription (Duff, 2008). Consequently, researchers should run recording tests in similar conditions of the main research before starting their research that simulates the research activity as closely as possible (Clemente, 2008). Researchers should check sound quality, start recording a few minutes before the target activity begins and continue recording a few additional minutes after finishing the activity (Clemente, 2008). Researchers, on the day of the recording, should: have a checklist of tasks and equipment; plan their travel to arrive early to have sufficient time for equipment set-up in an appropriate place; and minimise surrounding noise (Clemente, 2008).

The quality of the recording has to be checked immediately after the session in addition to creating a catalogue of the recordings (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). Researchers can use their personal computers to back up their recordings and as their primary digital laboratories for recorded data manipulation (Clemente, 2008). Databases of recordings can be created for detailed comparative analysis of bilingual phenomena (Clemente, 2008). For instance, other

researchers can use the recordings to review the actual data and reach independent conclusions (Clemente, 2008).

Some researchers choose to record a large amount of data that may affect data analysis because it requires a huge amount of time listening, transcribing and analysing (Copland and Creese, 2015). However, the researcher's ongoing analysis in qualitative work will guide transcribing decisions (Clemente, 2008). For example, recording machines gather large amounts of data randomly, consequently, analytic goals should be used to make a decision whether to transcribe verbal or non-verbal communication (Clemente, 2008).

Sixteen of the observed sessions, five interviews and four reflections were recorded using a digital audio-recorder. This audio-recorder was ideal for classroom observation and one-to-one meetings because of its high quality and its high sound sensitivity. It was stated in the information sheet that the study included audio-recording (see Appendix VI and Appendix VII). In addition, I explained this to the participants during our initial meetings before asking them to sign the consent form (see Appendix X). I also stated this in the information sheet that I handed to the learners in all the observed classrooms (see Appendix VIII and Appendix IX). I explained to the learners in all the observed classrooms that I was planning to audio-record some of their sessions before asking them to sign the consent form (see Appendix XI). I asked the EFL teachers and their learners to ignore the audio-recorder and to act naturally as their usual behaviour. I did not record the mock observations with all the EFL teachers to get them and their learners used to my presence and to gain their trust.

At the beginning of every recorded session, I asked the teachers to keep the recording device inside their shirt pockets. In this way, the audio-recorder was out of both the teachers and their learners' sight. Before handing the audio-recorder to the teachers, I switched it on myself to

make sure that it was on. Then, at the end of the sessions, the teachers handed the recorder to me and I switched it off. The interviews and the reflections were also audio-recorded. During these meetings, I kept the audio-recorder aside and conducted the meetings as naturally as possible with ignoring its presence.

At the end of every recording day, I reviewed the recording files to check their qualities and I saved copies of them in separate files in my laptop and in my cloud database account after giving them appropriate tags. Some of the participants requested copies of their recordings and I submitted copies of their personal recordings to them.

3.9 Research reliability and validity

This section will survey research reliability and validity of this study to clarify them. Research reliability and validity have raised a great deal of concern among advocates of qualitative research. Therefore, many of them avoid the concepts of reliability and validity (Robson, 2011). Cohen, et al. (2007, p. 133) state that "reliability is a necessary but insufficient condition for validity in research; reliability is a necessary precondition of validity, and validity may be a sufficient but not necessary condition for reliability." This means that a research can be reliable without being valid, but it cannot be valid if it is not reliable. Demonstrating reliability and validity of case studies may be complex as a result of the uniqueness of case studies that they might be inconsistent with other case studies (Cohen, et al., 2007). Thus, efficient case studies benefit from having multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2012). Triangulation can assist in challenging all of the threats to validity (Robson, 2011). This study adopted a triangulation approach in its data collection instruments. These instruments included classroom observation, interviews and reflections in addition to fieldnotes and audio-recordings.

The validity of a qualitative research refers to the research being accurate or true which is a difficult thing to be sure about (Robson, 2011). For this reason, Gronlund (1981, cited in Cohen, et al., 2007, p. 133) contends that validity in qualitative research "should be seen as a matter of degree rather than as an absolute state". The main risk of providing a valid interpretation of the data is enforcing a structure or meaning on the data instead of implementing what the researchers have learned during their involvement with the setting (Robson, 2011). This could be achieved through keeping a full record of activities during conducting the study including raw data, research journal and details of data analysis to help in ruling out threats to validity (Robson, 2011). However, the main threat to qualitative research's validity is neglecting alternative explanations or understandings of the studied phenomena (Robson, 2011; Silverman, 2014).

Qualitative researchers sometimes face reliability difficulty in how to categorise the described events or activities (Silverman, 2014). Hammersley (1992, cited in Silverman, 2014, p. 83) declares that reliability "refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions". Qualitative researchers have to seriously consider the reliability of their methods and research practices including being thorough, careful and honest in conducting the research and being able to show others that they have been (Robson, 2011). Detailed descriptions of the data instruments that were used in this study are included in sections (3.6), (3.7) and (3.8). Biases are difficult to be eliminated in interviews and the lack of standardisation certainly raises concerns about reliability (Robson, 2011). Nonetheless, being selective in interview participants or observed situations through excluding people and settings that threaten or disturb the researcher will probably bias the research findings (Robson, 2011).

Silverman (2014) contends that both reliability and validity are crucial and reliability could be addressed through standardising methods of fieldnotes and transcription. Reliability requirements should not be neglected during transcription to verify the internal and external validity of the research results (Turell and Moyer, 2008). Cohen, et al. (2007) illustrate that internal validity means that the data that is provided by a piece of research can sustain the explanation of a particular event, issue or set of data. On the other hand, they describe external validity as the degree of generalising the results to the broader population, cases or situations. The reliability of interpreting transcription of recorded data may be threatened by the failure to notice what seems minor, but often critical (Silverman, 2014). Hence, reliability in qualitative research is associated with using observation since the human observer is the standardised instrument (Robson, 2011).

3.10 Ethical considerations

This section will remark on the ethical considerations that were observed in this study. Ethical concerns could originate from the types of investigated problems by social scientists and their approaches to achieve valid and reliable data (Cohen, et al., 2007). Ethical considerations exist throughout the entire process of research; "relative openness, sensitivity, honesty, accuracy and scientific impartiality" have to be taken into consideration in all stages of research (Cohen, et al., 2007). Ethical considerations have to be resolved locally based on contextual realities and mutual understandings (Copland and Creese, 2015). Nonetheless, deciding the right and wrong could be difficult and it relies on judgement (Copland and Creese, 2015). In my judgments of the ethical considerations, I always kept in my mind both the welfare of the participants and the integrity of the research.

A major ethical challenge is raised by demanding researchers to achieve a balance between requiring them to pursue the truth as professional scientists and their participants' rights and the threat that the research may raise to values (Cohen, et al., 2007). Nevertheless, according to Silverman (2014, p. 148), the following should be targeted to achieve ethical research: "ensuring that people participate voluntarily, making people's comments and behaviour confidential, protecting people from harm and ensuring mutual trust between researcher and people studied." Silverman (2014) clarifies that the right to be informed means that the possible research participants should be given a non-technical detailed account of the nature and goals of the study. The significance of informed consent raises from respecting and protecting the participant's right to freedom and self-determination (Cohen, et al., 2007). Consequently, Silverman (2014) highlights that informed consent should point out that the research participants are not pressured to agree to participate in the study.

Cohen, et al. (2007) clarify the researcher's responsibilities to the research community in not jeopardising the reputation of the research community or spoiling the opportunities for further research. For instance, ethical approval has to be acquired from the institution that sanctions the research before beginning research on humans (Copland and Creese, 2015). Therefore, before commencing the data collection of this study, an ethical approval was granted by the research ethics committee of the University of Birmingham. Moreover, I maintained a good relationship with Barzan University's members to protect the opportunities for future research.

At the beginning of the data collection stage, I met the Dean of the PYP to explain to him the objectives of my research. He gave me his permission to conduct my research in his PYP and gave me a letter to encourage EFL teachers to participate in my study (see Appendix XII). Then, before starting my data collection I arranged separate meetings with every participant alone.

During these meetings, I gave the participants an information sheet that clearly explained the focus and objectives of the study that was written in both English and Arabic (see Appendix VI and Appendix VII). The information sheet included my contact details and my lead supervisor's contact details to contact any of us during and after finishing the data collection if they desired to. It was explained to the participants that they were not under any obligations to take part in this study and I gave them the opportunity to raise any questions or concerns. Some of the participants raised questions about the research, but none of them refused to participate in the study. Then, all the participants were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix X) that emphasised the confidentiality of their personal information, their agreement to participate in this study and the right of every participant to withdraw from the study before the set deadline.

Learners in the observed classrooms were informed about the objectives of this study at the first observed session of every EFL teacher and before beginning the audio-recording. Information sheet about the focus and objectives of the study in both English and Arabic were handed to the learners (see Appendix VIII and Appendix IX). The information sheet had my contact details and my lead supervisor's contact details to contact any of us during and after finishing the data collection if they desired to. Moreover, I introduced myself to the class and encouraged them to raise any questions or concerns about this study. Then, I asked the learners to sign a consent form (see Appendix XI) and gave them the opportunity to refuse to participate in the study. This measure was taken to make sure that the learners are well aware of the purpose of my presence in their classes. It was taken to prevent any alarm, confusion or general discomfort that may arise because of my presence. During conducting classroom observations, I actively avoided interrupting or distracting teachers during teaching sessions. All my questions and discussions were delayed to the end of the class or during the reflections meetings.

3.11 Transcription

My transcription of the audio-recorded data will be explored in this section. Transcription is a subjective process of representing oral language with orthographic conventions (Turell and Moyer, 2008). Transcription does not have a single, unique and correct method and a variety of options exist (Cohen, et al., 2007; Turell and Moyer, 2008). Transcription is neither neutral nor complete and there are always parts that will not be shown in it (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). However, it has to fit for purpose (Copland and Creese, 2015). The conventions that are used in the transcription and its level of detail relies on the researcher's focus and the theoretical perspectives implicit in the transcriptions (Duff, 2008). Turell and Moyer (2008) contend that transcription of bilingual data requires distinguishing the languages in the interaction, the type of bilingual phenomena, the structural context and the functional or contextual meaning.

Transcription consumes a large amount of time and it is intensive (Creswell, 2008; Duff, 2008; Turell and Moyer, 2008). Emerson, et al. (2011) underscore that transcription of recordings is not a straightforward and simple tool. Transcription reduces the amount of the recorded slice of discourse (Cohen, et al., 2007; Emerson, et al., 2011). That is because transcription represents translation from one set of oral and interpersonal rule systems to a written language rule system (Cohen, et al., 2007).

It is essential to use a written text in analysing bilingual data (Turell and Moyer, 2008). Hence, I used a word processor software in my verbatim transcription of the recorded data. The words of the participants in all the classroom observations, the interviews and the reflections were transcribed as accurately as possible. The transcribed data should be organised in a legible and coherent form to be easily accessible for consultation and analysis (Turell and Moyer, 2008). The verbatim transcription of the recorded data requested hard work and it consumed a large

amount of time. However, it assisted me in revisiting the transcription during data analysis. The

transcription incorporated the following symbols:

(XXXX)   - to represent unintelligible words

…   - to show a break in the flow of speech

< >   - translation of Arabic words

[ ]   - Description of actions or observations that were mainly taken from the

fieldnotes. For instance, if a participant laughs, I would type the word laugh

between square brackets.

Representations of pauses, pause length, speech overlaps and other similar intricate details were

not considered significant in relation to the scope of this study because it focuses on what

actually has been said instead of the sequences of the discourse. The Arabic words in the

transcription were typed using the Arabic alphabet and then translated into English between

angle brackets.

Transcription is the first step in the data analysis process (Turell and Moyer, 2008).

Consequently, to ensure the accuracy of the verbatim transcription of the recorded data, an

initial draft of the transcription was produced. Then, the initial draft was reviewed using the

audio-recorder to check the accuracy of the words and to revisit the words and phrases that I

did not manage to decipher in the initial draft. In many instances, I managed to decipher some

of the missing segments (see Appendix I, Appendix II and Appendix III). Below are two

extracts that represent examples of my verbatim transcriptions of the recorded data. Extract 1

is from a classroom recording and Extract 2 is from an interview with one of the EFL teachers.

Extract 1
1   Ahmed: صح. تمثلها تقدر لكم قرأتها الآن عنها تكلمت الي الأفعال كل <All the verbs that I talked about I read for you, you can
2   act them. Right>?

3   AS1: Yes.
4   AS2: صح <Right>

Extract 1 is from one of Ahmed's sessions. In lines 1 and 2, Ahmed's utterance is written in the Arabic alphabet and then it is translated into English between the angle brackets. Two different learners (AS1 and AS2) answered his question in lines 3 and 4. Learners utterances in all the extracts are coded as AS and they are given numbers 1 and 2 in this extract to show that there are two different learners speaking. On the other hand, if two or more students said the same utterance at a similar time, they are coded as Ss. AS1 answered Ahmed's question in English in line number 3 whereas AS2 replied to this question in Arabic. AS2's answer is written in the Arabic alphabet and then it is translated into English between the angle brackets.

Extract 2
1   **R:** OK! Do you agree with this policy?
2   **Steve:** … Not really. No [short laugh]
3   **R:** Why?
4   **Steve:** Because it is useful to use Arabic… It is… as I said last week, as long as it gets across the message I cannot
5   see any reason why not…

Extract 2 represents an example of an interview transcription with one of the EFL teachers (Steve). I coded my name with the letter R in lines 1 and 3 and the participant as Steve in lines 2 and 4. The three adjacent dots in lines 2, 4 and 5 represent a break in Steve's flow of speech. The square brackets at the end of line 2 contain a description of a short laugh by Steve.

3.12 Data analysis

This section will illustrate how the data of this study were analysed to answer the research questions. This study's data were collected between January and April 2015. Research data are a complex of broadly divergent scientific objects that together offer a subjective representation of facts and events in the field and their analysis is interpretive that draws on an interdisciplinary collection of methods (Blommaert and Jie, 2010). The selected information in case studies does

not always have to be frequent (Cohen, et al., 2007). Case study researchers may intentionally sample for extreme, atypical or unusual cases to illustrate a phenomenon instead of seeking or selecting cases that are highly representative of their larger sample or population (Duff, 2012). However, readers have the right to know how and why certain examples were included and how representative or typical they are of the larger data set (Duff, 2012).

The data of this study include transcripts of participants' interviews, reflections and classroom observations besides classroom fieldnotes. Data analysis of this study consisted of two stages. The first stage focused on participants' interviews to answer the first and second questions of this study. The second stage engaged with analysing classroom observations and connecting them with the EFL teachers' reflections to answer the third question of this study. Both stages are discussed in the next sections.

Analysing qualitative data does not have a single accepted approach (Creswell, 2008). Qualitative data analysis is inductive in form through going from the particular or the detailed data to the general codes and themes (Creswell, 2008). Emerson, et al. (2011) demonstrate two types of coding: open coding and focused coding. The researcher, in open coding, reads his/her data line-by-line to categorise ideas, themes or suggested issues without any concern on how varied and disparate they are (Emerson, et al., 2011). On the other hand, the researcher, in focused coding, conduct line-by-line analysis according to topics that have been previously identified as being of particular interest (Emerson, et al., 2011). Emerson, et al. (2011) recommend beginning the data analysis with close reading and open coding before conducting focused coding. I adopted in this study Emerson, et al.'s (2011) recommendation, in both stages of data analysis, by beginning with open coding as the first step of the data analysis and using focused coding as the second step.

Creswell (2008) urges qualitative researchers who are interested in technology to use a qualitative computer programme to facilitate the process of sorting, analysing and sorting the data. I used the software NVivo 10 during the data analysis in both stages of this study. NVivo 10 assisted me in functioning as a highlighter through grouping similar data together to facilitate my data analysis. However, data in this software have to be saved regularly because this software has a high possibility of crashing during working on it. Figures 1, 2 and 3 below are screenshots of my data analysis. These figures show my source files during the data analysis stage. Figure 1 demonstrates the transcript file of my interview with the ELC's director and my summary of his interview. Figure 2 illustrates the source files that I used during analysing my interviews with the EFL teachers and my summary of these interviews. Figure 3 is an example of the source files that I used during analysing the transcripts of my classroom observations.
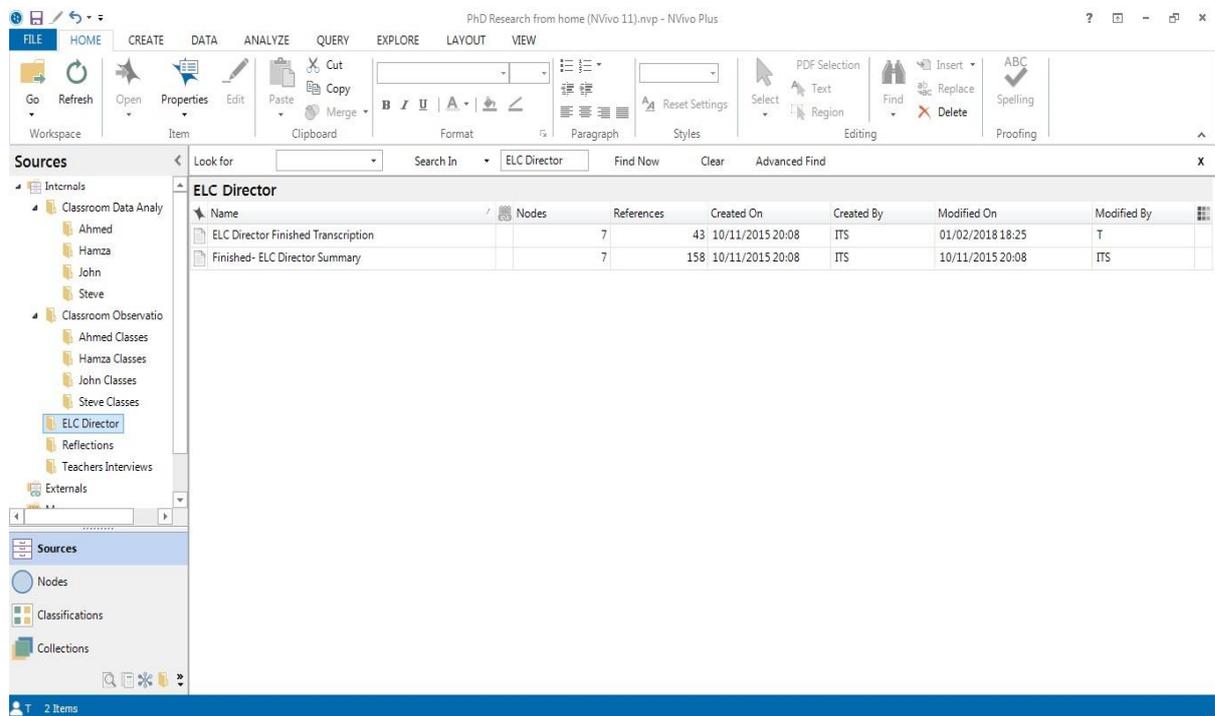
Figure 1: Source file of the ELC's Director interview
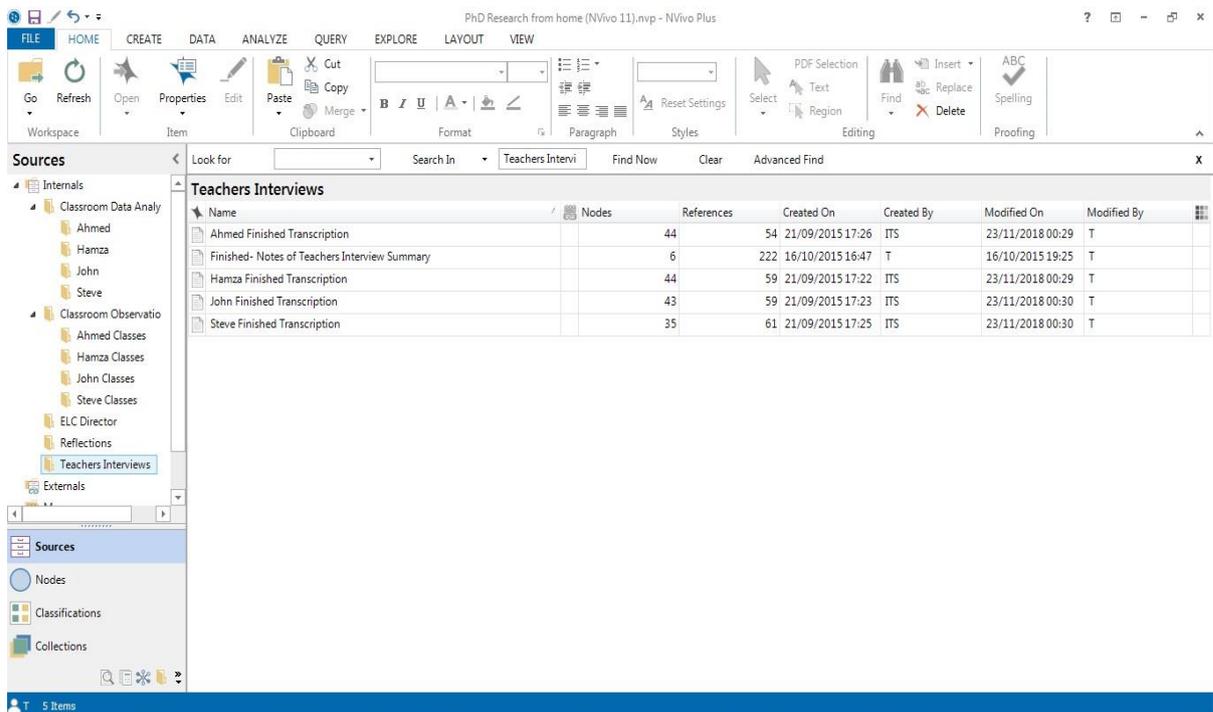
Figure 2: Source files of the EFL teachers' interviews
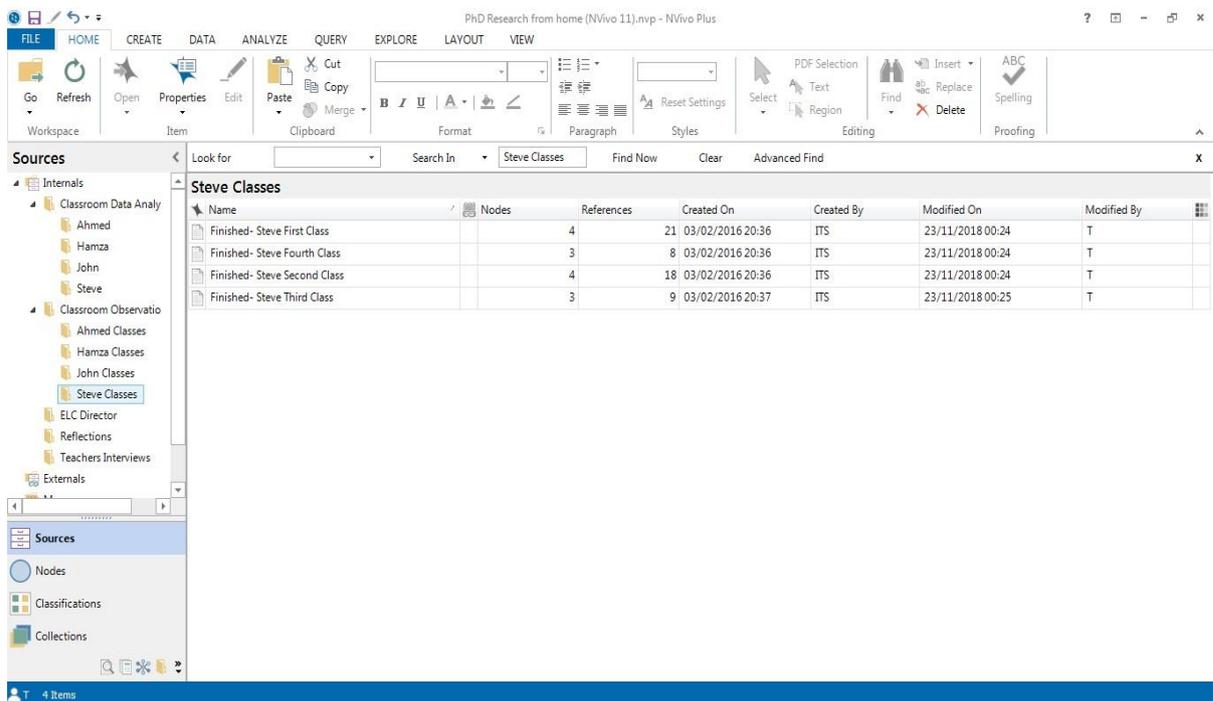
Figure 3: Source files of the EFL teachers' classroom observations

Data Analysis of the Interviews

After the verbatim transcription of the Director of the ELC and the four EFL teachers' interviews, I began with deep reading of all the interview transcripts. The purpose of this deep

reading was to summarise my general comments and observations on the interviews. This deep reading involved reading the interview transcripts line by line and reading the participants' answers several times to gain a clear understanding. Then, every interview's general comments and observations were revisited with a focus on open coding to generate themes within every interview. This approach assisted me in gaining wider and clearer view of the data to reflect the diversities within the participant's actual comments and to minimise the interference of my interests.

After generating themes for all the interviews, I used focused coding to compare and contrast the themes in all the five interviews to identify the common themes among all the interviews without classifying them as major or minor themes. During this step, general themes and sub-themes were created and I focused mainly on the themes that were related to the questions of this study. Then, the general themes and sub-themes in addition to my general comments and observations were connected to the participants' statements. I used a word processor software in typing the general comments and observations and NVivo 10 was used during creating the themes. Figures 4, 5 and 6 below are screenshots of my data analysis of the interviews. Figure 4 highlights the initial themes that emerged from my data analysis of the interview with the Director of the ELC. Figure 5 indicates the initial themes that developed from my data analysis of the summary from EFL teachers' interviews. Figure 6 represents the initial themes that emerged from my data analysis of the EFL teachers' interviews.
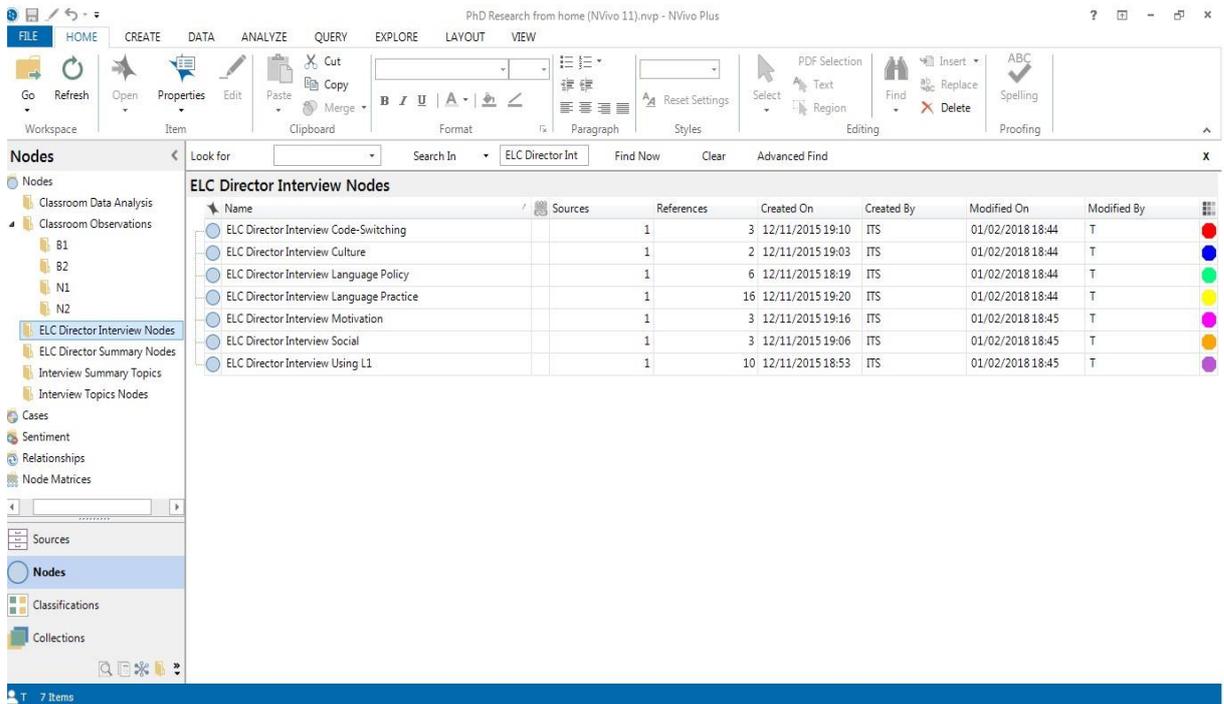
Figure 4: Nodes from the ELC's Director interview
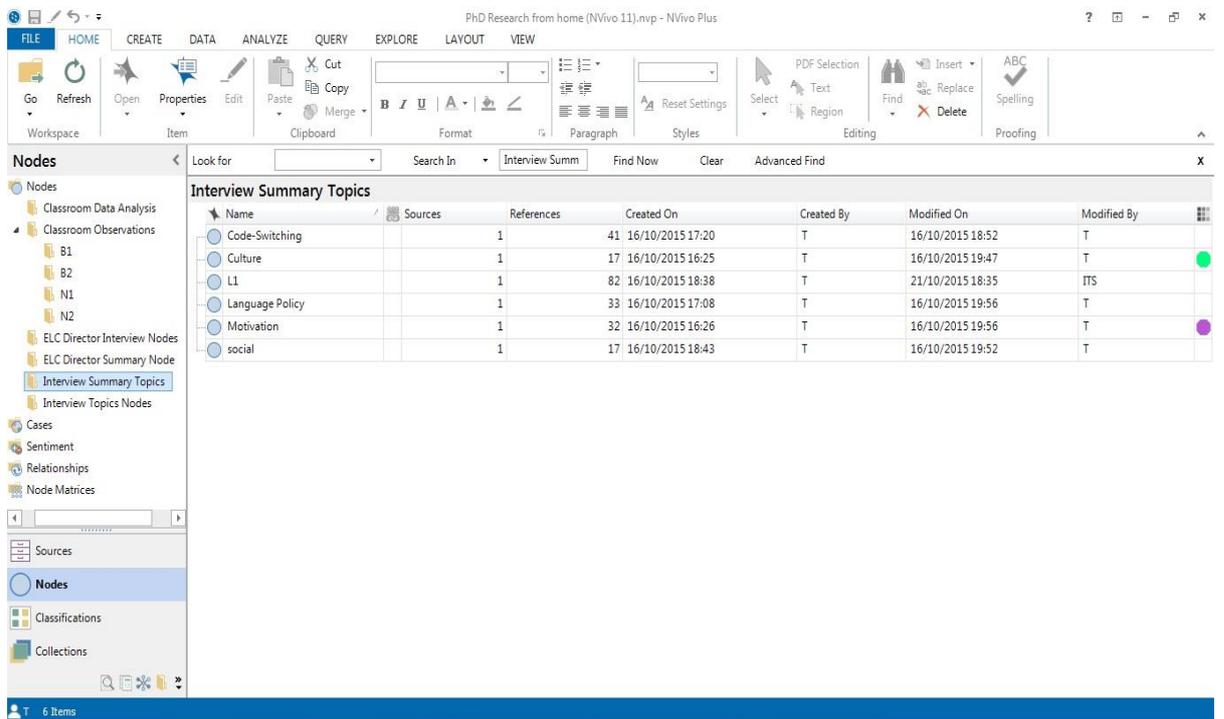
Figure 5: Nodes from the EFL teachers' interviews summary
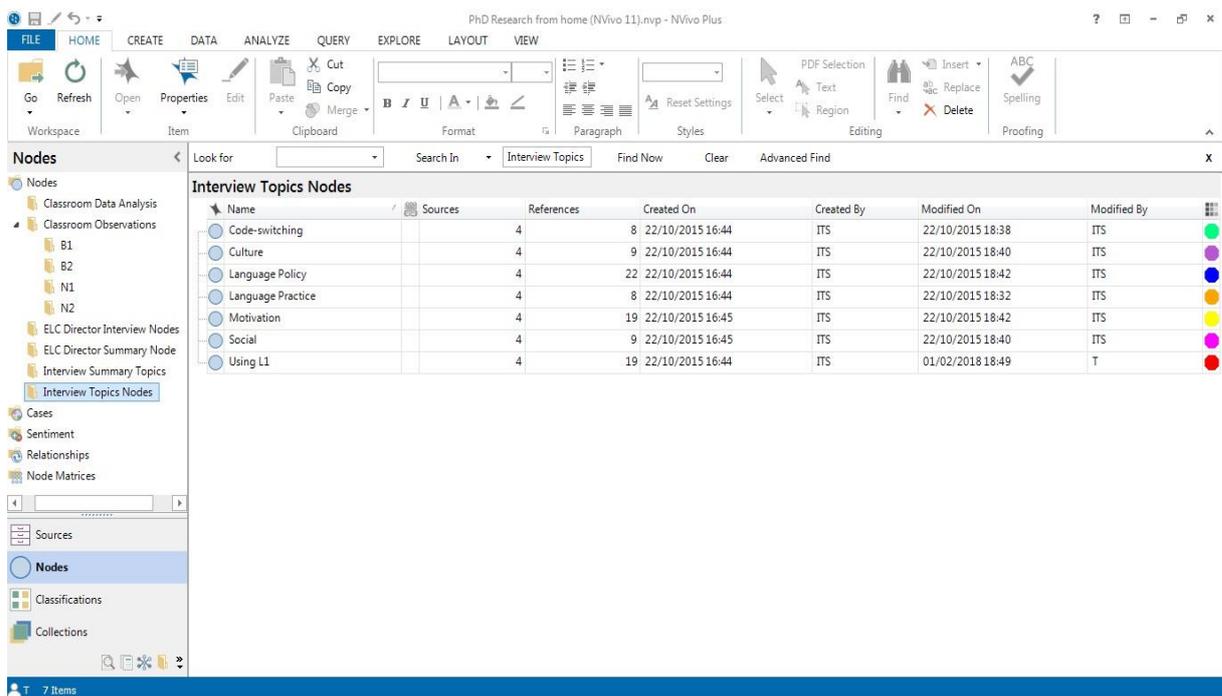
Figure 6: Nodes from the EFL teachers' interviews

Data Analysis of the observations and reflections

The second stage of data analysis involved analysis of the classroom observations in a similar way to the data analysis of the interviews. After the verbatim transcription of all the sixteen audio-recorded sessions, I started analysing and creating themes in a similar approach to the one that I conducted in the data analysis of the interviews. Seven major functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 emerged from my data analysis of the classroom observations: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching.

This stage involved deep reading of the classroom transcripts and creating general comments and observations. The deep reading focused on the utterances of the teachers to the entire class, interactions between the teachers and either a learner or a group of learners and teachers' reactions to learners use of their L1 among themselves. Furthermore, I generated themes for

every classroom using open coding in a similar manner to my approach in the first stage. This step classified how L1 was used by teachers and/or their learners.

The step of generating the themes was followed by comparing and contrasting the themes in all the sixteen sessions. This step identified the common themes within all the transcripts of the classrooms without classifying them into major or minor themes. This approach was adopted to understand clearly and observe from a wider angle the classroom transcripts without the interference of my perceptions. The next step was focused coding to develop general themes and sub-themes with a focus on the themes that were related to the objectives of this study. The general themes and sub-themes were connected to the classroom transcripts and teachers' reflections were, then, added to them. Figure 7 below shows an example of the major themes that developed from my data analysis of the EFL teachers' classes.

Figure 7: Nodes from the classroom observations of the EFL teachers' classes

3.13 Piloting

This section will highlight the pilot study that I conducted before collecting data for this study. Whenever possible, a pilot study should be the first stage of any data collection (Robson, 2011). A pilot case study would assist the researcher in refining his/her data collection plans in regard to both the content of the data and the followed procedures (Yin, 2014).

This study was piloted in December 2013 to test its feasibility and to narrow down its focus. There were two options in light of literature survey on where and how to conduct this study. The first option was conducting it in EFL classrooms. The second option was conducting it in science classrooms, such as mathematics, that use English as a medium of instruction. Thus, I conducted a pilot study in Saudi Arabia to test my options. First, I had a meeting with the Dean of the PYP in Barzan University in Saudi Arabia who granted me his permission to attend and audio-record four sessions in the departments of ELC and mathematics and directed me to the heads of these departments.

The Director of the ELC contacted two EFL teachers and gained their approval to attend and audio-record a session with each of them. These teachers were from two different cultural backgrounds. The first teacher speaks English as his L1 and he is from South Africa. The second teacher speaks Arabic as his L1 and English as his L2 and he is from Jordan.

The first teacher, at the beginning of his session, seemed uncomfortable about my presence and my audio-recording of the class. He spoke to me several times about what he was going to do and how he was going to conduct the class. Therefore, I asked him to attempt to ignore my presence and to conduct his class as usual. I noticed that learners were speaking with each other in Arabic. Moreover, I observed a communication gap between the teacher and some of his

learners when he was addressing them and some of them did not understand what he was saying. Hence, these learners tended to turn to their colleagues to seek help. A colleague would translate what the teacher was saying into L1. Learners answered some of their teacher's questions in Arabic. In some occasions, the teacher used Arabic to socialise with his learners. It seemed that the teacher was attempting to encourage his learners to use English within the classroom in order to practice it and to learn it whereas he used L1 to lower the communication gap with his learners and to be friendly.

Learners of the second class were level one repeaters. I met the second EFL teacher before he started his class to explain briefly the purpose of the study. We were talking in our common language 'Arabic'. However, when I asked him to wear the audio-recording machine and I started audio-recording the session, he used English and did not use Arabic. The teacher asked some of the learners to change their seating places. It seemed that these learners were sitting next to their friends and the teacher wanted them to move away to eliminate the chances of learners to chat in L1 during class time. Then he started the lesson by explaining simple present tense in L2 only. However, learners seemed lost and the teacher noticed that by asking them if they were paying attention. Then, the class moved on to do a grammatical task about the present tense. There were some instances where a learner spoke to the teacher in L1 and the teacher answered in L2. During this session, the teacher never used learner's L1. The learners were struggling to understand him on some occasions. On the other hand, the teacher tolerated learners' use of their L1 and even asked them on some occasions to translate some parts of the lesson to help each other. After stopping the audio-recording of the session, the teacher admitted to me that he would usually use L1, but he did not use it during that session because of my presence. This led me to decide not to audio-record the first two sessions that I attended with the EFL teachers who participated in this study to make sure that they were used to my presence.

The head of the mathematics department contacted two teachers and gained their approval for me to attend and audio-record a session with each of them. They were both from South Asia who speak English as their L2 and did not have a common language with their learners. In both sessions, the majority of the session time was teacher-initiated talk. Learners spoke only to answer a teacher's question or to remind him about revision for an upcoming exam. Learners spoke among themselves in Arabic. Teachers used learner's L1 on several occasions. They used it to translate a mathematical terminology or to state a class rule such as banning a learner from using his mobile phone. Nonetheless, there were few instances of interaction between teachers and their learners.

The EFL sessions had more interaction instances between teachers and their learners and among learners than the mathematics sessions. Moreover, the EFL sessions had richer data that were related to this study's objectives than the mathematics sessions. The ELC had a mixture of members who speak English as their L1 and others who speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2 whereas all the teachers in the mathematics department did not speak English as their L1. For these reasons, this research narrowed its focus to the EFL classes.

3.14 Chapter summary

Participants	Track	Classroom Observations	Interview/ Reflections
Zain (the Director of the ELC)	N/A	N/A	Interview only
Steve (speaks English as his L1)	Medical	4 audio-recorded + fieldnotes	Interview and reflections
John (speaks English as his L1)	Medical	4 audio-recorded + fieldnotes	Interview and reflections

Hamza (speaks Arabic as his L1 and English as his L2)	Medical	4 audio-recorded + fieldnotes	Interview and reflections
Ahmed (speaks Arabic as his L1 and English as his L2)	Engineering and Science	4 audio-recorded + fieldnotes	Interview and reflections

Table 5: Summary of participants and data collection instruments

This chapter provided a detailed review of the methodology of this study. It began with introducing the research questions. This was followed by demonstrating the methodological framework of this study through discussing qualitative approaches and illustrating the interpretive case study inquiry as its methodological approach. The background information of the participants was highlighted before discussing the data collection instruments. Table 5 above shows a summary of the research participants and the data collection instruments. A detailed review of observation, interview, fieldnotes and audio-recording was conducted with reference to how I used them during data collection. Then, the issues of validity, reliability and ethical considerations were pointed out. The process of data analysis of this study was described after discussing the transcription of the audio-recorded data. This chapter concluded with discussing a pilot study that was conducted before the data collection for this study to focus its scope. The next two chapters, chapters four and five, will introduce and analyse the data of this study.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis- I

4.1 Chapter overview

This chapter will analyse my interviews with the research participants. Lo Bianco (2010) indicates that language teachers have a crucial role in the language education policy (LEP) because formal policy documents and textbooks cannot anticipate alone the local contexts and personal needs of learners. However, Wiley and García (2016) point out that LEPs are not always conceived, received, resourced or implemented correctly. The first objective of this study is to identify the LEP of the preparatory year programme (PYP) towards the use of learners' L1 and EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. The second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. The main goal of data analysis in this chapter is achieving these two objectives. Therefore, this chapter will discuss: the LEP of the researched PYP towards L1; teachers of L2 attitudes towards this policy; and the perspectives of the participants towards using L1 in their language practices.

As explained in chapter three, five members of the English language centre (ELC) in the PYP of Barzan University were interviewed during the data collection for this study. The first participant (Zain) was the Director of the ELC who speaks Arabic as his L1 and English as his L2. The other four participants were EFL teachers. Two of these EFL teachers (Steve and John) speak English as their L1 whereas the other two (Hamza and Ahmed) speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants that focused on two main issues. These issues were: the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University; and

the perspectives of the research participants towards using L1 in their language practices. These two issues will be discussed in sections (4.2) and (4.3) of this chapter with reference to the participants' interviews.

4.2 Language education policy

This section will explore the LEP of the PYP towards L1. It will assist in answering the first objective of this study through investigating: the LEP of the PYP towards using L1 in the EFL classroom; the participants' attitudes towards this policy; and the administration of this LEP.

4.2.1 Language education policy towards L1

This section will review the LEP of the PYP towards using L1 in the EFL classroom and the participants' attitudes towards this policy.

Extract

1 **R:** The first question is: What is the language policy of the preparatory year towards using Arabic inside the
2 classrooms?
3 **Zain:** Well, actually Arabic is obviously and theoretically not to be used in an English classroom. That is the
4 policy. How far this policy is being respected by the teachers? This I cannot tell because most of the time you
5 cannot control that. Now you visit one of those classes and you find out that the teacher is using no Arabic at all,
6 but you never know when you are not there what happens. I mean, so the policy is that no Arabic is allowed inside
7 the classroom, but what is actually going on. This I cannot really tell, but I expect that some of our bilingual
8 teachers are using the Arabic language inside the classroom.
9 **R:** OK! Interesting! Do you agree with this policy? That is no Arabic…
10 **Zain:** Yes, I do. Yes, I do agree. And why? Because I think we will have to seize the opportunity to make the
11 students be exposed as much time as possible to the language. Which means that it is a way to enhance learning
12 and to enhance language learning when you never use the mother tongue and you try to… Well, I am sorry for the
13 word, force the students to hear and use and speak the language. I mean the target language, the English language.

Zain reported in lines 3 and 4 that the LEP of the PYP bans L1 in the EFL classroom. However, Zain in the next extract will reveal that the PYP does not have a written policy towards the use of L1 in the EFL classroom. Zain emphasised in lines 10 to 13 that he supports banning L1 in the EFL classroom to provide students with the maximal opportunity of exposure to L2. Hall and Cook (2012) contend that L2 learners have to experience exposure to a substantial amount

of L2 in addition to practising it. Nonetheless, Zain, in lines 4 to 8, was not certain that the ban on L1 was actually implemented by the EFL teachers even though they were not using it in front of him. Spolsky (2004) emphasises that the policy's effect on language practices cannot be assured or be consistent even when it is formal and written. Zain mainly suspected that the teachers of EFL who share an L1 with their students were using it inside the classroom. Simon (2001) asserts that this type of teachers would use code-switching between L1 and L2 regardless of the LEP's ban on L1.

Extract

1 **R:** Interesting!... Do you have a written policy that states that English is… or Arabic is banned?
2 **Zain:** No, actually and frankly you can find something written about the dress code, about ethics, work ethics,
3 about attendance, about I mean being late, being on time, things like these, but the use of Arabic language inside
4 the classroom. There is no documentation of this.

Zain in this extract acknowledges that the PYP did not have a written policy to reveal its official position towards using L1 in teaching EFL even though it had written policies about several other issues such as the dress code and work ethics. According to Spolsky (2004, p. 8), "language policy exists even where it has not been made explicit or established by authority". Bassiouney (2009) highlights that a policy can be implemented without being written or understood by all community members.

Extract

1 **R:** So, my first question is what is the language policy towards using Arabic in the preparatory year?
2 **Steve:** … mmm.
3 **R:** As far as you know.
4 **Steve:** As far as I know, it is to use as little as possible. I do not know if they ban it completely, but as far as I
5 know is to use as little as possible.
6 **R:** OK! Do you agree with this policy?
7 **Steve:** … Not really. No [short laugh]
8 **R:** Why?
9 **Steve:** Because it is useful to use Arabic. It is as I said last week, as long as it gets across the message I cannot see
10 any reason why not…
11 **R:** OK! …
12 **Steve:** It is impossible for them to understand… It is very good for them to discuss something in a group in Arabic.
13 It gets their enthusiasm up. And they will remember it.

Steve revealed in lines 4 and 5 that he was not certain what the LEP of the PYP towards L1 was, but he predicted that the LEP permitted minimal use of L1. This extract shows that although Steve did not speak L1, he supported using L1 in the EFL classroom. In lines 12 and 13, Steve reported that permitting the use of L1 is advantageous for the learning process because it may assist students during group work, raise students' motivation to learn and improve students' memory of remembering what they learn in the classroom.

Extract

1 **R:** So, the first question is what is the language policy towards using Arabic here… the preparatory year?
2 **John:** I have never seen it written and I have heard it expressed in the corridors from when I got here that it is not
3 encouraged to speak Arabic at all in the classroom and it has been said in training sessions and not challenged that
4 Arabic should either not be used or should be used as a last resort. So, I do not know if that is an informal policy
5 or if it actually exists in a piece of paper somewhere in a proper document. I do not know, but nobody has ever
6 shown that document to the teachers and you would think that if it was that important we would have seen that
7 and all the other things that are very important there be written down as policies.
8 **R:** Interesting! So, nobody like the Dean or the Director of the English language centre informed you that it is…
9 **John:** No, not that I recall. And I think I would remember that because I would if I heard the Dean say under no
10 circumstances (XXXX) you use Arabic it is against our policy, I would not use it at all. I would not agree with
11 that, but I would do it. So,…
12 **R:** Interesting! Do you agree with this policy? You said that you heard that it is not encouraged and it should be
13 used as the last resort. So, do you agree?
14 **John:** I do not agree at all and I think that the people who have (XXXX) it in the main have not looked at it from
15 a linguistic or a second language acquisition perspective, so if they are saying that then it is for reasons that are
16 outside of any expertise on the subject itself and that does not mean that I would not go along with it. But, no I do
17 not agree with that at all. But, that is agreeing (XXXX) in my principle, agreeing (XXXX) on my practice if they
18 said you cannot do it, I would not do.
19 **R:** Interesting!
20 **John:** I am glad that they have not said explicitly because while they have not said it explicitly (XXXX), I will
21 continue the way I am.

This extract reveals that John was not certain about the official policy of the PYP towards using L1 in the EFL classroom. John revealed that he did not encounter a written policy of the PYP regarding the use of L1 in the EFL classroom. John added that he was not verbally informed by an official member of the PYP administration about the LEP of the PYP towards using L1 in the EFL classroom. Although John disagreed with banning L1 in the EFL classroom, he contended that he would not use it if the administration of the PYP asked him not to use it. Tan and Lan (2011) declare that implementing teaching practices that are consistent with teachers'

pedagogical stance may be limited by their obligation to respect the norms prevalent in their institutions.

Extract
1 **R:** OK! So, what is the stand of the administration, the Dean, the Director of the English language centre towards
2 using Arabic inside classrooms?
3 **Hamza:** In our college?
4 **R:** Yeah.
5 **Hamza:** Well, I feel most of them do not like us to use Arabic in our classes. They want us to use English only
6 and they can tolerate using Arabic just for translating few words, but not using Arabic and not talking Arabic with
7 our student.
8 **R:** … Sorry!
9 **Hamza:** Yeah, yeah, that is all. This is what I feel.
10 **R:** Have you come across any policy, official policy, written policy that…
11 **Hamza:** No, I have not seen any official policy that we should use English only or you should use English and
12 Arabic, nothing. Nothing, but previously I remember [named a university's official] when he was in charge of the
13 prep year. He used to warn teachers not to use Arabic while teaching in classes and he was very rigid at that time
14 with those who used to talk or deal with the students in Arabic. But in our college still now nobody… Some
15 whispers two or three years back I heard. Some lecturers or some instructors whispering that the Dean or the Vice
16 Dean was telling that teacher who was talking in Arabic and the other teacher was using Arabic and they were not
17 happy with this and that is it.
18 **R:** OK! Do you agree with this policy?
19 **Hamza:** No, I do not. I do not because see… in English in our situation as bilingual teachers and here we have
20 Arabic talking students. Those students are very weak in English. It is not healthy to pressurise them by only
21 talking in English. OK? Especially this is not their major. They are in medical track and they are having one or
22 two subjects in English. So, you cannot force them to use English only. This is one thing. The second thing, in
23 what I know, it is recognized in all countries to use two languages so sometimes if you are in China you can if you
24 teach English you can use Chinese to help you teaching English. OK? But, you know, with proportion. The
25 proportion of using Chinese or Arabic or any other language should not exceed the proportion of using the target
26 language which is English. So, no, I think we can use Arabic in explaining and helping our students to understand
27 more and more about the language they are studying.
28 **R:** OK! Interesting!
29 **Hamza:** This is my idea.

This extract reveals that Hamza was not certain what the actual LEP of the PYP towards L1 was, but he expected that it permitted minimal use of L1. Hamza said that he did not see this policy written in a formal document. Hamza also contended that he did not receive verbal information about this policy from the administration of the PYP. In lines 19 to 27, Hamza announced his support of permitting the use of L1 to facilitate teaching L2. Hamza provided six reasons for supporting permitting L1 in the EFL classroom. First, many EFL teachers and students shared an L1. Raschka, et al. (2009) contend that L2-only policy is likely to be further reduced when both teachers and their learners have the same L1. Second, many PYP students had low proficiency in L2. Tien (2009) asserts that implementing L2-only policy is impossible

when learners' L2 proficiency is low. Third, students were taking the EFL module as a tool to prepare them for their undergraduate major that was not going to be the English language. Fourth, Hamza suggested that banning students from using L1 was not healthy. Fifth, the global recognition of bilingual education. Sixth, using L1 may assist students in improving their comprehension of L2. Liu, et al. (2004) declare that code-switching assists students in comprehending complex materials that would consume a great amount of time to be taught in L2 only. Nevertheless, lines 24 to 26 point out that Hamza agreed that the use of L2 in the EFL should be maximized. Edstrom (2006) indicates that the use of L2 should be maximized.

Extract

1	**R:** What is the language policy towards using Arabic? Does the preparatory year permit using Arabic?
2	**Ahmed:** Sometimes, you find yourself obliged to use Arabic.
3	**R:** No, this will be my second question.
4	**Ahmed:** OK!
5	**R:** Regarding the policy by the Dean or [named a university's official] the Director of the English language, do
6	they permit…
7	**Ahmed:** If it is necessary, I think yes.
8	**R:** OK! So, do you agree with this policy? You said if it is necessary…
9	**Ahmed:** Yes, I agree.

This extract shows that Ahmed was not certain about the official LEP of the PYP towards L1, but he predicted that the LEP permitted minimal use of L1. Ahmed supported permitting L1 in the EFL classroom.

All the four EFL teachers (Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) confirmed in their extracts that they were not certain what the official LEP of the PYP towards using L1 was. Shohamy (2006) points out that most LEP decisions are taken at the political level without involving or listening to the teachers. Two of the participants (John and Hamza) confirmed that they have never seen a written policy that stated the official position of the PYP towards using L1 and they have never been orally informed about this policy by the administration of the PYP. Schiffman (1996) indicates that language policies could either be overt in being explicit and formalized or

covert through being implicit and informal. Nevertheless, all the four EFL teachers believed that the policy urged a maximal use of L2. All the participants (Zain, Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) revealed their attitudes towards the LEP of banning L1 inside the EFL classroom. Zain asserted that he agreed with this policy. Three of the participants (Steve, John and Hamza) disagreed with banning L1 inside the EFL classroom and they supported permitting L1. Three of the participants (Steve, John and Hamza) provided their justifications for their disagreement with banning L1 inside the EFL classroom. The fifth participant (Ahmed) agreed with permitting a minimum use of L1 inside the class. Asker and Martin-Jones (2013) remarked that language teachers differ in their interpretations and implementations of their institutions' LEPs.

4.2.2 Administration of the language education policy

Administering the implementation of the LEP of the PYP towards L1 was discussed with the Director of the ELC (Zain).

Extract

1   **R:** OK! My next question is how do you make sure this policy is implemented?
2   **Zain:** Well, most of the time, as a director, where I hold meetings… I sometimes send out emails to the staff
3   members and, whenever there is an opportunity, I try to make it clear for the teachers that no Arabic is allowed
4   inside their classroom when the teacher when it is an English class. So, that is how…. Well, how to ensure it, you
5   will have to go around and visit classes this and that. You will not be able to do that every day. Especially with all
6   the tasks you have. Also, with the big large number of teachers you have, of sections you have, so I would not say
7   that you can control this at… 100%. I mean it is very difficult.

This extract points out Zain's description of his approach to implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1. In lines 2 to 4, Zain claimed that he used regular verbal and written reminders to the EFL teachers about the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Zain added in lines 4 and 5 that he tended to highlight this policy during his regular visits to the EFL classes. However, Zain indicated in lines 5 to 7 that he was aware that he could not guarantee full implementation of this policy. Spolsky (2004) remarks that policy's effect on language practices cannot be assured or be consistent even when it is formal and written. Bassiouney (2009) implies that language

practices are superior to language policy and it is not guaranteed that the language policy will be implemented if it clashes with language practices.

4.2.3 Section summary

The concept of LEP was investigated in this section with the participants from three different perspectives. These perspectives were: identifying the LEP of the PYP towards using L1 in the EFL classroom; participants' attitudes towards this policy; and the administration of this policy. Although Zain confirmed that L1 was banned inside the EFL classroom by the LEP, he was not sure if this policy was actually implemented by the EFL teachers. Conversely, all the four EFL teachers (Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) revealed that they were not certain what the official LEP of the PYP towards L1 was, but they all believed that minimum use of L1 was permitted. Zain announced that he agreed with banning L1 inside the EFL classroom whereas all the other participants disagreed with banning it. Zain emphasised that he tended to use verbal and written reminders to inform the EFL teachers about the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through highlighting it during meetings and sending regular emails to staff members. Zain reported that he tended to highlight this policy during his regular visits to the EFL classes. However, two of the participants (John and Hamza) confirmed that they have never seen a written policy about using L1 or even heard it from an administrative member of the PYP.

4.3 Participants' perspectives towards using L1

This section will discuss the participants' perspectives towards using L1 in their language practices. Kim and Elder (2008) and Liu, et al. (2004) highlight that language teachers' beliefs towards the use of code-switching between L1 and L2 in teaching L2 have critical impact on their use of code-switching. Therefore, Glasgow (2014) urges policy-makers to include teachers

and the contexts of their work in the objectives of their policies. The second objective of this study is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. This section will be employed to answer this objective. Participants' viewpoints towards using L1 in their language practices were discussed in their interviews and their opinions will be investigated from several perspectives in this section. These perspectives are: the Director of the ELC's (Zain) permission or ban of EFL teachers to use L1; Zain's reaction if he noticed an EFL teacher was using L1 in front of his students; Zain's permission for PYP students to use L1; the participants' use of L1 in their EFL classrooms; the language that EFL students would use with their teachers and their colleagues; the participants' permission for their EFL students to use L1; and the language that the participants would use outside their EFL classrooms with their colleagues and/or their students.

4.3.1 Permitting EFL teachers to use L1

The Director of the ELC's (Zain) attitude towards EFL teachers' use of L1 inside their classrooms with their students was discussed to identify whether he as the Director would permit L1 inside the EFL classroom or not.

Extract

1	**R:** OK! Interesting! My question is do you permit or encourage teachers to use Arabic in their language
2	classrooms?
3	**Zain:** Well, no. I most of the time make it clear to the teachers that Arabic is not allowed. Even if you are talking
4	to students and… I mean even if you are giving very… I mean obvious or instructions or whatever. I most of the
5	time ask the teachers to use English even to say sit down or go out or whatever. Even, I mean and even outside the
6	classroom. You should know that many of your students sometimes even run behind you when you are leaving the
7	classroom. They ask for something, they ask a question. I also, I mean, ask the teachers to use English even when
8	they are in their offices and students come to them and want to ask something. I try to make it clear for the teachers
9	that they should use English whenever there is an opportunity. Does this happen actually or not? As I told you, it
10	is not all the time controllable. You cannot have evidence of this.

This extract reveals that Zain strongly disagreed with permitting the EFL teachers to use L1 in the EFL classroom. Zain reported in lines 3 to 10 that he would usually urge the EFL teachers to use L2 in their instructions, classroom management, interactions with their students outside

the classroom and in every possible opportunity. Copland and Neokleous (2011) observed in their study that teachers of L2 believed that the use of L1 should be minimized. Nonetheless, lines 9 and 10 shows Zain's awareness that he could not guarantee the EFL teachers' implementation of his instructions.

4.3.2 Consequences for using L1 with students inside or outside the classroom

Zain's reaction if he noticed an EFL teacher using L1 with his students whether inside or outside his classroom was explored.

Extract

1	**R:** Interesting! So, what would be your reaction if you notice that a teacher is using Arabic with students inside
2	the classroom or outside it?
3	**Zain:** Well, most of the time… What I do is that I call the teacher to my office and I try to make it clear for him
4	that it would be better to use English. Of course, I would not tell the teacher anything in front of his students. I
5	would call him to my office lock the door talk to him and try to explain the reason behind my exigence. I mean I
6	try to tell him to communicate this idea of assuring exposure of the students to the language. And most of the time
7	the teachers they respond to that. I mean they show understanding and yeah, they never say no. They never argue
8	with that.

This extract highlights Zain's reaction if he discovered that an EFL teacher was using L1 with his students. Zain reported that he would ask this EFL teacher privately in a closed meeting not to use L1 with his students and he would urge this teacher to implement maximal use of L2. Raschka, et al. (2009) assert that LEP makers and institutional authorities in the EFL context tend to perceive code-switching as a form of deficit behaviour. This extract reveals that Zain noticed that his role as a policy-maker discouraged the EFL teachers from disputing with him about their use of L1. Simon (2001) reveals that studies show regular use of code-switching inside the classroom by teachers and students that is accompanied by their feelings of guilt.

4.3.3 Permission for students to use L1 with the Director

Zain's, as the Director of the ELC, permission for PYP students to use L1 whenever they visited his office was investigated.

Extract

1 **R:** What about as the head of the English language centre?
2 **Zain:** Well, I try to encourage them to use English, but most of the time and, frankly, I use Arabic to address.
3 Because when they come to you as the head of the department, they most of the time come to you with a little bit
4 of complex situations and everything. They do not really own the language that would permit them to communicate
5 on that particular issue in English. So, yes, I use Arabic with them.

Zain revealed in this extract that he would use L1 whenever PYP students visited his ELC office. This extract clarifies Zain's awareness that the proficiency level of the PYP students in L2 tended to be low and, therefore, sharing an L1 with the students would be useful in facilitating interactions with them. Copland and Neokleous (2011) remark that bilingual teachers of L2 keep undermining the use of L1, their most valuable asset.

4.3.4 Using L1 inside the classroom

All the participants (Zain, Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) commented on their use of their students' L1 inside their EFL classrooms.

Extract

1 **R:** Interesting! Do you use Arabic when you were teaching in your classrooms in Saudi Arabia and in your home
2 country?
3 **Zain:** Frankly, back home no. But, in Saudi Arabia, yes sometimes I found myself obliged to use some Arabic.
4 But, I would not address a whole class in Arabic. I try most of the time to minimise the use of Arabic. Yes, when
5 I came to Saudi Arabia, I found out that it is a different teaching experience and, obviously, learning experience
6 also. So, I found myself, sometimes, obliged to use some Arabic. But I would all the time try to minimise that use
7 of Arabic inside the classroom.

Zain said in this extract that the necessity and amount of using L1 in the EFL classroom are not identical and it is possible to vary according to the context of teaching and the learners of the language. Zain acknowledged that he noted varieties between Saudi Arabian and Tunisian teaching and learning experiences in terms of using L1 in the EFL classroom. Zain revealed that he did not use L1 when he was teaching EFL in his home country whereas he conceded that he felt that he was compelled to use L1 in teaching EFL in Saudi Arabia.

Extract

1 **R:** Do you use Arabic in your language classrooms?
2 **John:** Yes, I mean… do you want me to elaborate even though you have seen the class? OK? Yeah?

3　**R:** Yeah, if you want to.
4　**John:** Yeah, my chief use of Arabic is to check vocabulary that students know the meaning of vocabulary and a
5　very occasionally some small aspects of grammar, but not usually much more than that. I do not speak sentences
6　in Arabic in my classroom and to be honest I do not usually accept spoken long sentences in Arabic because I
7　probably could not be sure I understood it properly. So,… but yeah, I use it.

This extract points out that John was aware that L1 was necessary for teaching EFL regardless

of the facts that he speaks the target language as his L1 and had low proficiency in his students'

L1. This extract shows that John preferred to use L1 in form of words instead of sentences

because he did not have advanced proficiency in L1. John revealed that he would use L1 to

explain the meanings of vocabulary items and to teach grammar.

Extract
1　**R:** … So, my third question is do you use Arabic in your language classrooms?
2　**Hamza:** Well, I use, but in a very low percentage. I try not to use Arabic, but if I feel that I should use it. Because
3　the situation is, you know, sometimes you feel the students are in a very different situation or difficult situation.
4　One important point should be explained to our students and even if you try to explain it in English, it will be
5　difficult for them and you find it difficult for them to understand. So, you have to use Arabic. Sometimes I use
6　Arabic in this situation. I have to. Otherwise, I might go to the next step and the previous step is not understood
7　by our student. And what will happen? The next step will be more difficult. So, I think, sometimes, I use Arabic
8　with these situations if they are stuck.

Hamza admitted in this extract that he would use L1, but he would attempt to reduce his use of

it. Hamza believed that L1 is crucial in improving students' comprehension. Edstrom (2006)

indicates that teachers of L2 tend to use code-switching whenever they feel that their students

are encountering comprehension difficulty. Hamza remarked that not using L1 may obstruct

students' comprehension of future lessons if they failed to fully understand their current lessons.

Extract
1　**R:** OK!... Do you use Arabic in your language classrooms?
2　**Ahmed:** According to the level. This the first point and sometimes yes, I used regardless of the level.

Ahmed, in this extract, hesitated to admit that he was using L1 in teaching EFL through

reporting that his use of L1 would rely on the level of the students and, then, indicating that his

use of L1 would not rely on the level of the students. Ahmed may have a sense of guilt about

his use of L1 that he did not want to admit that he was using it as my classroom observations

will reveal in chapter five. Copland and Neokleous (2011) illustrate that the bilingual teachers

may not anticipate how much they use L1 and why they use it because they may have a sense

of guilt due to the contradictions between the pedagogic ideals and their contextual realities.

Extract

1	**R:** OK! Do you use Arabic in your language classrooms?
2	**Steve:** Personally?
3	**R:** Yeah.
4	**Steve:** No.
5	**R:** No, you do not?
6	**Steve:** [Laughs]

Steve reported in this extract that he did not use L1 because he did not speak it. Littlewood and

Yu (2011) assert that some language teachers may use L2 only because they do not speak their

students' L1.

Four of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) conceded in this section that they

would use their students' L1 inside the classroom whereas one of the participants (Steve)

admitted that he would not use his students' L1 because he did not speak it. Glasgow (2014)

highlight that language teachers may resist or do not implement an LEP if it contradicts with

their professional beliefs or their contextual realities. Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) declared that

the teachers of L2 considered code-switching a necessary tool that may occasionally serve their

objectives. Al-Nofaie (2010) revealed that the EFL teachers had positive attitudes towards L1.

4.3.5 The students' language choice with their teachers

The language that PYP students would use in their interactions with the participants was

discussed.

Extract

1	**R:** What language does students use with you? Like when they come to your office or when they were in your
2	classes.
3	**Zain:** Well, in the classes very different. In class, well I try to oblige them to use English and most of the time
4	they address you in Arabic and most of the time my response is please speak English please, but as an
5	administrative. I mean as a head of department. Well, it is Arabic most of the time whenever a student steps inside
6	my office, the main language used is… I try sometimes to put some English here and there OK? But mostly we
7	use Arabic in addressing students. I use Arabic as the director of the English department not as a teacher.

In this extract, Zain asserted that he treated L1 differently as the Director of the ELC and as an EFL teacher. Zain said in lines 4 to 7 that he would not ban PYP students from using L1 with him as the Director of the ELC whereas he reported in lines 3 and 4 that he would encourage them not to use L1 as an EFL teacher. This extract shows that Zain was aware that students would attempt to use L1 in their interactions with EFL teachers who share an L1 with them.

Extract

1 **R:** OK! So, what language does your students use with you when they meet you? And among themselves?
2 **John:** … Among well, among themselves definitely Arabic. I do not hear them ever speak to each other in English.
3 When they come to me 95% of the time, they start in English. They change. It is either I initiated the change
4 because they are not coping with the English. I try not to do that because obviously, I am there to help them with
5 their English. Sometimes, they come start straight off in Arabic which surprise me actually when they do that. I
6 assume they will speak to me in English, but…

John commented in lines 3 to 6 on the language that students would use with him whenever they visited his office. John revealed that he would use L1 in his interactions with EFL students outside the classroom. John asserted that the use of L1 could be initiated by him or his students. This extract indicates that L1 may have a significant role in the interactions between students and their EFL teachers even when the EFL teachers speak the target language as their L1 and have low proficiency in their students' L1. This extract will be reviewed again in section (4.3.6) to discuss the language that EFL students use among themselves from the viewpoint of John.

Extract

1 **R:** So, the next question is what language does your students use with you? When they speak to you, what language
2 do they use?
3 **Hamza:** Inside the class?
4 **R:** Inside and outside the class.
5 **Hamza:** Inside the class, they speak to me in English and in the break, the 10 minutes break, they speak to me in
6 English. But after the class, they can use Arabic. They can speak in Arabic to me.

This extract shows that Hamza distinguished between the language that students would use with him inside the EFL classroom and the language that they would use outside the EFL classroom. Hamza said that he was strict about his students' use of L2 only during interactions with him in

the EFL classroom, but he tolerated using L1 with them during unofficial interactions that may

occur after the end of the daily lessons.

Extract

1   **R:** Uh-huh, OK! What language does your students use with you?... When students want to speak to you, for
2   example, inside the classroom…
3   **Ahmed:** and that is inside the classroom?
4   **R:** and outside it.
5   **Ahmed:** outside they use Arabic, but inside the classroom, they use both. (XXXX).

Ahmed in this extract admitted that his students were using L1 in their interactions with him

whether inside the EFL classroom or outside it.

Extract

1   **R:** Interesting! What language does your students use with you?
2   **Steve:** With me?
3   **R:** Yeah.
4   **Steve:** English.
5   **R:** English.
6   **Steve:** Only.

Steve reported in this extract that his students would use L2 only in their interactions with him

inside and outside the EFL classroom. Students would use L2 only because Steve did not speak

L1.

Four of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) acknowledged in this section that their

students would use both L2 and L1 in their interactions with them. In addition, these four

participants emphasised that they would permit their students to use L1 if they approached them

outside their EFL classrooms. Simon (2001) remarks that there would be an increasing

possibility for code-switching to be used when both the teachers and their students are familiar

with the linguistic resources that they possess regardless of the LEP's ban. Conversely, one of

the participants (Steve) reported that his students would use L2 only with him inside and outside

the EFL classroom because he did not speak L1.

4.3.6 The language that students use among themselves

The interviews discussed the language that EFL students would use among themselves from the perspectives of the participants.

Extract

1   **R:** OK! What about among themselves?
2   **Zain:** students?
3   **R:** Uh-huh.
4   **Zain:** Oh, they use Arabic. Even I have an experience of getting students into groups, for example, inside the
5   classroom when I used to teach. Well, I used to teach! Now I teach. And even students who are supposed to be
6   intermediate or pre-intermediate level students. When you assign a group work and you expect them to be
7   addressing themselves in English. No, they use Arabic. They mostly use Arabic.
8   **R:** OK! Why do you think so? Why do you think they use Arabic?
9   **Zain:** Well, for many different reasons actually. Most of the time it is the natural thing. I mean they are Arabic
10   language speakers, so most of the time they use Arabic. So, it is natural. The other thing is that they do not really
11   handle the language. I mean the English language the same way they do with Arabic. So, they find it easier to
12   communicate in Arabic. The other thing is that they have not been trained before they come to university to address
13   each other in English inside the English classroom. So, these are the main three reasons I would think of.

This extract highlights that Zain was aware that EFL students would be expected to use L1 among themselves even when they developed their L2 proficiency. According to Zain's opinion, there are three main reasons behind students' tendency to use L1 among themselves. First, using L1 would be the expected behaviour from the EFL students due to the fact that they share a common L1. Nation (2003) indicates that it would be the expected behaviour of students who share an L1 to be using it during performing tasks instead of L2. Second, the PYP students tended to have low proficiency in L2. Ferguson (2009) maintains that it is possible for students to use L1 to compensate for their low proficiency in L2. Third, the PYP students were not trained to use L2 in public schools.

Extract

1   **R:** OK! So, what language does your students use with you when they meet you? And among themselves?
2   **John:** … Among well, among themselves definitely Arabic. I do not hear them ever speak to each other in English.
3   When they come to me 95% of the time, they start in English. They change. It is either I initiated the change
4   because they are not coping with the English. I try not to do that because obviously, I am there to help them with
5   their English. Sometimes, they come start straight off in Arabic which surprise me actually when they do that. I
6   assume they will speak to me in English, but…

Line 2 shows that John believed that his EFL students would use L1 only in their interactions among themselves. This extract was discussed in section (4.3.5) to review the language that EFL students would use in their interactions with John.

Extract

1	**R:** And among themselves when they talk to each other?
2	**Ahmed:** Arabic.
3	**R:** Arabic?
4	**Ahmed:** Yeah, they use Arabic.

Ahmed postulated in this extract that students would use L1 among themselves.

Extract

1	**R:** And among themselves?
2	**Steve:** Arabic.
3	**R:** Arabic…
4	**Steve:** Very occasionally, they use English. If I am there and in a conversation. They know I am listening. Very
5	occasionally, they use English.

In this extract, Steve predicted that his students would use L1 during the interactions among themselves. Steve reported that his students would sometimes use L2 among themselves if they noticed that he was observing them. Steve probably sensed that students were using L2 because he did not speak their L1 and they could be using L2 out of respect for him because he would not be able to understand their talk using their L1.

Extract

1	**R:** Uh-huh! OK! What about among themselves?
2	**Hamza:** Among themselves… Well, it depends. Sometimes, which is very less, they speak in English, but mostly
3	they speak in Arabic among themselves, yeah.

Hamza, in this extract, believed that the medium of interactions between his students varied between L1 and L2. According to Hamza, students tended to use L1 in the majority of their interactions while they tended to use L2 in fewer occasions.

All the participants (Zain, Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) reported in this section that their EFL students would use L1 among themselves in varying degrees. Atkinson (1987) supports

using L1 during cooperation among learners. Two of the participants (John and Ahmed) contended that EFL students would use L1 only among themselves whereas another two of the participants (Steve and Hamza) implied that their EFL students would sometimes use L2 in the interactions among themselves. McMillan and Rivers (2011) remarked that some teachers supported students' use of L1 during interactions with their colleagues. This section indicates that all the EFL teachers agreed that L1 would be used by their students in the interactions among themselves. It highlights that the participants were aware that students' use of L1 in their interactions cannot be banned especially when they share an L1.

4.3.7 Permitting students to use L1 inside the L2 classroom

The participants' tolerance with their EFL students' use of L1 inside their classrooms has been discussed.

Extract

1 **R:** OK! The next question is do you permit students to use Arabic inside the classroom?
2 **Zain:** Of course, not. I most of the time, as I told you at the beginning, I most of the time tell the students. They
3 know that you are an Arabic language speaker so they try to address you in Arabic. So, most of the time I say
4 English please English please. Most of the time I try to make them understand they will to use the English language
5 rather than…(XXXX).

In this extract, Zain reported that students would attempt to use L1 with their EFL teacher when they share an L1. This extract points out that Zain was concerned about sharing an L1 with his students that led him to continuously asking them not to use L1.

Extract

1 **R:** OK! Interesting!... OK! Let us move on to the next question do you permit students to use Arabic inside the
2 classroom?
3 **Hamza:** No, I do not. Well, I try not to give them permission to talk in Arabic. Even if I catch some of them, I
4 will stop them. But if I cannot see them because I might be busy writing or maybe sometimes I am busy talking to
5 one of the students. One student might talk to another one just telling a word or saying a sentence. I cannot help
6 it, but I do not encourage them. I do not encourage them to talk in Arabic at all inside the class.

Hamza, in this extract, reported that students who share an L1 would seize every opportunity to use L1 even if the teacher bans them from using it. This extract reveals that Hamza was

anxious about the fact that he was sharing an L1 with his students that would lead him to ban

them from using L1.

Extract

1   **R:** Do you permit students to use Arabic inside the classroom?
2   **Steve:** Of course, it is almost impossible for them not to. And I have most of the time. I do not have a problem
3   with it as long it is in the right time in the right place. It is when they are chatting needlessly when I am speaking
4   is when I am annoyed and I ask them to stop.

In this extract, Steve said that he tended to permit his students to use L1 with their colleagues.

Steve sensed that he did not have the power to ban his students from using L1. Steve was

probably referring to the fact that all his students shared an L1. Steve supported students' use

of L1 with their colleagues if it was serving an educational objective. Lucas and Katz (1994)

advise teachers who do not speak their students L1 to permit their students to use it during their

group work. On the other hand, Steve did not support his students' use of L1 if it was

interrupting the flow of the lesson.

Extract

1   **R:** Interesting! so, we will move on to the next question. Do you permit students to use Arabic inside the
2   classroom?
3   **John:** yes.

This extract shows John's support of his students' use of L1 inside the EFL classroom.

Extract

1   **R:** OK! Interesting! My next question is do you permit students to use Arabic inside the classroom?
2   **Ahmed:** Sometimes, sometimes, yeah. According to the case or the situation.

Ahmed, in this extract, was not certain about his permission for his EFL students to use L1.

However, chapter five will reveal that Ahmed did not actually ban his EFL students from using

L1.

In this section, two of the participants (Zain and Hamza) asserted that they would not permit

their students to use L1 inside their classrooms. Eldridge (1996) reports that teachers and

researchers in the field of ESL view code-switching as a sign of failure in learning L2 or lacking

the motivation to learn it. On the other hand, three of the participants (Steve, John and Ahmed) admitted that they would permit their students to use L1 inside their classrooms. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005) declare that L2 learners will never be monolingual speakers of L2, but, instead, they have the opportunity of becoming bilingual speakers of the two languages. One of the participants (Hamza) stressed that he would control his students use of L1 through banning them from using it whereas another participant (Steve) mentioned that he would permit his students to use L1 because he would not be able to stop them. Baoueb and Toumi (2012) noted that teachers' language practices largely influenced their students' language practices.

4.3.8 Use of L1 outside the EFL classroom

The participants revealed their viewpoints towards using L1 outside their language classrooms with other EFL teachers or their students.

Extract

1 **R:** Uh-huh! OK! Interesting! Do you use Arabic outside language classrooms with teachers and students?
2 **Zain:** Yes, I do. As an administrative, most of the time the administrative issues either with students or with
3 teachers are addressed in Arabic. Especially when it comes to a little bit of complicated matters, administrative
4 matters. Yes, most of the time there are. I use Arabic. Of course, I use Arabic with the Arabic language speaking
5 teachers because, as you may know, we have a mixture of bilingual teachers who speak Arabic and native teachers
6 who do not speak Arabic.

Zain considered in this extract L1 as a significant tool in facilitating his administrative duties during his interactions with both the teachers who speak students' L1 and the PYP students to resolve administrative complications. It can be seen that Zain was aware that L1 cannot be excluded in the interactions between people who share an L1 regardless of the LEP's ban on L1.

Extract

1 **R:** OK! Do you use Arabic outside language classrooms?
2 **John:** Yes, in most transactional situations in the city. My default is to assume that they do not speak English
3 unless they suddenly start speaking back to me because they know I am English. So, any shop I go into. For
4 example, I was in DHL two days ago. There was an Indian man behind the counter. I know his Arabic is not going
5 to be much better than mine, but I would assume that he does not speak English. However, he started speaking to

6   me in English, but yeah pretty much any situation (XXXX). If I am going into a mosque, I use Arabic. If I met a
7   Saudi person, I use Arabic… yeah.
8   **R:** what about inside the university like…?
9   **John:** Generally, with students (XXXX) I do use Arabic, but only to say hello. Well, السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>
10 specifically because it is an Islamic greeting and how are you… even then I usually say how are you, but I might
11 say كيف الحال <how are you>? Yeah, I do use it sometimes when I am trying to explain because obviously my other
12 job here is to be the coordinator of medical department, and so I sometimes have students here who do not speak
13 particularly good English or if I start to get the feeling that my Arabic is actually better than their English
14 sometimes I switch into Arabic in the hope that they will understand what they do not understand in English. Yeah,
15 so I do use it outside the classroom, but for the purpose of my job, yeah.

In lines 2 to 7 of this extract, John revealed that he would use L1 in his life outside the campus of Barzan University with the locals unless they initiated the use of English. This shows that John was aware that L2 is not often used in students' life outside the university. Littlewood and Yu (2011) and Turnbull and Arnett (2002) indicate that the classroom may represent the only source of exposure to L2 for most students. John, in lines 9 to 15, commented on his use of L1 inside the campus of Barzan University that he tended to use L1 outside the EFL classroom with particularly students who had low proficiency in L2. This signifies the crucial role that L1 may play in facilitating interaction with students who do not have advanced proficiency in L2.

Extract
1   **R:** OK! So, the next question is do you use Arabic outside your language classrooms?
2   **Hamza:** Of course, yes. I use Arabic with my students. When they come to my office when they talk to me after
3   the class, I talk to them in Arabic, yeah.
4   **R:** Uh-huh! OK! What about with your colleagues?
5   **Hamza:** With my colleagues, it depends. If my colleague is an Arab, I will talk to him in Arabic, but if my
6   colleague is non-Arab, I will talk to him in English. Like [named two EFL teachers]. I talk to them in English. No
7   way! I cannot deal with them in Arabic because they cannot understand the Arabic.

This extract indicates that Hamza's main focus of using L2 was inside the EFL classroom and he revealed that he would use L1 outside the EFL classroom with both his students and his colleagues who shared his L1.

Extract
1   **R:** Uh-huh, OK!... Do you use Arabic outside your language classrooms? With students like when they come to
2   your office or they meet you at the corridor, for example?
3   **Ahmed:** Yeah, I use Arabic with them.

Ahmed, in this extract, reported that L1 would be used during interactions with his EFL students outside the EFL classroom.

Extract
1 **R:** Do you use Arabic outside your language classrooms?
2 **Steve:** No. [laughs]

Steve said in this extract that he would not use L1 outside the EFL classroom because he did not speak it.

Four of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) admitted in this section that they would use L1 with the other EFL teachers and/or their students outside their classrooms. On the other hand, one of the participants (Steve) contended that he would not use L1 with both the other EFL teachers and his students because he did not speak Arabic. Cooper (1989) asserts that accomplishing the objectives of acquisition planning by schools does not always mean that the target language would be used outside the classroom.

4.3.9 Section summary

In this section, the participants' viewpoints towards using L1 in their language practices was investigated from various perspectives. These perspectives were: the Director of the ELC's (Zain) attitude towards EFL teachers' use of L1 inside their classrooms with their students; Zain's reaction if he noticed an EFL teacher was using L1 in front of his students; Zain's permission for PYP students to use L1; the participants' use of L1 inside their EFL classrooms; the language that PYP students would use in their interactions with the participants and their colleagues; the participants' tolerance with their EFL students' use of L1 inside their classrooms; and the language that the participants would use outside their language classroom with other EFL teachers and/or their students. Zain insisted that he would usually clarify to the EFL teachers that L1 was not permitted inside their classes. Zain reported that if he found an EFL teacher was using L1 with his students, he would probably invite this teacher to his office to discuss this incidence. However, Zain admitted that he would use L1 whenever a PYP student

visited his ELC's office. Most of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) acknowledged that they would use L1 inside their EFL classrooms and their students would use both L2 and L1 in their interactions with them. All the participants observed that their EFL students would use L1 among themselves in varying degrees. Zain and Hamza emphasised that they would not permit their EFL students to use L1 inside their classrooms while the other participants conceded that they would permit their students to use it inside their classrooms. The majority of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) said that they would permit their students to use L1 if they approached them outside their EFL classrooms. Four of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) revealed that they would use L1 with their colleagues and/or their students outside their classrooms.

4.4 Chapter summary

My interviews with the participants were analysed in this chapter. The first objective of this study is to identify the LEP of the PYP towards the use of learners' L1 and EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. The second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding the use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. The major goal of data analysis in this chapter was accomplishing these two objectives. As explained in chapter three, five participants (Zain, Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) who were members of the ELC of the PYP in Barzan University were interviewed during the data collection for this study. This study conducted semi-structured interviews that focused on two main issues. These issues were: the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University; and the viewpoints of the participants towards using L1 in their language practices. These two issues were reviewed in detail in this chapter with reference to the participants' interviews.

Section (4.2) focused on identifying the LEP of the PYP towards using L1 in the EFL classroom, participants' attitudes towards this policy and how this policy was administered. This section pointed out that L1 was strictly banned inside the EFL classroom by the LEP, but this policy was not written in an official document. This section indicated that the EFL teachers were not certain about the LEP of the PYP towards L1 because they have not been officially informed about it. All the EFL teachers (Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) disagreed with banning L1 in the EFL classroom.

Section (4.3) studied the participants' viewpoints towards using L1 in their language practices from various perspectives. These perspectives included: the Director of the ELC's (Zain) attitude towards EFL teachers' use of L1 inside their classrooms with their students; Zain's reaction if he noticed an EFL teacher was using L1 in front of his students; Zain's permission for PYP students to use L1; the participants' use of L1 inside their EFL classrooms; the language that PYP students would use in their interactions with the participants and their colleagues; the participants' tolerance with their EFL students' use of L1 inside their classrooms; and the language that the participants would use outside their language classroom with other EFL teachers and/or their students. Zain asserted that he did not tolerate the EFL teachers' use of L1 with their students and he would ask them to stop whenever he discovered that a teacher was using it. Most of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) admitted that they and their students would use L1 in their interactions inside and outside the classrooms to various degrees. All the participants observed that their EFL students would use L1 among themselves in different degrees; most of them (Steve, John and Ahmed) acknowledged that they would not ban their students from using it inside the classroom. The majority of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) conceded that they would use L1 with their students and/or colleagues outside the classroom.

Chapter Five

Data Analysis- II

5.1 Chapter overview

This chapter will discuss my data analysis of the observed EFL classrooms. Paulston and Heidemann (2006) point out that explicit and implicit implementations of policies are reflected by classroom practices. However, Spolsky (2004) indicates that the influence of language policy on language practices cannot be guaranteed or be consistent. The third objective of this study is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the language education policy (LEP) of the preparatory year programme (PYP) with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. The main goal of data analysis in this chapter is to achieve this objective.

As explained in chapter three, classes of four different EFL teachers (Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) were observed during data collection for this study. Two of these EFL teachers (Steve and John) speak English as their L1 whereas the other two (Hamza and Ahmed) speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2. Four EFL sessions were audio-recorded with every participant, reaching a total of sixteen audio-recorded sessions. The participants were asked to keep the audio-recorder inside their shirt pockets. The audio-recorded sessions were verbatim transcribed and analysed using a computer software (NVivo) (see sections 3.11 and 3.12). The focus of my data analysis of classroom observations was on how the EFL teachers used and/or permitted their students to use L1 inside the classroom.

The data analysis of using L1 in the EFL classrooms was conducted in light of the research on functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. Hence, this study, in its data analysis of the classroom observations, adopts two functions of code-switching from Eldridge (1996) (1-2 below), three functions from Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) (3-5 below) and one function from Ferguson (2009) (6 below) (see section 2.3.6). The functions of code-switching that this study adopts in the data analysis of the EFL classroom are:

1. Equivalence in using of or eliciting a similar item in the other language.

2. Metalanguage through commenting, evaluating, and talking about the task that would probably be in L1.

3. Affective functions that can be seen in spontaneous expressions of emotions between teachers and their students.

4. Socialising functions through using L1 to signal friendship and solidarity with students.

5. Repetitive functions in code-switching to convey the same message in both languages for clarity.

6. Code-switching for classroom management where the teacher uses code-switching to manage his students' behaviour.

The aforementioned functions of code-switching in addition to uses of code-switching that did not serve an educational function emerged from my analysis of the EFL sessions. Therefore, the functions that this chapter will discuss are: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching. However, Bullock and Toribio (2009) indicate that identifying the exact function of every code-switching

instance is not always feasible. One of the reasons for this is that it is possible for a code-switching instance to be multifunctional (Eldridge, 1996; Ferguson, 2009; Raschka, et al., 2009). For instance, a code-switching instance may be considered a repetitive function or part of a metalanguage function as some of the extracts in section (5.2) will reveal. Therefore, I classified the code-switching instances according to the dominant function of code-switching in every extract.

In this chapter, the extracts with common functions are grouped and discussed together. This chapter will discuss these functions using examples of extracts from my verbatim transcription of the audio-recorded EFL sessions. These extracts are selected samples to represent common themes among the participants' classes. Every extract will be followed by a description of it in reference to the focus of this study. My analysis of the extracts in every section will focus on one function of code-switching. Thus, any instances of code-switching that are not relevant to the investigated function will be disregarded. The participants' reflections on my classroom observations will be highlighted in this chapter. The participants' reflections on some of the discussed extracts will be explored within my discussion of the concerned extract. Otherwise, their general reflections on the observed functions of code-switching will be discussed after reviewing their extracts. However, this chapter is relatively long. Hence, to keep readers on track, the extracts from every participant will sometimes be followed by a summary of the major findings from his classes. Then, the major findings from the participants will be summarised at the end of every section.

5.2 Metalanguage function

This section will analyse the first function of code-switching (metalanguage function). The main focus of this function is discussing and explaining L2 grammar or a task.

Several instances of this function were found in the classes of all the four participants (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve). My analysis of this function revealed that it was used by teachers, students or both as the extracts in this section will point out. This section will discuss only two extracts from each participant's classes because of word and space constraints of this study. The extracts of every participant are grouped together. The participants' reflections on some of the extracts are added to the analysis of the concerned extract or after the analysis of every teacher's extracts. The extracts from every participant will be followed by a summary of the major findings from his classes to keep readers on track because this is a relatively long section. This section will conclude with the major findings from the participants' extracts.

5.2.1 Ahmed's classes

Instances of the metalanguage function were found in all the four observed sessions of Ahmed. This section will analyse two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 Ahmed: من <who>. Thank you! من <who>. OK! Now, **in Arabic in Arabic, who can tell me the**
2 **difference between the first whose and the second one? In meaning** في المعنى <in meaning>. **In**
3 **Arabic in Arabic.** Yes, please?
4 AS1: **whose…** للملكية <for possession>
5 Ahmed: **Whose** الموجودة في الأعلى <that exists at the top>?
6 AS1: للملكية <for possession>
7 Ahmed: للملكية. إذاً تسأل عن ملكية <for possession. So, it asks about the possessor>?
8 Ss: شيء <of a thing>
9 Ahmed: أشياء <of things>. Thank you! أو شيء <or of a thing>. **Who's** الثانية <the second>?
10 AS2: أشخاص <people>
11 Ahmed: تسأل عن الأشخاص نفسهم <Asks about the people themselves>. Thank you very much! تسأل عن
12 الأشخاص نفسهم. إذاً في الإجابة في الإجابة <It asks about the people themselves. So, in the answer in the
13 answer>. **Whose** إجابتها الأولى، راح نستخدم ملكية الأشياء في إجابتها <the first, we will use the possessors of things
14 in its answer>. **Who is [knocking on the board]** الثانية، هذي <the second, this>, it is who [knocking
15 on the board] is. **Is asking about people.** تسأل عن أشخاص <asks about people>. So, **the answer… is a**
16 **name of a person** الإجابة هي اسم <the answer is a name>?
17 AS2: شخص <of a person>.
18 Ahmed: شخص <of a person>. OK? Be careful. Be careful.

Ahmed was discussing with his students the differences between the interrogative pronouns *whose* and *who*. Ahmed in lines 1 and 2 asked his students twice to use their

L1 in stating the difference between the interrogative pronouns *whose* and *who*. Ahmed emphasised that he was referring to the difference in meaning and repeated this using L1 in line 2. Ahmed also contended twice that he wanted his students to use L1 in their answers in lines 2 and 3. The first student in line 4 used L1 to answer Ahmed's question. Ahmed in line 5 used L1 to provide a request for clarification. The first student in line 6 used L1 to repeat his answer. In line 7, Ahmed repeated this student's answer using L1 and he used L1 to provide an elicitation to encourage his students to complete the answer. A group of students in line 8 completed the answer using L1. Ahmed repeated his students' answer in line 9 to clarify that this interrogative pronoun would be used with a thing or multiple things. In this line, Ahmed used L1 to ask his students about the interrogative pronoun *who*. A second student, in line 10, used L1 to answer Ahmed's question. Ahmed in lines 11 to 13 repeated twice using L1 the function of the interrogative pronoun *who*. In lines 13 and 14, Ahmed repeated the function of the interrogative pronoun *whose* using L1. Ahmed, in lines 14 and 15, used both L2 and L1 to repeat the function of the interrogative pronoun *who*. Ahmed repeated the function of the interrogative pronoun *who* in line 16 using L1 in a formation of elicitation. The second student answered Ahmed's elicitation in line 17 using L1 and Ahmed repeated this student's answer in line 18. Ahmed in this extract used L1 and encouraged his students to use it. L1 mainly served a metalanguage function in this extract because Ahmed asked his students to use L1 to distinguish between the interrogative pronouns *whose* and *who*. Ahmed ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract by asking his students to use L1 and interacting with them in it.

Extract

1 AS1: الثانية his <and> و his <Doctor! What is the difference between> دكتور! وش الفرق بين <the
2 second one>. (XXXX)
3 Ahmed: The difference… **in English or in Arabic?** The difference is in meaning. إذا تبي تقول له <**If you**
4 **want to say his**> OK?
5 AS2: His… book.

6	Ahmed: **His…** لـه لحالها <his alone>, but if you write the noun. OK? فراح يصير الاسم موجود مع هاء على آخر
7	**The noun will exist with the letter H [an Arabic language letter and pronoun that is** الكلمة. كتابه
8	**equivalent to the possessive adjective his] at the end of the word. His book> his book,** كتابه <his
9	**book>.** OK?

Ahmed was discussing the English language personal pronouns in addition to the possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns with his students. In lines 1 and 2, a student used L1 to ask Ahmed a question about the possessive pronoun *his* and the possessive adjective *his*. Ahmed in lines 3 and 4 used L2 and L1 to provide metalinguistic feedback. First, Ahmed in these lines offered the student to illustrate the difference in L2 or L1. It is not clear whether Ahmed meant to offer the choice of providing the explanation using L1 or L2 or he meant the difference in their use between L1 and L2. In these lines, Ahmed used L1 to provide the equivalence of the possessive pronoun *his*. Ahmed in lines 6 to 9 used both L2 and L1 to illustrate the differences between the possessive adjective *his* and the possessive pronoun *his*. Ahmed in line 6 used L1 to provide the equivalence of the possessive pronoun *his*. Ahmed in lines 6 to 9 used both L2 and L1 to provide metalinguistic feedback about the possessive adjective *his* besides an example of it. Ahmed in this extract used L1 and L2 and he did not ban his students from using L1. Ahmed permitted one of his students to initiate a question using L1 and he used both L2 and L1 to answer his student's question. This extract clarifies that the metalanguage function was used during a discussion between Ahmed and his students about the English language possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns. Ahmed did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract.

Ahmed commented in his reflections about using L1 in his interactions with his students. Ahmed said that 'this is a very sensitive point for students. I do not want the students to keep in mind that what is he talking about in English and I respond in English. A student may take from his colleague more than the teacher. So, I want to (XXXX) in Arabic to cancel every single information that may come from that student.

To let all the students in the class hear me clearly.' Ahmed clarified in his reflections that he preferred using L1 in his interactions with the students to eliminate any risk for them to receive false information from their colleagues. Ahmed in his reflections indicated that he preferred to be the main source of information for his students even if it meant that he would be using L1 in his interactions with them.

5.2.1.1 Main findings from Ahmed's classes

Two extracts from Ahmed's classes were reviewed in this section. Ahmed's extracts showed that he used the metalanguage function mainly to teach L2 grammar. Ahmed asked his students to use L1 and students used L1 to ask Ahmed questions. Ahmed used both L1 and L2 in his interactions with his students to distinguish between the interrogative pronouns *whose* and *who* and between the possessive pronoun *his* and the possessive adjective *his*. Ahmed, in his reflection, declared that he preferred to use L1 in his interactions with the students to prevent them from receiving false information from their colleagues. Ahmed's extracts in this section revealed that he disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1.

5.2.2 Hamza's classes

The metalanguage function was used in three of Hamza's sessions and this section will review two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 Hamza: So, we are talking about what? A temporary action a short action. طبعاً، للأسف، ما عندنا هذا مثله في
2 اللغة العربية نهائياً. لو حاولت إنك تفهمه من العربي، لن تصل لأي نتيجة. لأن الماضي المستمر <Of course, unfortunately,
3 we absolutely do not have something similar to this in the Arabic language. If you try to
4 understand it from Arabic, you will not reach any result. Because past continuous>. Past. اسمه
5 ماضي مستمر. شلون يعني ماضي مستمر؟ ماضي. ماضي، انتهى... ماضي مستمر. هو عباره عن لحظة مؤقته في
6 الماضي. استخدم عقلك <Its name is past continuous. What does past continuous mean? A past,
7 finished. A past, ended… past continuous. It is a temporary moment in the past. Use your mind>.
8 You have to go back. لحظة مؤقتة في الماضي <a temporary moment in the past>. We call it temporary
9 past action. It's a very short action.

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Hamza was explaining the past continuous tense to his students. Hamza in lines 1 to 4 used L1 to inform his students that the past continuous tense did not exist in their L1 and he warned them not to attempt to understand it using their L1 because it would not assist them in achieving anything. Hamza suggested in his reflections that 'translating the ideas in grammar will not help my students. So, that is why I prevented them.' Hamza argued that 'from my experience, students, who try to understand the usage of the present continuous or past continuous by translating the meaning of the sentence into Arabic language, usually fail to get the idea and finally they will not be able to use the present continuous or past continuous because we do not have equivalent to the present continuous and past continuous in our language.' However, in lines 4 to 7, Hamza used L1 to explain the function of the past continuous tense. Hamza in lines 8 and 9 used L1 to continue his illustration of the past continuous tense and he used L2 to repeat this information. Hamza in this extract was the only person who was talking. Hamza used L1 and L2 in his explanation of the function of the past continuous tense. Hamza advised his students not to use L1 in their understanding of this tense because it did not exist in their L1 and, hence, L1 would not assist them. Nevertheless, Hamza used L1 in his explanation of this tense. Hamza used L1 to translate the grammatical terminology past continuous. Hamza used L1 in this extract to serve a metalanguage function. Hamza disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using L1 in his illustration of the past continuous tense, but his students did not use L1 because they did not interact with him.

Extract

1	النوم. النوم مستمر من اثنعش ونص إلى. من اثنعش يمكن. مادري متى ينام. إحنا ما ما عرفنا. إحنا بدنا. خذينا لحظة Hamza:
2	مؤقته. من إثنعش ونص يمكن بدء. الساعة إحدعش نام. ماندري و... إستيقظ. مايهمنا لا قبل ولا بعد إحنا... اللحظة الي إثنعش
3	ونص. هذي اللحظة الي كان العمل مستمر، دخل عليه عمل آخر قطعه قطعه. ممكن يوقف هو أحياناً بس يدخل عليه يعطله شوي
4	ويرجع ويكمل. هذا العمل المستمر الي كان مستمر ودخل عليه عمل آخر. هذا هو اسمه لحظة الماضي المستمر <The sleeping.
5	**The sleeping is continuous from twelve-thirty to. It may be from twelve o'clock. I don't know**
6	**when he goes to sleep. We don't don't know. We want. We took a temporary moment. He may**

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7   **have started from twelve-thirty. He slept at eleven o'clock. We don't know and… he woke up.**
8   **We are not interested about before or after we… the moment which is twelve-thirty. This**
9   **moment where the action was continuous, it was interrupted interrupted by another action. It**
10 **may stop sometimes where it is interrupted for a short period and it continues again. This**
11 **continuous action that was continuous and it was interrupted by another action. It is called the**
12 **moment of past continuous>.** So, here **we have a continuous action.** عندنا عمل مستمر <**We have a**
13 **continuous action>. OK?... And we don't know exactly when it started or when it will finish.**
14 <**We don't have. We don't care before or after this moment>.** ماعندنا، ما يهمنا لا قبل ولا بعد هذه اللحظة
15 على هذي اللحظة. هذي اللحظة الي كان فيها العمل مستمر ودخل معه عمل آخر. simple past a.m. Twelve thirty OK?
16 هذي اللحظة المؤقتة ماضي مستمر <**in this moment. This moment where the action was continuous and**
17 **interrupted by another action. This temporary moment is past continuous>.** So, how can we write
18 this? I'll tell you how we can write this. While… while Zyad was sleeping comma his brother
19 Mohammed… opened the door… OK! Or the room or whatever. OK? While Zyad was sleeping, his
20 brother Mohammed opened the door… Slammed. He slammed the door of the room because we don't
21 want to use the the verb slam. Opened. OK? So, while Zyad was sleeping. This is the continuous action
22 **This>** هذا عمل مستمر في الماضي. كان مستمر كان مستمر. طيب هو الآن مستمر. in the past continuous past action.
23 **action is continuous in the past. Was continuous was continuous. So, is it continuous now>?**
24 AS: لا <**No>.**
25 Hamza: **No, we are we are now at present.** Zyad is not sleeping. Now, he's in my class. طيب <**So>,**
26 <**So, when we go** طيب، حنا لما نرجع للماضي، وش نرجع؟ شلون نرجع؟ بجسمنا؟ ولا نرجع بعقلنا. We are going back.
27 **back to the past, what do we go back? How do we go back? With our body? Or with our mind>?**
28 AS: بعقلنا <**with our mind>.**
29 Hamza: إذاً، هناك أعمال نرجع للماضي نفكر فيها **So, this is imagination. This is what? Imagination.**
30 <**Therefore, there are actions that we go back to the past and think about them>.** OK? نستعيدها،
31 نتكلم عنها <**We retrieve them. We talk about them>.**

Hamza was discussing the past continuous tense with his students. Hamza gave his

students an example using L1 to illustrate the past continuous tense. In lines 1 to 12,

Hamza used L1 to illustrate his example. Hamza in lines 12 and 13 used L1 to repeat

information about his example. Hamza used L1 to repeat information about the moment

of the action in his example in lines 13 and 14. In lines 15 to 17, Hamza used L1 to

illustrate the focus of the past continuous tense. Hamza highlighted in lines 22 and 23

that the action in his example was in the past continuous tense using L1. Hamza in these

lines asked his students a question using L1. A student in line 24 used L1 to answer the

question. Hamza used L2 in line 25 to provide metalinguistic feedback for this student's

answer and, then, Hamza used L1 to signal his return to his explanation of the past

continuous tense. In lines 26 and 27, Hamza used L1 to ask his students a second

question about the past continuous tense. The same student used L1 in line 28 to answer

the question. Hamza, in line 29, used L2 to provide metalinguistic feedback to this

student's answer. In lines 29 to 31, Hamza used L1 to continue his explanation of the

past continuous tense. Hamza used the metalanguage function in this extract by using both L2 and L1 in his illustration of the past continuous tense. Hamza used L1 to translate the grammatical terminology past continuous. Hamza also used L1 to ask his students questions. Mujiono, et al. (2013) noted that teachers of L2 used L1 to ask questions. This extract shows that a student participated during Hamza's explanation to answer questions that were initiated by Hamza. This student's turns were short and Hamza's feedback in both instances was in L2. Hamza ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract to explain L2 grammar to his students and he allowed one of his students to use L1.

5.2.2.1 Main findings from Hamza's classes

Two extracts from Hamza's classes were evaluated in this section. Hamza used the metalanguage function to teach L2 grammar during illustrating the past continuous tense in both extracts. Hamza used L1 in translating grammatical terminology. Hamza urged his students not to use L1 in learning the past continuous tense because L1 would obstruct their understanding of it. Hamza proposed in his reflections that using L1 in learning L2 grammar would not assist students in understanding it. However, Hamza used L1 in his explanation of L2 grammar. Students did not participate in the first extract. On the other hand, a student used L1 in the second extract to answer questions that were raised by Hamza using L1, but Hamza used L2 in his feedback. Hamza did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through ignoring this policy in his explanation of L2 grammar.

5.2.3 John's classes

The metalanguage function was used in three of John's sessions. This section will explore two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 John: Alright, Thank you!… Right, [teacher is talking to himself to check the time] Let's go back to the
2 student book, please. And we are starting superlatives. Have you heard of superlatives before?
3 AS1: Sorry!
4 John: Superlatives?… So, an example of a superlative, Mat is? Than Ismail. Mat is?
5 Ss: More
6 John: Is what?
7 Ss: more… bigger
8 John: Mat is old.
9 Ss: older
10 John: older, yeah. Mat is older than Ismail, but James is?
11 Ss: older than
12 John: the oldest, yeah? That's an example of a superlative. Yeah?
13 AS2: oldest
14 John: James is the oldest. OK? **How would you say that in Arabic about Mat and Ismail?** Mat?
15 AS2: ‎<older than Ismail, but James is older>. أكبر من اسماعيل. لكن جيمس أكبر
16 **John: James?**
17 AS2: <older older> أكبر أكبر
18 John: OK! Right! So, it's the same idea. It's the superlative.

John was introducing superlatives to his students for the first time in this extract. John provided a comparative example and a superlative example in his illustrations. In line 14, John asked his students to translate the comparative example to L1 and provided elicitation. John was probably attempting to draw students' attention to the similarities between comparatives and superlatives in both L1 and L2. A student in line 15 translated the comparative example successfully to L1 and he improvised a translation of the superlative example. However, this student did not translate the superlative example correctly. In line 16, John provided elicitation to encourage this student to repeat his translation of the superlative example. This student repeated his translation twice in line 17 and John accepted his translation in line 18. It seems that John did not realise that this student did not manage to translate the superlative example correctly. This extract reveals that John asked his students to use the metalanguage function to translate a sentence to L1 during teaching L2 grammar. John did not use L1 in this

extract, but he asked his students to use it. However, John did not realise that a student committed an error in his translation probably because John did not speak L1 fluently. In his reflections on this extract, John stated that 'I have chosen using it to show the correspondence with the Arabic'. John declared that 'I would speak to them in English with Arabic examples if I had to, you know, if I thought it was beneficial.' John's remarks point out his awareness of the significance of L1 in teaching L2 grammar. However, John admitted that 'I would never frame this in Arabic crafted sentences.' This reveals that John was concerned about his low proficiency in L1 that would discourage him from overusing L1. John ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract in his illustration of L2 grammar through asking his students to use L1, but he did not notice that a student committed an error in his translation.

Extract

1 John: Have got. Example: do you have? Have you got? OK!… If it's for he, she, what would this be?
2 AS1: … Do/Does
3 John: Does! Does he…
4 Ss: has
5 John: Has? Are you sure? What's this [pointing at the board]
6 Ss: Has… have
7 John: yeah, is it… is it the verb do فعل مساعد <helping verb> or رئيسي <main verb>?
8 AS2: فعل مساعد <helping verb>.
9 John: مساعد <helping> OK! So, what comes after…
10 Ss: Have have
11 John: It must be have, yes. It's the base form…

John was discussing with his students how to turn affirmative and negative sentences in addition to questions that use the American English style (subject has/have) into the British English style (subject has/have got). John, in this extract, was explaining to his students how to turn questions that have a third person pronoun from the American English style into the British English style. John in line 7 used L1 to provide metalinguistic feedback through asking his students a question about the auxiliary verb *do*. A second student used L1 in line 8 to answer John's question. In line 9, John repeated this student's answer using L1. This extract shows that John used the

metalanguage function to encourage his students to guess the correct formation of L2 questions. John used L1 to translate grammatical terminologies. John wondered in his reflections whether using L1 in translating grammatical terminologies was 'a sign that I have been using Arabic terminology too much, but partly because I know from trying to learn Arabic' and he added 'I do not pick things easily. So, I am thinking I want to speed up this process without knowing what the function is.' John emphasised that students 'are not going to be tested on the knowledge of the words main verb or auxiliary verb'. This indicates that John preferred to adopt a communicative approach to teach L2 grammar through reducing the focus on grammatical terminology even if it meant that he would be using L1. John highlighted his experience in learning L1 to adopt this approach of reducing the focus on grammatical terminology. John did not ban his students from using the metalanguage function during interacting with him. John did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract through using L1 and permitting his students to use it.

John revealed in his reflections that 'I think, frankly, if I am the director and a student comes and says do you know [the participant's name]? Do you know he speaks Arabic? and you say no, he does not and I mean that is all. And he tells him, yeah, I know. I know he does not, but he is speaking Arabic in the class. What? [loudly imitating the Director.] Why is he doing that?' John admitted that a major reason behind his attempts to reduce his use of L1 was his concern about irritating the Director of the ELC if a student complained about John's use of L1. Hence, John remarked that 'big difference, if they are speaking Arabic, and I am just saying a few words occasionally and show them I understand it, then I do not think there is anything wrong'. This highlights that John felt secured from irritating the Director of the ELC through permitting his students to use L1 instead of using it himself. John's reflections indicate that the LEP of the PYP

towards L1 had a major influence in his use of L1. Tan and Lan (2011) emphasize that implementing teaching practices that are consistent with teachers' pedagogical stance may be limited by their obligation to respect the norms prevalent in their institutions. Alsuhaibani (2015) discovered a vital role of the LEP on EFL teachers' use of L1.

5.2.3.1 Main findings from John's classes

This section discussed two extracts from John's classes. John's extracts indicated that he used the metalanguage function in teaching L2 grammar. L1 was used in John's classes during teaching comparatives and superlatives and formation of questions in the English language. John varied in his use of L1 in this section between not using it and using it to discuss a grammatical rule with his students. John did not ban his students from using L1 and he asked them to use it. John emphasised in his reflections that L1 has a significant role in teaching L2 grammar. John remarked in his reflections that his experience in learning L1 has enlightened him to support a communicative approach to teaching L2 grammar through reducing the focus on grammatical terminology even if it meant that he would be using L1. Nevertheless, John did not notice that one of his students committed an error in his translation of a superlative sentence in the first extract. John admitted in his reflections that he had low proficiency in L1 that led him to reduce his use of it. John acknowledged in his reflections that the LEP of the PYP towards L1 had a major role in controlling his use of it. However, John's extracts highlighted that he did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using L1 and permitting his students to use it.

5.2.4 Steve's classes

In Steve's classes, the metalanguage function was used in three of the observed sessions. This section will discuss two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 Steve: This is this is strange, isn't it? Maybe I don't know. OK! We we are going we're going to the
2 shopping mall.
3 Ss: What are you going to buy?
4 Steve: What're going to buy? Please, write it. It's just practice. Please, write it. Tariq! Open your book.
5 AS1: **Why teacher don't use where?**
6 **Steve: Where?**
7 AS1: Yes.
8 **Steve: Which?**
9 AS1: …
10 AS2: ‹**He is telling you that he is going to**> يقولك يبي يروح (XXXX).
11 **Steve: Number one or number two?**
12 AS1: OK!

Steve with help from his students was doing a task that consisted of short conversations between two people. The first person would say a sentence and students had to form a question that would be derived from this sentence. A student in line 5 asked Steve a question about one of the task items. Nonetheless, Steve did not understand what this student was referring to and he provided a request for clarification twice in lines 6 and 8. Then, line 10 shows that a second student interfered and used L1 to illustrate the questioned item to the first student. Line 11 shows that Steve probably did not notice that the second student explained the task item to the first student because he used a speech modification technique to ask the first student which task item he was referring to. This extract indicates that Steve did not use L1 to interact with his student, but he used one of the strategies that are used to negotiate meaning and form (request for clarification) twice and a speech modification technique instead. However, Steve did not manage to conduct a successful interaction with his student. Therefore, the second student used the metalanguage function to assist his colleague in comprehending a task item without taking prior permission from Steve. Steve did not realise that the second

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student assisted his colleague probably because he did not speak L1. Steve commented in his reflections about this extract that 'I really wish I have spoken Arabic [in a low voice]. But if I do speak Arabic, will they be talking in Arabic like this? I do not know'. Steve estimated that if he was able to speak L1 he 'would know how they are thinking. I would know the mistakes they make. I would know what to concentrate on, of course!' This shows that Steve was aware that being able to speak his students' L1 would be a significant tool in teaching EFL. However, Steve felt that his experience in EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia was improving because he 'slowly get to know the kind of mistakes they make month after month. So, I think obviously there is a big difference between Arabic and English here. But I never know exactly.' This indicates that Steve sensed that his experience was expanding as a result of spending time in his students' context and comparing L1 and L2 grammars. This extract reveals that Steve did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that students did not need his permission to use it in their interactions.

Extract

1	Steve: Yeah. Speak! Speak!… You have to talk about the future though… Umm!… Faisal! After
2	university,… What are you going to be?
3	AS1: … I am going to…
4	[Some students are speaking and it is not clear what they are saying or who they are talking to. A
5	mobile phone is ringing.]
6	**Steve: (XXXX)… After university, not today, after university.**
7	AS1: I'm going to… sleep.
8	AS2: لا يقول إذا خلصت الجامعة <No, he is telling you when you graduate from the university>.
9	AS3: وش تبي تصير <What are you going to be>?
10	**Steve: No, after university years, years**
11	AS1: I'm going… to be a doctor.
12	Steve: OK! Yeah, very nice. OK!…

Steve improvised a speaking task to assist his students in practising the future tense and asked a particular student about his future plans after graduating from the university. This student did not manage to answer Steve's question in lines 3 and 7. Although Steve in line 6 used a speech modification technique, a second student interfered in line 8 and used L1 to illustrate to the first student that Steve was referring to his future after

graduating from university. In addition, a third student interfered in line 9 and used L1 to illustrate to the first student that Steve was asking him about his future job. In line 10, Steve attempted to facilitate the question to the first student using another speech modification technique. Then, in line 11, the first student managed to answer Steve's question correctly. It is not clear whether the first student managed to answer the question correctly as a result of the speech modification techniques that were used by Steve or as a result of the other students' use of the metalanguage function. In his reflections, Steve remarked on his students' interference in this extract that 'it was probably not necessary.' However, Steve maintained that 'if this guy was willing to say that, it was fine by me.' This highlights that Steve probably disregarded his students' use of the metalanguage function without seeking his permission. This extract points out that Steve did not ban his students from using L1 during cooperation through using the metalanguage function whereas he used speech modification techniques twice to assist the first student in answering the question correctly. Steve did not comment on his students' use of L1 in lines 8 and 9. This could be because he either did not notice them or he did not know what they were talking about as a result of the fact that he did not speak their L1. Nevertheless, this extract shows that Steve did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that his students did not need his permission to use L1 in their interactions.

Steve commented in his reflections about his students' use of the metalanguage function. Steve revealed that 'I expect a bit of this and I like them to help each other.' Steve added that 'even if it is in Arabic'. Steve maintained that 'sometimes it happens. You do not really notice that much. Your main objective is for them to understand.' This points out that students tended not to seek permission from Steve to use L1. Steve acknowledged that 'there is no way that everyone in the class is going to understand

something. When I am talking in English, there is always going to be one or two people or someone or something that they need to speak to their friends about. And I am quite happy with that. As long as they understand it'. This indicates that Steve believed that L1 was a vital tool in the students' learning of L2. Nevertheless, Steve asserted that 'I would not want too much of it, but again I need to get this done with. I need to carry on to the next thing.' This reveals that Steve did not support overuse of L1.

5.2.4.1 Main findings from Steve's classes

Two extracts from Steve's classes were discussed in this section. Steve did not use L1 in this section because he did not speak it, but he used speech modification techniques and strategies of negotiating meaning and form to interact with his students. However, Steve did not ban his students from using the metalanguage function. Steve anticipated in his reflections that being able to speak his students L1 would assist him in understanding them, but he believed that his experience was gradually expanding through spending time with his students and comparing L2 and L1 grammars. Students in Steve's classes used L1 to discuss task items. A student used L1 in the first extract to assist his colleague in understanding a task item. Students used L1 in the second extract to help their colleague in understanding a question that was raised by Steve. Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) reveal that students may use L1 among themselves to check their mutual understanding of the received information. Steve did not realise that his students were using L1 to assist each other and they did not seek his permission to use it. Steve in his reflections revealed that he supported his students' use of the metalanguage function even if it was without his permission. McMillan and Rivers (2011) remarked that some teachers supported students' use of L1 during interactions with their colleagues. Nonetheless, Steve did not support the overuse of L1. The

extracts from Steve's classes in this section highlighted that he ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through permitting his students to use it.

5.2.5 Section summary

This section explored the first function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (metalanguage function). This function was used in the classes of all the participants (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve) by teachers, students or both.

Three of the participants (Ahmed, Hamza and John) used L1 for the metalanguage function themselves to teach L2 grammar. Borg and Burns (2008) report a general acceptance that a type of formal attention to grammar can have a beneficial impact on learning. Furthermore, Copland and Neokleous (2011) recommend using L1 in explaining L2 grammar to improve students' comprehension. According to research by Crawford (2004), Greggio and Gil (2007) and others, such use of L1 in teaching L2 grammar is commonplace. Hamza used L1 during discussing L2 grammatical terminology whereas John commented in his reflections that his experience in learning his students' L1 has inspired him to support using it in teaching L2 grammar and to reduce the use of L2 grammatical terminology. Borg (1999) indicates that the use of grammatical terminology by teachers of L2 relies on a complicated variety of experiential, cognitive and contextual elements.

On the other hand, Steve did not use this function himself because he did not speak his students' L1. Steve employed speech modification techniques and strategies of negotiating meaning and form to interact with his students. Walsh and Li Li (2016) highlight that speech modification techniques facilitate students' chances of tracking the interaction and participation. However, Steve regarded, in his reflections, awareness

of L1/L2 differences as important and that he was, therefore, motivated to increase his knowledge of his students' L1.

Ahmed and John asked their students to use L1. Nevertheless, John did not notice that one of his students committed a translation error. Ahmed's students also used L1 to ask questions. Yletyinen (2004) discovered that students used L1 to attract their teacher's attention. Ahmed and Hamza used both L1 and L2 in their interactions with their students. Ahmed remarked in his reflections that L1 was useful during interactions with his students to provide them with correct information instead of seeking help from their colleagues. Kim and Elder (2005) revealed that language teachers tended to use L1 in complex interactions with their students. Students in Steve's classes used L1 to discuss task items to assist their peers in understanding them. Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) assert that L1 may be used among students to check their mutual understanding of the received information. Steve supported in his reflections his students' use of the metalanguage function even if it was without his permission. McMillan and Rivers (2011) indicated that some language teachers supported their students' use of L1 during interactions among themselves. Lucas and Katz (1994) emphasise that it is possible for language teachers who do not speak their students' L1 to permit them to use it among themselves. On the other hand, Hamza recommended his students to avoid using L1 in their understanding of L2 grammar and he claimed in his reflections that L1 would not provide any help for students in understanding it. Copland and Neokleous (2011) remarked that some teachers of L2 observed using L1 in explaining L2 grammar as an obstruction to students' comprehension. Nonetheless, Hamza used L1 during explaining L2 grammar. Polio and Duff (1994) highlight that teachers' discouragement of their students' use of L1 does not always reflect their personal language practices.

This section revealed that all the participants did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1, but they varied in the degree of their disregard of it. All the participants ignored this policy through using L1 for the metalanguage function themselves and/or permitting their students to use it. John pointed out in his reflections that his use of L1 was obstructed by his low proficiency in L1 and the LEP of the PYP towards L1 which led him to permit students to use L1 instead of using it himself.

5.3 Repetitive function

This section will review the second function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (repetitive function). This section will mainly focus on the use of this function by the teachers of L2 in stating information in one language and repeating the same information in the other language. I found several instances of this function in the classes of two of the participants (Ahmed and Hamza) and one instance in the classes of John. Steve did not use this function because he did not speak his students' L1. As a result of word and space limitations of this study, two extracts from Ahmed and Hamzas' classes will be discussed in this section in addition to the extract from John's classes. The extracts of every participant are grouped together. Ahmed and Hamzas' reflections will be added to the concerned extract or reviewed after discussing their extracts. Ahmed and Hamzas' sections are relatively long. Therefore, their extracts will be followed by a summary of the major findings from their classes to keep readers on track. A summary of the major findings from the participants will be reviewed at the end of this section.

5.3.1 Ahmed's classes

This section will discuss two extracts of the repetitive function from Ahmed's classes where this function was used in all the four observed sessions.

Extract

1   Ahmed: و <and> are. OK? So, **we don't have problems with making the sentences negative. ما عندي**
2   **مشكلة، إذاً، في تحويل الجملة إلى صيغة <I don't, then, have a problem in changing the sentence into the**
3   **form of>?**
4   AS1: negative
5   Ahmed: ال <the> negative. Who can make these sentences negative? The first one is done for you by
6   Saad. He isn't writing on the board now. He isn't writing on the board now. What about number two?
7   Yes, please?
8   AS2: … They are… not.
9   Ahmed: They are not. Thank you!... They are not. This is the long form. Can you, please, give it to me
10   using the short form?
11   AS1: aren't
12   Ahmed: Aren't. Thank you! They aren't learning English at the moment. They aren't learning English
13   at the moment. So, you can use long form or short form. Both are correct. OK? I'm listening to the
14   teacher now. I'm listening to the teacher now. How can I make this sentence negative? Can you? Yes?
15   AS1: … I am not I am not listening to the teacher now.
16   Ahmed: Thank you! I am not listening to the teacher now or [knocking on the board] I'm not listening
17   to the teacher now. **We don't have a short form for am and not. ما عندي صيغة إختصار ل <I don't have**
18   **a short form for> am مع <with> not. OK? We don't have it in English. We can't say amn't… We**
19   **can't say amn't. This is incorrect. OK? غير موجودة في اللغة الإنجليزية. لا توجد في اللغة الإنجليزية. هذي خاطئة.**
20   **<This is incorrect. It doesn't exist in the English language. It doesn't exist in the English**
21   **language>.**

Ahmed was explaining to his students how to turn affirmative sentences in the present continuous tense into negative sentences. In line 1, Ahmed highlighted the flexibility of turning the affirmative sentences in the present continuous tense into negative. Ahmed used L1 in lines 1 to 3 to repeat this information. In line 17, Ahmed asserted that the auxiliary verb *am* and the adverb *not* cannot constitute a short form together and, then, he repeated the same information using L1 in lines 17 and 18. Ahmed, in lines 18 and 19, paraphrased this information again several times using L2 and he used L1 to repeat this information in lines 19 to 21. This extract shows Ahmed's use of L1 to repeat the information that he already stated using L2. This extract indicates Ahmed's use of L1 to highlight significant information about L2 grammar. Ahmed stated significant information three times in lines 18 and 19 using L2. Nonetheless, Ahmed repeated the same information using L1 without any signal of misunderstanding or a

question by his students when he used L2. Students did not use L1 in this extract. Ahmed in this extract disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using L1 to perform the repetitive function.

Extract

1   Ahmed: Thank you! أزهار <flowers> flowers أزهار <flowers>. OK? Now, look at the picture and find…
2   these things. Look at the picture and find these things. In two or… Sorry! In one minute in one minute,
3   **take a look take a look to the picture and try to find these things. أنظر. خذ أو خذ لك نظرة على الصورة**
4   **...الصورة في موجودة .الآن معانيها كتبتهم ...كتبناها الي الكلمات تجد وحاول للصورة** <**Take or take a look at the**
5   **picture. Look at the picture and try to find the words that we wrote… you wrote their meanings**
6   **now. They exist in the picture>.**

Ahmed was instructing his students to do a task from the textbook that involved matching between pictures and their names. Ahmed in lines 1 to 3 provided instructions to his students about the task and repeated them again twice. After this, Ahmed repeated the same instructions using L1in lines 3 to 6. Ahmed used L1 to repeat his instructions within the same utterance without any signal of misunderstanding by his students or any student asking him to repeat his instructions. This extract reveals Ahmed's use L1 to provide instructions to his students. Students did not interact with Ahmed in this extract. Ahmed commented in his reflections about repeating his instructions in L1 that 'sometimes I use this way to control the time of my class because I have to accomplish the objectives. So, I need to distribute the information to all the students that I have. I know that not all the students can understand what I said in English. So, I translate it into Arabic to be sure that all of the students have got the meaning.' This points out that Ahmed felt that using L1 in repeating his instructions would save the class's time and would assist in assuring that all the students comprehended his instructions. Ahmed argued in his reflections that he preferred repeating his instructions in L1 'because at that time from 12:00 to 02:00, you can see that some of the students cannot focus during the class. They are tired, some of them just want to sleep, yeah. So, the interference in the class is very weak. So, I have to do that and repeat it several times in order to let

them Wake-up, yeah, or be with me in the environment of teaching.' This indicates that Ahmed sensed that using L1 in repeating his instructions would assist in attracting his students' attention. Ahmed did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract through using L1 to repeat his instructions that were already stated in L2 several times.

5.3.1.1 Main findings from Ahmed's classes

This section reviewed two extracts from Ahmed's classes. Ahmed used the repetitive function in this section to repeat information using L1 that he already stated in L2 without any signal of misunderstanding or a request by his students. Ahmed used the repetitive function to highlight significant information during teaching L2 grammar. In addition, Ahmed used this function to repeat his instructions of a task. Ahmed hypothesised in his reflections that using L1 in repeating his instructions would save time, improve students' comprehension and attract students' attention. Ahmed's students did not use L1 in the first extract and they did not interact with him in the second extract. Ahmed's extracts in this section showed that he disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using the repetitive function.

5.3.2 Hamza's classes

The repetitive function was used by Hamza in three of the observed sessions. This section will evaluate two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 Hamza: Now, number four, **use the past continuous to focus on the duration of an action, not its**
2 **completion.** إذاً... الماضي المستمر إذا إستخدمناه، بالإنجليزي طبعاً. إحنا ماعندنا بالعربي أصلاً منه، إحنا نركز على
3 <**Therefore… The past continuous if we use it, in the English language of course. We do not have**
4 **it in the Arabic language in the first place, we focus on**> duration متى أو متى إنتهى على وليس الحدث وقت
5 **the duration of the event and not** بدء. دائماً في الماضي المستمر مايهمنا متى بدء العمل الساعة كم والساعة كم ينتهي
6 **on when it started or when it finished. We are always, in the past continuous, not interested in**
7 **what time the action started and what time it finished>.** Look at this.

Hamza was discussing the past continuous tense with his students. Hamza in lines 1 and 2 read grammatical information from the textbook about focusing on the duration of the action in the past continuous tense. Then, Hamza used L1 to repeat this information in lines 2 to 7. However, instead of providing literal translation of this information, Hamza explained this information using L1 stressing that the past continuous tense did not exist in his students' L1 and attracting students' attention to the fact that the past continuous tense concentrates on the duration of the action. This extract indicates Hamza's use of the repetitive function to repeat significant information to his students about the past continuous tense. Hamza did not provide literal translation of the information that he read in L2, but he explained this information using L1. Hamza used L1 to translate the grammatical terminology past continuous. This extract reveals that Hamza did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 by using the repetitive function to repeat significant information about L2 grammar.

Extract

1	AS1: While the dentist… was cleaning the patient's… teeth, his assistant was… suctioning.
2	Hamza: OK! **While the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth** ينظف الأسنان طبيب كان بينما ،إذاً **So,**>
3	**while the dentist was cleaning>,**
4	AS2: عليكم السلام <Islamic greeting> [Entering the class].
5	Hamza: وبركاته الله ورحمة السلام وعليكم> <Reply to Islamic greeting>.
6	AS2: I'm sorry teacher.
7	Hamza: OK! It's OK. So, **while the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth,** ينظف الأسنان طبيب كان بينما
8	أسنان المريض. شغال هو قاعد ينظف... أسنان المريض شغال> **While the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth.**
9	**He is working cleaning… the patient's teeth working>. This is a continuous action in the past.**
10	المساعد أو عمل مستمر في لحظة الماضي> <**continuous action in the moment of the past>. His assistant…**
11	المساعدة> <**his assistant male or female> was suck suck.**

Hamza was reviewing examples from the textbook to compare and clarify the differences between the simple past tense and the past continuous tense in the English language with help from his students. A student was reading a sentence in the past continuous tense in line 1 that consisted of two clauses. Hamza in lines 2 and 3 read the first clause of this sentence again and he repeated it using L1. Hamza read the first clause again in line 7. Hamza repeated the first clause using L1 in lines 7 to 9 and he

also explained it using L1. Hamza in lines 9 and 10 asserted using L2 that this clause was in the past continuous tense and he repeated this information using L1. Hamza started to read the second clause of this sentence in lines 10 and 11 through mentioning the subject of this clause and he repeated this subject using L1. Hamza in this extract used L1 to explain L2 grammar without his students asking him to do so. Hamza used the repetitive function to repeat information that he stated using L2 and to illustrate this information. Hamza in this extract disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in his explanation of L2 grammar.

Hamza commented in his reflections about using L1 to repeat some sentences in the past continuous tense that 'I wanted to show them that even if they translate the sentence into Arabic this will not help them.' Hamza added that 'it has to be from English and not translating. That is why… here translating it is not translating to translate it in order to teach or to let them understand the meaning of the sentence. No, it is translating to show them that this even if you translate it, it will not help you. No need to translate. I am translating now. Does this translation help you in understanding the usage of past continuous? Of course not, so do not use it.' Hamza claimed that he tended to repeat some of the sentences in the past continuous tense to prove to his students that using L1 in understanding the past continuous tense would not assist them in accomplishing anything.

5.3.2.1 Main findings from Hamza's classes

This section analysed two extracts from Hamza's classes. Hamza used the repetitive function during teaching L2 grammar. L1 was used in the two extracts to teach the past continuous tense. Hamza used L1 to translate grammatical terminologies. Hamza tended not to provide literal translation of the information that he stated in L2, but he

usually explained the information using L1. Hamza proposed in his reflections that he repeated some of the sentences in L1 to show his students that L1 was not useful in learning L2 grammar. Students did not use the repetitive function in Hamza's extracts. Hamza's extracts revealed that he did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in his use of L1.

5.3.3 John's classes

This section will explore the only extract that I found of using the repetitive function by John in his classes.

Extract
1 John: OK! It is break time. So, we… We'll go through the answers after break. If you have your
2 homework, please can you bring it to me, so I can mark it… Just to tell you the final… The final! The
3 mid-level exam. The mid-level exam is on Monday next week. That's the 16th of February at 8:00 am
4 eight o'clock in the morning. OK?
5 AS1: Next week?
6 John: Yes.
7 AS1: Where?
8 John: Monday
9 AS1: Teacher! Where?
10 John: Where? I… I don't know yet. You'll have to check your… system.
11 AS2: Website?
12 John: Yeah.
13 AS2: OK!
14 AS3: (XXXX)
15 John: Sorry!
16 AS3: (XXXX)
17 John: Maybe, it could be this building. It could be another building. It could be **humanities** إنسانية
18 **<humanities>**. It could be.

John was announcing an upcoming mid-term exam to his students in this extract. John in lines 17 and 18 predicted that the location of the exam was in the building where they were studying or in a different building such as the building of the humanities department and he repeated the possibility of conducting the exam in the humanities building using L1. This extract reveals John's use of the repetitive function to repeat a possible location of an exam to his students. John in this extract ignored the LEP of the

PYP towards L1 through using L1 to repeat a possible location of an up-coming exam even though his students did not ask him for clarification.

5.3.4 Section summary

The second function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (repetitive function) was discussed in this section. This section focused on the use of this function by the teachers of L2 through stating information in one language and repeating the same information in the other language. Instances of this function were found in the classes of three of the participants (Ahmed, Hamza and John). Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) and Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) remark that teachers of L2 tend to use the repetitive function to clarify information. Mujiono, et al. (2013) and Then and Ting (2011) assert that this function assists teachers of L2 in bridging students' comprehension gaps. The exception to this is Steve who did not use this function because he did not speak his students' L1.

Ahmed, in his first extract, and Hamza, in both of his extracts, used the repetitive function during teaching L2 grammar. Yletyinen (2004) reported that teachers of L2 used this function during teaching L2 grammar. Hamza used L1 to translate L2 grammatical terminology while he argued in his reflections that he used the repetitive function to demonstrate to his students that L1 would not assist them in understanding L2 grammar. Ahmed, in his second extract, used L1 to repeat a task's instructions and he indicated in his reflections that this would save time, attract students' attention and improve their comprehension. Greggio and Gil (2007), Kim and Elders (2008) and others discovered that teachers of L2 used code-switching during giving and clarifying tasks' instructions. Liu, et al. (2004) emphasise that code-switching improves students' comprehension of complex materials and saves the time of the class. John used the

repetitive function to suggest a possible location of an upcoming exam. Ahmed and John tended to state the information in L2 and repeat them in L1 whereas Hamza tended to re-explain the information using L1 instead of providing literal translation. Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) reveal that the use of the repetitive function could be partial or full.

In the reviewed extracts of this section, Ahmed, Hamza and Johns' students did not use the repetitive function. Walsh (2002) declares that tasks have crucial impact on teachers and learners' use of language.

The three participants in this section (Ahmed, Hamza and John) disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in their use of the repetitive function, but they varied in their degrees of disregard.

5.4 Equivalence function

The third function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (equivalence function) will be explored in this section. Several instances of this function were discovered in the classes of the four participants (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve). Teachers and/or students used this function to provide equivalences of vocabulary items in L1. However, due to space and word limitations of this study, two extracts from every participant will be analysed in this section. The extracts of every participant are grouped together. The reflections of the participants will either be added to the concerned extract or explored after discussing their extracts. It has to be highlighted that this is a relatively long section. Thus, to keep readers on track, the extracts from every participant will be followed by a summary of the major findings from his classes. At the end of this section, a summary of the major findings from all the participants will be explored.

5.4.1 Ahmed's classes

In Ahmed's classes, the equivalence function was used in all the four observed sessions. Two extracts of this function will be explored in this section.

Extract

1 Ahmed: Yes. OK! A football a football… What does it mean a football?
2 AS1: ‹**football**› كرة قدم …
3 Ahmed: كرة قدم ‹**football**›. Thank you!... Kite?
4 AS2: اسم انسان ‹**A human's name**›.
5 Ahmed: No.
6 AS3: سلة ‹**Basket**›
7 Ahmed: سلة ‹**Basket**›? No.
8 AS4: … الي هي وش اسمه! مظلة بس كبيرة ‹**That is what its name! An umbrella, but a big one**›.
9 Ahmed: No.
10 AS5: الطائرة الورقية ‹**The kite**›
11 Ahmed: … Sorry?
12 AS5: طائرة ورقية ‹**Kite**›
13 Ahmed: Thank you very much! Thank you! Excellent! Kite الطائرة الورقية ‹**The Kite**› Kite… trainers?

Ahmed was doing a task with help from his students. The task was a matching exercise between pictures of things and their names before forming questions about these things using the interrogative pronoun *whose*. In line 1, Ahmed asked students about the meaning of a noun. A student in line 2 used L1 to state the equivalence of this noun in L1. Ahmed in line 3 repeated this student's answer using L1 and asked his students about the meaning of another noun. A second student used L1 in line 4 to provide an incorrect equivalence. A third student provided another incorrect equivalence using L1 in line 6. In line 7, Ahmed used L1 to provide a confirmation check. A fourth student used L1 to suggest a new incorrect answer in line 8 and Ahmed disagreed with him in line 9. A fifth student used L1 in line 10 to provide the correct equivalence. Ahmed used a request for clarification in line 11. The fifth student used L1 to repeat the correct equivalence in line 12. Ahmed used L1 to repeat the fifth student's answer in line 13. Ahmed and five different students used L1 in this extract. This extract highlights Ahmed's disregard of his students' use of L1 to provide the equivalence of vocabulary items and he also repeated his students' answers even when their answers were not

correct. Although the task had pictures of these nouns, Ahmed asked his students about the meaning of these nouns and he permitted them to use the equivalence function in providing the meanings. Ahmed reported in his reflections that he used the equivalence function as a result of his feeling that 'I have to use Arabic in fact because the level that we are teaching here is not after the definitions of words in English. The students do not have… dictionaries English/English dictionaries. They do not use dictionaries at all and the book itself does not have any kind of definitions. The word and its definition in English.' This highlights that Ahmed may have sensed that his students' proficiency level in L2 was too low to be using L2 definitions of the vocabulary items. In addition, Ahmed argued that students did not have access to facilities such as dictionaries that would assist them in understanding the meaning of the vocabulary items. This extract highlights that Ahmed did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that he used L1 and permitted his students to use it.

Extract

1   AS: What's the meaning teacher mine?
2   Ahmed: Mine <لي. شوف الفرق في المعنى في اللغة العربية> **mine. Look at the difference in meaning in the**
3   **Arabic language>**. Thank you! **My marker** قلمي **<my marker>** mine لي **<mine>**. OK?

Ahmed was reviewing the personal pronouns, possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns in the English language with his students. A student in line 1 asked Ahmed about the meaning of the possessive pronoun *mine*. In lines 2 and 3, Ahmed used L1 to provide an equivalence of this possessive pronoun. Ahmed asked his students in these lines using L1 to notice the difference between L1 and L2 in their use of the possessive adjectives and the possessive pronouns. Then, Ahmed in line 3 provided two examples of a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun through stating them using L2 first and then uttering their equivalences using L1. This extract illustrates Ahmed's use of the equivalence function to provide equivalences of the English language possessive pronouns and possessive adjectives. Although the student in line 1 asked Ahmed the

question using L2, Ahmed used both L1 and L2 in lines 2 and 3 to answer this question. Ahmed in this extract did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that he used L1 to provide the equivalences of a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun.

5.4.1.1 Main findings from Ahmed's classes

This section analysed two extracts from Ahmed's classes. Extracts from Ahmed's classes indicated that he used L1 and permitted his students to use it for the equivalence function. Ahmed used L1 to repeat his students' answers even when they were not correct and to provide equivalences of a possessive adjective and a possessive pronoun. Ahmed permitted his students to use L1 in the first extract of this section. Students used L1 to provide equivalences of vocabulary items even though they had pictures of them in the textbook. Ahmed suggested in his reflections that he permitted his students to use L1 because their L2 proficiency was low and they did not have access to dictionaries. The extracts from Ahmed's classes in this section pointed out that he disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using L1 and permitting his students to use it.

5.4.2 Hamza's classes

The equivalence function was used in two sessions of Hamza's classes. This section will study two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 Hamza: has. Alright! So, number six is… has. OK! So, it's has. Fine! What else?
2 AS: … number twelve
3 Hamza: Twelve?
4 AS: **meet… meet يقابل <meet>**
5 Hamza: Meet? Alright! Meet [writing on board] … **So, you want to make sure that I understood the**
6 **meaning of meet that's why you gave me the meaning in Arabic. I don't need the meaning in**
7 **Arabic.**

Hamza was doing a task with help from his students in this extract. The task consisted of an email that had several gaps and students had to select the appropriate option to fill

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in the gaps. In line 4, a student provided his suggestion for one of the gaps using L2. Then, there was a break in the flow of the speech. It is possible that this break resulted from Hamza not being able to hear or understand this student's suggestion. This student repeated his suggestion again in the same line using L2 and provided an equivalence of it using L1. However, Hamza in lines 5 to 7 revealed his disapproval of this student's use of L1. In these lines, Hamza informed this student that he did not need to use L1 to provide an equivalence of his suggestion even though Hamza anticipated that this student used it to be certain that his answer was comprehended. This extract suggests that Hamza did not support his students' use of the equivalence function to provide equivalences of vocabulary items. Hamza did not explicitly ban his student from using L1, but he informed this student that he did not need to use it. Hamza commented in his reflections about his students use of L1 that 'I… do not want to give anyone or any student a chance to speak in Arabic in my class. Why? Because if I gave them a chance to speak in Arabic, then it will be a habit for them to break it and speak in Arabic trying to get out of the bondage of the language. So,… I try not to give anyone or any chance to speak in their own native language.' This indicates that Hamza tended to be strict with his students' use of L1 through discouraging them from using it. This extract reveals Hamza's implementation of the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through reminding his students that L1 should not be used.

Extract

1   Hamza: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <Reply to Islamic greeting>. Was sleeping [writing on the board].
2   It's the same, yeah. It's the same the same idea, but the style is different. Here we have used while and
3   here we have used what? When. **While بينما <while>, when عندما <when>.** If you want to… just to…
4   equivalent of the meaning **while بينما <while> and when عندما <when>.**

Hamza was explaining to his students how to use the conjunction words *while* and *when* in the past continuous tense. In line 3, Hamza provided equivalences of these conjunction words using L1. Then, Hamza in line 4 repeated the equivalences of these

two conjunction words for the second time using L1. This extract reveals that Hamza used L1 twice to provide equivalences of two conjunction words from the English language without a request by his students. This extract shows that Hamza used the equivalence function when he was explaining L2 grammar. Hamza remarked in his reflections about this extract that 'I found from my experience that translating these particular words and not the sentence. This will help students and it helped our student to understand the meaning or even the usage from my experience… That is why I use this one deliberately in Arabic. Yeah, because I use this one in Arabic and they could understand the usage of while and when with… past continuous'. Hamza believed that he relied on his teaching experience to translate these two conjunction words because students would need to know their meaning in L1. Hamza in this extract did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 even though his students did not ask him about the meaning of these conjunction words.

5.4.2.1 Main findings from Hamza's classes

This section reviewed two extracts from Hamza's classes. A student used L1 in the first extract to provide an equivalence during answering a task item, but Hamza remarked that this student should not have used L1. Hamza used L1 in the second extract to provide equivalences of two conjunction words. Students did not interact with Hamza in the second extract. The extracts of Hamza in this section highlighted that he tended to be relatively strict about his students' use of L1 in the first extract whereas he did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in the second extract.

5.4.3 John's classes

The equivalence function was used in all the four observed sessions of John. This section will analyse two extracts of this function.

Extract

1 John: Palace, palace, yeah?... So, this one we can just swap the words round. Al-Bustan Palace is
2 smaller than Claridge's. **What's the meaning of palace?**
3 AS: قصر **<palace>**
4 John: قصر **<palace>**, yeah.

John was doing a true/false task with his students where they had to correct the false sentences. The task was about using comparatives and superlatives between three different hotels. John asked his students about the meaning of the noun *palace* in line 2. A student in line 3 used L1 to provide an equivalence of the questioned noun. John used L1 to repeat this student's answer in line 4 to declare his acceptance of it. In this extract, a student used the equivalence function to provide an equivalence of a noun. John did not ask his students to use L1. However, John did not ban his student from using L1 and he used it to repeat this student's suggestion to show his agreement with him. John revealed in his reflections his main objective of asking students about the meaning of some words. John said that 'I was just looking for a quick check if you did not know the word, you just had it from him. So, now you know what this word is'. This reveals that John felt that the equivalence function would teach students about the meaning of some of the vocabulary items. John in this extract did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that he did not ban his student from using L1 even though John did not ask his students to use it.

Extract

1 John: page eighty. So, we have wood. What's the meaning of wood?
2 Ss: خشب **<the hard fibrous material that forms the main substance of the trunk or branches of a**
3 **tree or shrub, used for fuel or timber>**.
4 John: **No, that's the material like…, you know, plastic wood. What's? This word is different. It**
5 **means like many many trees…**
6 Ss: (XXXX) غابة **<wood or forest>**.

7 John: غابة <**wood or forest**>, yeah? Like غابة <**wood or forest**>… So, **this thing here [pointing at a**
8 **picture in the textbook]**, yeah?

John was doing a matching task with his students. This task consisted of names of things

that students had to guess whether they would probably be located in cities, countries

or both. John in line 1 asked his students about the meaning of the noun *wood*. A group

of students in lines 2 and 3 used L1 to provide the incorrect equivalence of this noun

according to the context of the task. John in lines 4 and 5 provided metalinguistic

feedback to inform his students that they suggested the incorrect equivalence and he

used a speech modification technique to describe the meaning of the noun *wood*. Then,

a group of students in line 6 used L1 to provide the correct equivalence of this noun. In

line 7, John used L1 to repeat his students' answer twice. In lines 7 and 8, John showed

his students a picture of a wood in the textbook. In this extract, John used L2 to show

his disagreement with an incorrect L1 equivalence that was provided by a group of his

students and to describe the meaning of a noun. On the other hand, John used L1 twice

to reveal his agreement with an L1 equivalence that was suggested by another group of

his students. John in this extract did not ask his students to use the equivalence function,

but he did not ban them from using it. John used L1 only to repeat a suggestion that

was provided by a group of his students. John reported in his reflections about this

extract that 'fortunately, I had the visual technique easily coming to, but I suppose I…

[fff sound]. In the context of the other things in the box, they maybe should have

realised that it was not going to be خشب < the hard fibrous material that forms the main

substance of the trunk or branches of a tree or shrub, used for fuel or timber >, but

without the context it is obviously the answer they gave me is a good answer.' This

indicates that John felt that the picture of the questioned noun assisted him in explaining

its meaning. This highlights the difficulties that John may sometimes encounter in

explaining the meaning of some vocabulary items due to his students' low proficiency

in L2 and his low proficiency in their L1. This extract highlights that John did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that led his students to use L1 without seeking his permission.

John commented on his reflections about his approach to teaching L2 vocabulary. John revealed that 'my criterion is that I am open to them trying anyway that they can to show that they know the meaning… and if they give me… in English, I will not say OK! But yeah what is the Arabic word. Well, I usually will not unless I think the other people do not understand what he just said… So, if he had replied to me instantly. It means when I give something of my contemporary period in perfect English I would have accepted that unless I thought nobody else will understand what you just said. Give me an Arabic word as well… but it like when you reply to me in Arabic and I know the word in Arabic, fine… That means everybody in the room knows now because they all know the word… If I do not know the word, I need more. Give me an example or something like that. So, I do not think I tend to specify what is the meaning give in English? What is the meaning give me in Arabic? I wait for what they give me and I say yeah fine, but I do not know that word. Or yeah, that is fine.' This points out that John would ask his student to use the equivalence function whenever he felt that the other students did not understand the meaning of a word in L2. On the other hand, John indicated that he would ask his students to use L2 to provide a meaning or an example of a word if he did not understand the L1 equivalence that they may suggest. This shows that John believed that L1 has a vital role in teaching L2 vocabulary.

5.4.3.1 Main findings from John's classes

Two extracts from John's classes were analysed in this section. John did not use the equivalence function and he did not ask his students to use it, but his students used this

function in the two extracts. John did not ban his student from using L1 in the two

extracts and he repeated their suggestions. John in his reflections revealed that he would

permit his students to use the equivalence function if he felt that there were some

students who did not understand a word. Nevertheless, John emphasised that he would

ask his students to use L2 if he was not familiar with their L1 answers. John's extracts

in this section showed that he did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through

disregarding his students' use of L1 even if he did not ask them to use it.

5.4.4 Steve's classes

The equivalence function was used in all the observed sessions of Steve. This section

will explore two extracts to analyse this function.

Extract

1	Steve: OK! You don't know sneeze?
2	Ss: No… Yes
3	Steve: You know sneeze?
4	Ss: Yes.
5	Steve: Good! **How do you say sneeze in Arabic?**
6	Ss: عطسة **<sneeze> [Some students are pretending to sneeze.]**
7	Steve: OK! You know sneeze. You know win?

In this extract, Steve, with help from his students, was doing a matching task between

pictures and verbs that described these pictures. Steve was checking his students'

knowledge of the meanings of these verbs before starting the task. In line 5, Steve asked

his students about the equivalence of the verb *sneeze* in L1. A group of students in line

6 provided the equivalence of this verb in L1 while some students acted like sneezing

to show their understanding of this verb. In line 7, Steve agreed that his students were

familiar with this verb. This extract shows Steve asking his students to use the

equivalence function to provide the equivalence of a verb even though he did not speak

his students' L1. A group of students used L1 to provide the equivalence of the

questioned verb. However, it seems that some of the students were aware that Steve did

not speak their L1 that led them to act like they were sneezing to show him their familiarity with the meaning of this verb. Steve probably asked his students about the L1 equivalence of this verb to test their knowledge about it and he may have anticipated that if a student did not provide the correct equivalence, his colleagues would correct him. Steve revealed in his reflections that he asked his students this question because 'I do not waist too much time on things they already know'. This shows that Steve felt that his students were familiar with this verb and he wanted to do a quick check that they understood it to save time. Steve did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract that he asked his students to use the equivalence function.

Extract

1	Steve: Umm! You don't know journalist?
2	Ss: Yes.
3	AS1: صحفي **<journalist>**
4	AS2: **the message**
5	AS3: نعم **<Yes>?**
6	AS1: صحفي **<journalist>**
7	Ss: in the newspaper
8	Steve: Yeah, so, they…
9	AS2: write
10	Steve: They write for…
11	AS2: Yeah, the newspaper
12	Steve: the newspaper. OK!... Umm! Interpreter?

Steve was doing a task with help from his students in this extract. The task was a vocabulary match and all its items consisted mainly of two sentences. The first sentence described a skill that a person in the sentence was good at and students had to predict the future job of this person that would match his skill. Before beginning the task, Steve wanted to check his students' familiarity with the provided jobs. Steve asked his students in line 1 if they knew the noun *journalist*. A student in line 3 used L1 to provide an equivalence of this noun while a second student in line 4 attempted to define the noun *journalist* using L2. A third student used L1 in line 5 to provide a request for clarification to ask the first student to repeat the L1 equivalence that he suggested. The first student used L1 in line 6 again to answer the third student's request. This extract

highlights a student's use of the equivalence function in line 3 and two students interacted using L1 in lines 5 and 6 without any comment from Steve or banning his students from using L1. Although Steve did not use L1 in this extract because he did not speak it, he did not ban his students from using it. Steve in this extract was not strict with the LEP of the PYP towards using L1 through disregarding his students' use of L1.

5.4.4.1 Main findings from Steve's classes

This section reviewed two extracts from Steve's classes. Steve did not use L1 in his extracts because he did not speak it. Nonetheless, Steve asked his students to use L1 to provide an equivalence of an L2 verb in the first extract. It is possible that Steve asked his students to use the equivalence function to check their familiarity with the questioned verb. In addition, Steve may have predicted that the other students would correct their colleague if he did not suggest the correct equivalence. A group of students used L1 to provide the equivalence of a verb in the first extract, but another group of students acted like they were sneezing to show Steve their familiarity with this verb. Steve revealed in his reflections that he asked his students for the equivalence because he was trying to save the class's time and he sensed that the students were already familiar with the questioned verb. One of Steve's students used the equivalence function in the second extract without any comment from Steve who only interacted with students who used L2. The extracts in this section indicated that Steve did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that he permitted his students to use it.

5.4.5 Section summary

In this section, the third function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (equivalence function) was reviewed. All the participants (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve) used this function and/or permitted their students to use it to provide equivalences of vocabulary items in L1. Moore (2002) and Nation (2003) point out that it is possible for L1 to facilitate teaching vocabulary items that may be beyond the capabilities of the learners.

Three of the participants (Ahmed, Hamza and John) used the equivalence function themselves. Cipriani (2001), Copland and Neokleous (2011) and others revealed that it is a common practice for the teachers of L2 to use L1 in clarifying vocabulary meanings. On the other hand, Steve did not use this function himself because he did not speak his students' L1. Ahmed used this function in one of his extracts when a student asked him about the meaning of a vocabulary item whereas Hamza used it in one of his extracts without a request by his students. Hamza asserted in his reflections that his experience taught him that the equivalence function should be used to clarify some vocabulary items. Hall and Cook (2012) and McMillan and Rivers (2011) report that teachers' beliefs towards the use of L1 are influenced by their professional teaching experiences.

Ahmed, John and Steve did not ban their students from using the equivalence function. Atkinson (1987) supports allowing students to use L1 in providing the meaning of vocabulary items. Ahmed, in one of his extracts, and John, in both of his extracts, did not initiate the use of L1, but they used it to repeat their students' suggestions. Steve asked his students to use this function even though he did not speak their L1. However, his students were aware that Steve was not able to speak their L1 because they demonstrated the questioned vocabulary item to show him that they were familiar with it. Steve may have predicted that the other students would repair any incorrect

suggestions that a student may provide. Steve anticipated in his reflections that this function was useful in saving time through checking students' understanding of familiar vocabulary. Atkinson (1987) contends that using L1 assists in saving the class's time. Steve's students used this function in one of the extracts among themselves. John contended in his reflections that this function was beneficial for his students' learning of L2. Ahmed and John revealed in their reflections that the equivalence function was useful to overcome students' low proficiency in L2. Ahmed argued in his reflections that this function would provide a useful substitute for students' lack of access to dictionaries. However, John commented in his reflections that he would ask his students to use L2 if he could not comprehend their L1. On the other hand, Hamza advised one of his students not to use the equivalence function and indicated in his reflections that he did not support his students' use of this function.

All the participants disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this section by using the equivalence function and/or permitting their students to use it in varying degrees. Ahmed did not follow this policy by using this function and permitted his students to use it. Although Hamza was relatively strict about his students' use of this function in one of the extracts, he ignored this policy in the other extract. John disregarded this policy in ignoring his students' use of this function and in repeating their suggestions. Steve did not implement this policy through asking and ignoring his students' use of this function.

5.5 Classroom management function

This section will review the fourth function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (classroom management function). Several instances of this function were discovered in the classes of Ahmed and one instance was detected in the classes of John. This

function was used in the classrooms of Ahmed and John during management of their classrooms. I did not find instances of this function in the classes of the other two participants (Hamza and Steve). Due to word and space limitations, this section will explore one extract from Ahmed's classes as an example of this function in addition to discussing the extract from John's classes. Ahmed's reflections will be reviewed within my analysis of his extract. This section will conclude with a summary of the major findings from the participants' extracts.

5.5.1 Ahmed's classes

The classroom management function was used in three of Ahmed's sessions and this section will analyse one extract of this function.

Extract

1 AS: دكتور! أبي أسألك سؤال <**Doctor! I would like to ask you a question**>.
2 Ahmed: أي، تفضل <**Yes, go ahead**>.
3 AS: الخميس الجاي في <**Next Thursday, is there a**> quiz ولا الي بعده <**or the one after it**>?
4 Ahmed: لا، الخميس الجاي مافي <**No, there will not be any next Thursday**>… There won't be a quiz this
5 week. There won't be a quiz this week. OK?

Ahmed was about to end his class. A student in line 1 used L1 to ask Ahmed for permission to ask a question and Ahmed used L1 in line 2 to give this student permission. In line 3, this student used L1 to ask about the day of the next quiz. Ahmed contended using L1 that they were not going to have a quiz in that week and he repeated this information twice using L2 in lines 4 and 5. Ahmed and one of his students used L1 in this extract to discuss the day of an upcoming quiz. A student initiated the question using L1 and Ahmed did not ban him from using L1. Ahmed remarked in his reflections that he would permit his students to use L1 in initiating interactions with him. Ahmed reported that when students 'say أستاذ <teacher>, the first… idea that comes to my mind that he will ask me to leave the class maybe to the bathroom, to the toilet. So, some of the students find this difficult to ask in English and maybe the case is

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urgent, so he just want to leave. So, I… accept it in Arabic. If it is for something which is related to our lesson, I ask him to speak in English, but for the first time, OK I accept it in Arabic to know what he wants.' However, this extract shows that a student used L1 to initiate an interaction with Ahmed and Ahmed permitted this student to continue his interaction with him using L1. Ahmed did not ask this student to use L2 and Ahmed used both L1 and L2 in his interaction with this student. This extract indicates that Ahmed used the classroom management function to manage his classroom. Ahmed disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract by using L1 and permitting one of his students to use it.

5.5.2 John's classes

This section will analyse the only extract of using the classroom management function in John's classes.

Extract
1 John: OK! Number… five. Can we have Waleed, please? The first sentence.
2 AS: اقرأ **<Shall I read>?**
3 John: **Yeah.**

John was doing a task with help from his students. In line 1, John asked a particular student to answer one of the task items. This student used L1 in line 2 to check the task item that John wanted him to answer. John in line 3 confirm the task item that he was referring to. This extract is an example of the classroom management function because John disregarded one of his student's use of L1 during his management of the classroom. A student used L1 to ask about the task item that John wanted him to answer whereas John used L2 to answer this student's inquiry. John did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that he did not ban his students from using L1.

5.5.3 Section summary

This section analysed the classroom management function which was the fourth function of code-switching between L1 and L2. This function was used in the classes of two of the participants (Ahmed and John) during management of their classrooms. Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) and Uys and Dulm (2011) observed that teachers of L2 frequently used code-switching for classroom management. On the other hand, the other two participants (Hamza and Steve) did not use this function. Nation (2003) supports using L2 for classroom management.

Ahmed and his students used L1 while a student only used L1 in John's extract. In Ahmed's extract, a student initiated the use of L1. Ahmed postulated in his reflections that he would allow his students to initiate interactions with him using L1 because it may be about something irrelevant to the lesson and he would ask them to use L2 if it was related to the lesson. Nonetheless, Ahmed continued his interaction with a student in L1 in his extract about an upcoming quiz. Polio and Duff (1994) and Yletyinen (2004) highlight that teachers of L2 may use L1 as a reaction to the use of L1 by their students. Franklin (1990) contends that teachers tend to be tempted to use L1 in their classroom management when they share an L1 with their students. In John's extract, a student used L1 to ask a question, but John used L2 to answer it.

In this section, both Ahmed and John did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in varying degrees. Ahmed ignored this policy in his management of the classroom whereas John disregarded this policy in his permission for students to use L1.

5.6 Affective function

The fifth function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (affective function) will be discussed in this section. I found one example of this function in the classes of Ahmed

and two examples in the classes of Hamza. Ahmed and Hamza used this function to express their emotions. This function was not used in the classes of John and Steve. This section will investigate the extract from Ahmed's classes and one of the extracts from Hamza's classes. At the end of this section, a summary of the major findings from the two participants will be highlighted.

5.6.1 Ahmed's classes

This section will explore the only extract of the affective function from Ahmed's classes.

Extract

1	Ahmed: إذاً <Therefore,> we have these verbs in the present continuous. جت الأفعال عندي هذي في زمن ال >I
2	have these verbs in the tense of the> present continuous. Why? Because we have an action and these
3	verbs describe this action. النشاط أو الحدث الي <these verbs described the> activity الأفعال هذي وصفت ال
4	موجود في الجملة <the activity or the action that exists in the sentence>. OK!
5	AS: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting> [Entering the class].
6	Ahmed: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله. **حيا الله زايد** <Reply to Islamic greeting. **Welcome, Zayed**>
7	AS: **أنا كنت عند السكرتير مشوين** <**I was at the secretary's office moments ago**>.
8	Ahmed: أي، مافي مشكلة. توكل على الله. حياك الله <**Yes, no problem. Trust in God. Welcome**>. OK! Now,
9	مين يقدر يعطيني ال... ال... الأفعال الموجودة هنا <Who can
10	give me the… the… the verbs that exists here> in a full correct sentence?

In this extract, Ahmed was discussing a task with his students. A student entered the class late in line 5. In line 6, Ahmed used L1 to welcome this student. Ahmed's welcoming of this student was probably used to remind him indirectly that he was late. This student used L1 in line 7 to provide an excuse for missing the beginning of the class that he was at the secretary of the department's office. Students usually go to the secretary's office to check their attendance records or to provide official excuses for their absences to avoid being denied from attending the remaining of the course. In line 8, Ahmed used L1 to inform this student that he accepted his excuse, to ask this student to trust in God and to welcome him to the class. In this extract, Ahmed used L1 to interact with a student about his late arrival to the class. This extract reveals that Ahmed used the affective function to show his understanding of one of his student's excuse for

being late for the class. Ahmed permitted this student to use L1 to provide an excuse for his late attendance to the class. Ahmed did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract.

5.6.2 Hamza's classes

An analysis of one extract that represents Hamza's use of the affective function will be conducted in this section. This function was used in one of Hamza's sessions.

Extract
1 AS: (XXXX)
2 Hamza: **Oh! God! You came late. I have to again.**
3 [Some students are laughing]
4 Hamza: **This is your problem Saud. You yesterday…** <هذي مشكلتك يا سعود. أنت أمس... عبرت لي واليوم
5 **expressed to me and today>.** I'm so sorry.

Hamza in this extract was explaining the past continuous tense to his students. In line 1, a student asked Hamza a question that was inaudible in the audio-recorder. However, it seems that this question was relevant to what Hamza was already explaining because Hamza complained in line 2 that this student came late to the class and Hamza had to repeat what he had already explained. Hamza used L1 in lines 4 and 5 to show that he was irritated by this student's frequent problem of missing the beginning of the classes. This extract indicates Hamza's use of the affective function to express his emotions about one of his student's question that resulted from this student's frequent late attendance to the class. Hamza in this extract did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards using L1.

5.6.3 Section summary

The affective function was the fifth function of code-switching between L1 and L2 that was analysed in this section. Two of the participants (Ahmed and Hamza) used this function to express their emotions. Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) clarify that

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instances of the affective function are shown in spontaneous expressions of emotions between teachers and their students. Mujiono, et al. (2013) and Sert (2005) indicate that teachers of L2 use the affective function to express emotions that would lead to building solidarity and close relationship with the students. On the other hand, the other two participants (John and Steve) did not use this function. It is possible that John and Steve did not use this function because the Arabic language was not their L1.

Ahmed used this function to interact with a student about his late arrival to the class and to accept this student's excuse for missing the beginning of the class. Hamza used the affective function to reveal his annoyance about having to repeat his explanation because of a student's frequent late arrival to the class. Ahmed's student used L1 to provide his excuse for missing the beginning of the class. The audio-recorder did not record what the student in Hamza's extract said. Therefore, it is not clear if the student in Hamza's class used L1 or not.

This section highlighted that Ahmed and Hamza were not strict with the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through their use of the affective function.

5.7 Socialising function

The sixth function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (socialising function) will be investigated in this section. Instances of this function in general and greetings, in particular, were discovered in the classes of all the participants (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve). Due to space and word limitations, an extract from every participant will be highlighted in this section and the participants' reflections on this function will be discussed within the analysis of their extracts. Then, a summary of the major findings from the participants will be explored at the end of this section.

5.7.1 Ahmed's classes

This section will analyse an extract from Ahmed's classes to review his use of the socialising function where this function was used in two of the observed sessions.

Extract

1 Ahmed: I like your house. Thank you! I like your house. Not yours. Why Abdullah?
2 AS: السلام عليكم <**Islamic greeting**> [Entering the class]
3 Ahmed: وعليكم السلام <**Reply to Islamic greeting**>. وين <Where>? [Implying that the student is late]

In this extract, Ahmed was discussing a task with his students. A student entered the class late in line 2 and used L1 to greet the class with the Islamic greeting. In line 3, Ahmed used L1 to reply to this student's greeting with an Islamic greeting. In this extract, Ahmed used the socialising function to reply to this student's Islamic greeting. Ahmed stressed in his reflections on the Islamic greeting that 'this is our way in Islamic culture when entering any place and there are people you have to say السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>. This is our way to say hello'. Ahmed emphasised 'according to my religion, I have to say وعليكم السلام <reply to Islamic greeting>'. This points out Ahmed's perception of the high significance of the Islamic greeting. This extract reveals that Ahmed ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 by using L1 and permitting this student to use it during exchanging Islamic greetings.

5.7.2 Hamza's classes

The socialising function was used in the four observed sessions of Hamza's classes. An extract of this function will be discussed in this section.

Extract

1 Hamza: OK! I used to wheel patients… I used to wheel patients OK? Around and clean… service
2 services OK? When I was a nurse's aide. When I was a nurse's aide. When I was a nurse [Writing on
3 the board]
4 AS: السلام عليكم <**Islamic greeting**> [Entering the class]
5 Hamza: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <**reply to Islamic greeting**>. A nurse aide. OK! Now, number
6 eight…

In this extract, Hamza was doing a task with his students about past habitual actions using the verb *used to*. In line 4, a student entered the class late and used L1 to greet the class with the Islamic greeting. In line 5, Hamza interrupted his talk to reply to this student with the Islamic greeting using L1 and he resumed reading the task item immediately after it. This extract reveals the significance of the Islamic greeting for both Hamza and his students and using the socialising function to perform it. Hamza revealed in his reflections that 'السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting> is our greeting in Islam and it can be in our language and we can use it in any place anytime and no problem'. Hamza highlighted whenever a student enters the class 'he has to say السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting> before entering the class and I have to reply also.' Hamza contended 'I think this is the normal practice for me and for the students. We were raised up [short laugh] to behave like this.' This reveals the high significance of the Islamic greeting from Hamza's perspective. Hamza disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract by using L1 in replying to this student's Islamic greeting.

5.7.3 John's classes

This section will analyse an extract from John's classes to review his use of the socialising function. This function was used in three of John's sessions.

Extract
1 John: The Mandarin, yeah. Thirty minutes. OK!
2 AS: السلام عليكم **<Islamic greeting>** [Entering the class].
3 John: وعليكم السلام **<Reply to Islamic greeting>**… Right! Can you have a look at the sentences in number two
4 down here? [Knocking on the board] Some of the sentences are true.

In this extract, John was discussing a task with his students. In line 2, a student entered the class late and he interrupted John's talk. This student used L1 to greet the class with the Islamic greeting. In line 3, John used L1 to reply to this student's greeting with an Islamic greeting and he resumed the task with his class. This extract outlines the significance of the socialising

function in greetings between John and his students that he interrupted his instruction to use L1 in replying to an Islamic greeting. John mentioned in his reflections regarding the Islamic greeting that 'I tend to be very relaxed about it because I do not want to offend anybody and likewise, you know, I am a Muslim. If you give سلام <greeting>, I will have to reply anyway.' John hypothesised that 'I think that there are some elements which should be allowed to survive beyond the particular learning environment.' This indicates John's respect for his students' culture and his perception of the high significance of the Islamic greeting. Nonetheless, John remarked that 'I know other teachers do not like it'. John reported that 'some other teachers have said to the students which is if you are late, you lose the right to greet. If you are late, you greet with your friends in the break.' This shows that John believed that there are some teachers who preferred for their students not to interrupt the class through asking them to enter the class quietly whenever they are late. John ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract through using L1 to exchange Islamic greetings with his students.

5.7.4 Steve's classes

This section will review the only extract of the socialising function in Steve's classes.

Extract

1	Steve: OK!... So, I am or… she makes this a subject…
2	AS: السلام عليكم <**Islamic greeting**> [Entering the class].
3	Ss: وعليكم السلام <**Reply to Islamic greeting**>.
4	Steve: **What's the time Abdulaziz? I asked you two day ago.**

Steve was reviewing the future tense with his students. In line 2, a student entered the class late and used L1 to greet the class with the Islamic greeting. In line 3, a group of students used L1 to reply to this student's greeting with an Islamic greeting. Steve did not reply to this student's greeting and he commented in line 4 about this student's late arrival to the class. This extract indicates the significance of the socialising function in greetings among students whereas using

this function to exchange greetings was not significant for Steve that he did not reply to his student's greeting. Steve did not use L1 in this extract to greet his student, but he did not ban the other students from using it to exchange greetings with their colleague. Steve noted in his reflections that the Islamic greeting among students whenever one of them entered the class 'happens all the time and I do not really know what to say'. This indicates Steve's regular observation of students' use of this function and his inexperience in dealing with it. However, Steve asserted that 'usually it is very brief and it does not interrupt the class.' This highlights Steve's speculation that greetings between his students did not affect the flow of his classes. This extract highlights that Steve did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that he did not ban his students from using L1 to exchange greetings.

5.7.5 Section summary

The sixth function of code-switching between L1 and L2 (socialising function) was reviewed in this section. This section revealed that all the participants (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve) used this function and/or permitted their students to use it during exchanging the Islamic greeting. Macaro (1995) and Mujiono, et al. (2013) indicate that L1 may be used to socialise with the students. Flyman-Mattsson and Burenhult (1999) hypothesise that the socialising function may serve as an indicator of friendship and solidarity with students.

Three of the participants (Ahmed, Hamza and John) used this function themselves to exchange the Islamic greeting with their students. Littlewood and Yu (2011) declared that teachers of L2 used L1 to establish constructive social relationships. The exception to this is Steve, who did not use this function himself to exchange the Islamic greeting with his students probably because he did not share his students' identity as a Muslim.

All the participants permitted their students to use this function. This section highlighted the crucial role of using L1 to exchange the Islamic greeting for three of the participants (Ahmed, Hamza and John) and students in all the observed EFL classes. Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994) reported that L1 served as an indicator of an identity or a group membership. The analysed extracts pointed out that Ahmed, Hamza and John interrupted their instructions and used the socialising function to reply to an Islamic greeting by their students. Although Steve did not exchange the Islamic greeting with his students, his students used it to exchange greetings.

The reflections of Ahmed, Hamza and John highlighted the critical role of the Islamic greeting on their social life and John remarked that it shows respect to the students' culture. On the other hand, Steve observed in his reflections that the Islamic greeting was regularly exchanged between his students and he acknowledged that he was not experienced in dealing with it. John reported that some teachers asked their students not to interrupt the class and to postpone their greetings to the end of the class. Nevertheless, Steve contented that exchanging greetings between students did not affect the flow of his classes.

The extracts in this section highlight that all the participants ignored the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using and/or permitting their students to use the socialising function.

5.8 Other switching

This section will discuss the code-switching instances between L1 and L2 that did not serve any education function (other switching). My data analysis of the EFL classrooms revealed several instances of code-switching that did not belong to the other six functions of code-switching that I surveyed in this chapter. These instances were mainly found in the classes of two of the participants (Ahmed and Steve). I did not find any significant instances of this use

in the classes of the other two participants (Hamza and John). Due to space and word constraints, one extract from Ahmed's classes and one extract from Steve's classes will be discussed in this section. Ahmed's reflections on this function will be discussed after analysing his extract. This section will conclude with the major findings from the two participants' extracts.

5.8.1 Ahmed's classes

The use of code-switching to serve a non-educational function was discovered in all the four observed sessions of Ahmed. This section will evaluate an extract from Ahmed's classes to explore this use of code-switching.

Extract

1   Ahmed: Yes. Now, ال let us continue. The> They? خلينا نكمل.
2   AS: Them
3   Ahmed: … them… ال The> you?

Ahmed was reviewing the English language personal pronouns with his students. In line 1, Ahmed used L1 to signal his intention of continuing to mention the subject pronouns. Ahmed in line 3 used the L1 equivalence of the determiner *the* before providing a second subject pronoun. This extract highlights Ahmed's use of L1. Ahmed's use of code-switching in this extract did not have a significant educational function. Ahmed disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in this extract.

Ahmed acknowledged in his reflections that some of his uses of L1 may result from 'the interference of the first language in the second language.' This reveals that Ahmed was aware that some of his uses of code-switching did not serve any educational function.

5.8.2 Steve's classes

This section will investigate the use of code-switching in Steve's classes that did not serve an educational function.

Extract
1	Steve: Yeah, exercise.
2	AS1: Yes.
3	Steve: OK! Umm!… Jack or Dani?
4	Ss: Dani… Jack
5	Steve: Yeah, probably Jack. I'm going to try new things.
6	Ss: Dani
7	Steve: Do you think…
8	Ss: Jack
9	AS1: كل شين <everything> Jack.
10	AS2: Jack
11	Steve: They're all Jack… I'm going to play for Manchester United.

Steve, with help from his students, was doing a task from the textbook about two people and a group of sentences about future plans using the future tense. The two people were named *Jack* who was a young teenager and *Dani* who was an adult. Students had to guess the most relevant person that suited every sentence. It seems that most of the sentences that they reviewed were relevant to *Jack*. A student used L1 in line 9 to complain that all the sentences that they reviewed were describing *Jack*. Steve did not comment on this student's use of L1 and he also mentioned the same comment in line 11. Steve did not use L1 in this extract because he did not speak it. However, one of the students used L1 and Steve did not ban him from using it. The instance of L1 that was used by the student in this extract did not serve any educational function. This student probably used L1 to share his observation with his colleagues about the task that they were doing. This extract shows that Steve did not follow the LEP of the PYP towards L1 that students did not need his permission to use it.

5.8.3 Section summary

Instances of using code-switching between L1 and L2 for other purposes that did not serve an educational function were explored in this section. Instances of this function were found in the classes of two of the participants (Ahmed and Steve). Sert (2005) remarks that teachers of L2 may use code-switching unintentionally without considering its function or outcome. On the other hand, I did not find significant instances of code-switching for a non-educational function in the classes of the other two participants (Hamza and John). Qian, et al. (2009) advise teachers of L2 to avoid making code-switching as a habit to overcome all types of obstacles.

Ahmed used code-switching for non-educational purposes and acknowledged in his reflections that he sometimes used code-switching without having any educational purpose. Yletyinen (2004) revealed that teachers of L2 sometimes used code-switching unintentionally as a lapse. Steve did not ban one of his students from using code-switching for a non-educational purpose. According to Jakobsson and Rydén (2010, p. 9), "for some people code switching is as normal as breathing, it comes naturally and without any thought behind it at all." However, Atkinson (1987) and Nation (2003) emphasise that L1 should not be over-used. Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) warn that permitting the use of L1 in language classrooms should not encourage teachers of L2 and learners to rely on it.

The extracts in this section pointed out that both Ahmed and Steve disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in using L1 and/or permitting their students to use it for a non-educational function.

5.9 Chapter summary

This chapter reviewed my data analysis of the observed EFL classrooms. The third objective of this study is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. The main goal of data analysis in this chapter was achieving this objective. Wiley and García (2016) assert that it is not always guaranteed for LEPs to be well conceived, received, resourced or implemented. Duff and Polio (1990) imply that LEP has a significant influence on the amount of using L1 and L2 inside the classroom.

As explained in chapter three, classes of four different EFL teachers (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve) were observed during data collection of this study. My data analysis of using L1 in the observed EFL classrooms relied on the research on functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. The focus of my analysis was on how the participants used code-switching and/or permitted their students to use it. Seven major functions of code-switching emerged from my data analysis that included: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching. This chapter examined these functions using selected extracts from the observed classes to represent common themes among the participants' classes.

Data in this chapter indicated that all the participants did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Glasgow (2014) highlights that teachers of L2 may resist or do not implement an LEP if it contradicts with their professional beliefs or their contextual realities. Tien (2009) noticed a discrepancy between schools' English-only policy and the actual language use inside the classroom. The examined functions of code-switching revealed that the participants used L1 and/or permitted their students to use it. Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009) urge teachers,

when making policies for L1 use inside the classroom, to decide whether both they and their learners will be using L1 or not.

This chapter showed that the participants varied in the degree of their implementations of the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Asker and Martin-Jones (2013) remark that teachers differ in their interpretation and implementation of the LEP in their classrooms. Creese and Leung (2003) point out that teachers' reactions to language policies are influenced by their personal interpretations of policy imperatives and their own knowledge about and sense of belonging to local communities of practice.

The highest frequency of disregarding the LEP of the PYP towards L1 was noted in Ahmed's classes through his extensive use of L1 and/or permitting his students to use it. Hamza did not implement this LEP through using L1 himself, but he sometimes discouraged his students from using L1. Simon (2001) declares that the possibility of using code-switching is high when teachers of L2 and their students share an L1 even if the LEP bans using code-switching. John did not always implement this LEP through using L1 himself and/or permitting his students to use it. Although Steve did not use his students' L1 because he did not speak it, he tended to disregard this LEP through ignoring his students' use of L1.

Chapter Six

Discussion

6.1 Chapter overview

This chapter will conduct a discussion of my findings from the data analysis in chapters four and five. This study has three objectives. The first objective is to identify the language education policy (LEP) of the preparatory year programme (PYP) towards the use of learners' L1 and to identify EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. The second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding their use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. The third objective is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. The main goal of discussion in this chapter is to accomplish these objectives. Hence, every objective will be discussed in a separate section in this chapter. This study supports reconsidering the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in Barzan University through highlighting the significance of students' L1 in the EFL classroom. Therefore, this study aims to urge the policy-makers in Barzan University to rescind the ban on L1 in the EFL classroom and consider how to incorporate students' L1 to serve pedagogical values in language teaching and learning. This could be accomplished through including the voices of the EFL teachers and treating students as bilinguals who will graduate from the PYP with two languages.

As explained in chapter three, five members of the English language centre (ELC) in Barzan University in Saudi Arabia participated in this study. These participants were the Director of the ELC (Zain) and four EFL teachers. Two of the EFL teachers speak English as their L1 (Steve and John) and the other two speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2 (Hamza

and Ahmed). The data collection instruments of this study consisted of sixteen classroom observations, five semi-structured interviews, four reflections, audio-recording and fieldnotes. The semi-structured interviews were used to achieve the first and second objectives of this study whereas the classroom observations, the reflections and the fieldnotes contributed in answering the third objective. I audio-recorded and verbatim transcribed all the interviews, the reflections and the classroom observations. I analysed my interviews with the five research participants in this study in chapter four. These interviews analysed the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University and the participants' perceptions towards using L1 inside and outside the EFL classroom. Chapter five surveyed my classroom observations with the four EFL teachers to investigate their use of L1 in light of the research on the functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. The seven major functions of code-switching that emerged in chapter five were: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching. This chapter will discuss my findings from the two data analysis chapters and it will connect the findings with the previous literature. The discussion will be organised according to the objectives of this study. Section (6.2) will begin with reviewing the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University. Then, section (6.3) will explore the participants' perceptions towards using L1 inside and outside the EFL classroom. After this, language practices of the EFL teachers will be investigated in section (6.4).

6.2 Language education policy

The LEP of the PYP towards L1 in Barzan University was identified in chapter four. The first objective of this study is to identify the LEP of the PYP towards the use of learners' L1 and

EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. Findings from the LEP of the PYP towards L1 will be discussed in this section to achieve this objective.

I found in my data analysis that the LEP of the PYP bans L1 in the EFL classrooms. This ban is administered by the Director of the ELC (Zain) with support from the Dean of the PYP. The literature shows that banning or even discouraging the use of L1 in the foreign language classroom in general and in the EFL classroom, in particular, is a common LEP (see for example Kang, 2008; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Simon, 2001). Banning the use of code-switching between L1 and L2 is consistent with Raschka, et al.'s (2009) complaint that code-switching is considered as a type of deficit behaviour by policy-makers who tend to support and advocate monolingual language instruction.

On the other hand, my data analysis revealed that the LEP of the PYP towards L1 was covert because it was not written in a formal document, but rather it was considered as a de facto policy. It appears that considering language policies as de facto policies without writing them down in formal documents is a general practice. For instance, Bassiouney (2009) and Spolsky (2004) emphasise that it is not necessary for a policy to be written for it to be implemented.

All the four EFL teachers in my study were not certain about the actual LEP of the PYP towards L1 and they postulated that it did not strictly ban L1. This uncertainty by the EFL teachers supports Shohamy's (2006) viewpoint that most LEP decisions are taken at the political level without involving or listening to the teachers. It also appears to agree with Wiley and García's (2016) observation that it is not always guaranteed for LEPs to be well conceived, received, resourced or implemented. It is possible that the EFL teachers' uncertainty about the actual LEP of the PYP towards L1 resulted from the policy-makers consideration of this LEP as a de facto policy instead of writing it in a formal document.

Zain strongly agreed with the strict ban on L1 by the LEP of the PYP. On the other hand, all the EFL teachers, including the speakers of English as their L1 disagreed with banning L1. A similar disagreement with banning L1 in the EFL classroom has been noted by Glasgow (2014) who asserts that teachers of L2 may resist or do not implement an LEP if it contradicts with their professional beliefs or their contextual realities.

Zain said that the LEP of the PYP towards L1 was regularly clarified to his staff members using verbal and written reminders in addition to occasional requests for the EFL teachers not to use it during his regular visits to the EFL classes. Nevertheless, two of the EFL teachers (John and Hamza) contended that they never received oral or written information by the administration of the PYP about the official policy of using L1.

Zain doubted that the LEP of the PYP towards L1 was actually implemented by all the EFL teachers and particularly by the EFL teachers who speak Arabic as their L1. It seems that policy-makers, in general, do not always hold the power to implement their policies; for instance, Bassiouney (2009) remarks that it cannot be guaranteed for a language policy to be implemented.

The findings outlined in this section highlight that the status of L1 in the EFL classroom is a controversial issue between the policy-makers in the PYP of Barzan University and the EFL teachers. However, the ban on L1 by the LEP of the PYP is not consistent with the current calls for revising the role of L1 in the LEPs of foreign language education (see for example Garton, 2014; Glasgow, 2014; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Raschka, et al., 2009). Therefore, the policy-makers in the PYP of Barzan University should reconsider the ban on L1 in the LEP. As Cooper (1989) has argued, the LEP needs to facilitate the accomplishment of the overt language planning goals (acquisition of EFL in the context of this study) by both creating the opportunity

to learn and improving the incentive to learn. Using L1 in the classroom increases motivation and engagement, thereby fulfilling the requirement to improve incentive. In addition, the policy should acknowledge that the majority of students share an L1 and there are some teachers who also share this L1. I would also urge the policy-makers to include the EFL teachers' viewpoints on this policy. EFL teachers' experiences and awareness about their classroom realities would provide policy-makers with insights into the factors that would assist them in improving the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Thus, the focus of the LEP of the PYP towards L1 should be turned from seeking a virtual position that excludes the use of L1 into adopting an optimal position that would recognize the positive role of students' L1 in facilitating the educational process (see Macaro, 2001). However, a valid question would be raised about how students' L1 may facilitate teaching and learning of L2. This question will be discussed in detail in section (6.4) in my review of the participants' language practices inside the EFL classroom.

6.3 Participants' perceptions towards using L1

The participants' perceptions towards their use of L1 was explored in chapter four. The second objective of this study is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding their use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. My findings from the participants' reported use of L1 in their language practices will be studied in this section to accomplish this objective. There is a considerable amount of previous research on this topic as discussed in chapter two. The literature reveals a consensus among researchers that managers and policy-makers have significant influence on language teacher's beliefs and language practices (see for example Hall and Cook, 2012; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Tan and Lan, 2011). Nonetheless, regardless of this influence, studies show that language teachers vary in their interpretations and

implementations of the LEPs (see for example Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013; Creese, 2005 cited in Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013, p. 345; Raschka, et al., 2009; Tien, 2009).

The literature review in chapter two explored the impact of banning language teachers from using L1. For instance, researchers such as Copland and Neokleous (2011) and Simon (2001) noted that language teachers' use of L1 tends to be accompanied by a sense of guilt. Copland and Neokleous (2011) theorize that this sense may result from the contradictions between the pedagogic ideals and the contextual realities. This ban led some researchers such as Atkinson (1993), Jakobsson and Rydén (2010) and Then and Ting (2011) to warn that banning L1 would obstruct teachers' duties such as creating constructive communication inside the classroom with their students.

My review of the literature revealed that permitting students to use L1 in the L2 classroom, as opposed to teachers' use of L1, has also attracted a great deal of discussion. For instance, Dailey-O'Cain and Liebscher (2009) advise teachers of L2 to consider when making policies for L1's use inside the classroom whether the learners will be permitted to use it or not. There are mainly two sides of the debate regarding permitting students to use L1. On the one hand, there are some warnings alerting that permitting students to use L1 in the L2 classroom would hinder the learning process (see for example Eldridge, 1996; Ellis, 2008; Franklin, 1990). On the other hand, several researchers assert that permitting students to use L1 inside the classroom with their teachers and colleagues has several empirical advantages that outweigh its disadvantages (see for example Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993; Cook, 2001; Macaro, 2009). Cook (2001) recommends turning the degree of students' success in learning L2 from the standards of native speakers to the standards of L2 users. The discussion in this section will

analyse my findings in light of the previous literature to detect the consistency of my findings with the previous literature.

My discussion in this section will begin with analysing the perspective of one of the policy-makers in Barzan University on his administration of the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Therefore, Zain's, as the Director of the ELC, permission or ban of EFL teachers to use L1, his reaction if he noticed an EFL teacher was using L1 in front of his students and his permission for PYP students to use L1 with him as the Director of the ELC will be investigated.

Zain repeated in this section of the interview again that he did not tolerate the EFL teachers' use of L1. Zain contended that he tended to make it explicit to the EFL teachers that L1 was banned in their interactions with their students everywhere inside the campus of the PYP.

Zain revealed that whenever he noted an EFL teacher was using L1 with his students, he would conduct a closed meeting with this teacher to inform him that he violated the LEP of the PYP and to ask this teacher not to repeat his violation. Zain said that most of the EFL teachers during these meetings agreed with him and they promised him not to repeat this violation. This highlights that Zain was aware that he, as a policy-maker, had a critical influence on the language practices of the EFL teachers.

On the other hand, Zain conceded that he, as the Director of the ELC, did not implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1 through using it with the PYP students whenever they visited his office. Zain argued that he would use L1 because most of these students would have complex issues and they would not usually have sufficient proficiency in L2 to discuss them.

My findings indicate a discrepancy between Zain's strict attitude towards EFL teachers' implementation of the LEP of the PYP towards L1 and his disregard of this policy by permitting

himself, as the Director of the ELC, to use it with the PYP students. Zain permitted himself to use L1 with the students because they had low proficiency in L2. However, Zain did not consider this factor in banning teachers of L2 from using L1 with their students even though students' low proficiency in L2 may form a significant factor in the EFL teachers' use of L1 with them.

My discussion in this section involves the perspectives of all the five participants' regarding the use of L1 by them, as EFL teachers, and their students inside and outside the classroom. As explained in chapter three, two of the participants in this study (Steve and John) speak English as their L1 whereas three of the participants (Zain, Hamza and Ahmed) speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2. The explored literature in chapter two showed that researchers have noted different opinions between speakers of the target language as their L1 and speakers of the target language as their L2 regarding the use of L1 in teaching L2 (see for example Harbord, 1992). For instance, Copland and Neokleous (2011) noted that teachers of L2 who share an L1 with their students tend to underestimate it whereas Simon (2001) revealed that this type of teachers often disregarded the LEP of their school towards L1. On the other hand, other researchers such as McMillan and Rivers (2011) discovered that teachers' proficiency in the L1 of their students did not have a significant impact on their attitude towards using it. It has to be stressed that some teachers of L2 as noted by Littlewood and Yu (2011) would not use their students' L1 simply because they do not speak it. My discussion in this section will compare the participants' viewpoints on the role of L1 on their and their students' language practices to investigate whether L1 has a significant influence on the language practices inside and outside the EFL classrooms.

Four out of the five participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) admitted that they tended to use their students' L1 inside their EFL classes. This discrepancy between LEPs and language practices of teachers of L2 is a common observation among other researchers as highlighted at the beginning of this section. However, Ahmed hesitated to anticipate the amount of his use of L1 in the EFL classroom even though he used the largest amount of L1 among the EFL teachers as section (6.4) will reveal. It is possible that Ahmed could not anticipate the amount of his use of L1 because he was feeling guilty that he was not implementing the LEP of the PYP towards L1 (see for example Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Simon, 2001). Steve was the only participant who did not use L1 inside the EFL classroom because he did not speak it. Section (6.4) will review some of the strategies that were used by Steve instead of using L1 to interact with his students.

Four of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) acknowledged that their students would use both L1 and L2 in their interactions with them inside the EFL classroom. The participants who speak Arabic as their L1 and English as their L2 (Zain, Hamza and Ahmed) conceded that they would use L1 in their interactions with the students. Even John, who speaks English as his L1 and has a low proficiency in his students' L1 (Arabic), revealed that L1 was used in his interactions with the students. On the other hand, Steve highlighted that he did not use L1 in his interactions with his students because he did not speak it. This reveals that the L1 of the teachers did not have a significant value in their attitude towards using their students' L1. It seems that the criterion for using L1 in the interactions between the participants and their students, according to the participants' viewpoints, is the teacher's ability to speak his students' L1. This highlights the significant value of L1 in facilitating interactions between teachers of L2 and students as noted at the beginning of this section. The use of L1 in the interactions between the teachers and the students will be discussed in detail in section (6.4).

All the participants in this study noted that their EFL students tended to use L1 in the interactions among themselves, but in varying degrees. This is in line with McMillan and Rivers's (2011) finding that language teachers tended to permit their students to use L1 during interactions with their colleagues.

Zain admitted that students' use of L1 would be the anticipated behaviour because they share an L1, have low proficiency in L2 and have not received sufficient training in using L2 in public schools. Other researchers, such as Nation (2003), support Zain's awareness that students who share an L1 would be expected to use it in their interactions during performing tasks.

Two of the participants (John and Ahmed) declared that their EFL students tended to use L1 only among themselves whereas another two participants (Steve and Hamza) asserted that their students would use L2 on rare occasions such as whenever they noticed that their teacher was observing them. The participants' perspectives of the varied amount of students' use of L1 agrees with Baoueb and Toumi (2012) and Liu, et al.s' (2004) discoveries that students' language practices were largely influenced by their teachers' language practices.

It could be inferred from the participants' responses that they were aware of the fact that the vast majority of their EFL students had a common L1 and they would be using this language in their interactions among themselves by default. These findings indicate that even if the LEP of the PYP strictly banned L1 in the EFL classes, it would not be possible or even practical to ban EFL students from using it among themselves. Therefore, the focus of the policy should be on how to incorporate students' L1 inside the EFL classroom to become a positive element of the classroom that would improve students' bilingual proficiency instead of treating L1 as an obstacle to students' learning achievement.

The participants reported different reactions if they noted that their students were using L1. Three of the participants (Steve, John and Ahmed) admitted that they would permit their students to use L1. Ahmed hesitated to anticipate the amount of permitting his students' use of L1. However, the discussion in section (6.4) will clarify that Ahmed did not ban his students from using L1. On the other hand, two of the participants (Zain and Hamza) said that they would ban their students from using L1 inside the classroom. My findings revealed that one of the participants (Steve), who speak English as his L1 and does not speak Arabic, admitted that he would permit his students to use L1. Steve remarked that he did not feel that he had the power to ban his students from using L1. It is possible that this feeling emerged from the fact that the majority of the students in Steve's classes shared an L1. Therefore, it is possible that Steve was attempting to narrow down the linguistic gap between him and his students in providing them with the opportunities of assisting each other through ignoring his students' use of L1. On the other hand, two of the participants (Zain and Hamza), who share an L1 with their students and speak English as their L2, emphasised that they would ban their students from using it. This highlights that sharing an L1 with the students may have negatively influenced some of the participants' attitude towards their students' use of L1.

Four of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) acknowledged that they would use L1 (Arabic) outside their EFL classes and within the premises of the PYP. Disregarding the LEP of the PYP towards L1 outside the L2 classroom agrees with Cooper's (1989) viewpoint that achieving the objectives of acquisition planning does not necessarily mean that L2 would be used outside the classroom. The four participants highlighted that they would use L1 outside the L2 classroom with both EFL teachers who speak it and with their students. This indicates that the participants were more cautious about their use of L1 inside their EFL classes than outside it. John who speaks Arabic as his L2 pointed out that he was aware that the English

language did not have a significant role in his students' life outside the university. On the other hand, the fifth participant (Steve) said that he would not use L1 outside his EFL classes because he did not speak it.

Findings in this section illustrate that the participants had different opinions about the LEP of the PYP towards L1 and varied in their reported language practices in terms of implementing this policy inside and outside the EFL classroom.

Despite the LEP of the PYP's ban on L1, all the participants revealed that this policy was not implemented by them and/or their students. This disregard of the policy includes Zain who strongly supported banning L1 in the PYP and Steve who does not speak his students' L1. Findings in this section indicate that all the participants agreed that their students used L1. Nonetheless, the participants differed in their perspectives towards the amount of their students' use of L1 and their permission for students to use it. The L1 of the participants did not significantly influence their perspectives towards their own use of L1 in their language practices (see for example McMillan and Rivers, 2011). On the other hand, it seems that sharing an L1 with the students negatively influenced some of the participants' attitude towards their students use of L1 (see for example Copland and Neokleous, 2011).

Findings in this section highlight that the participants are aware that banning L1 by the LEP of the PYP is not practical and cannot be implemented. The participants are aware that banning L1 would restrict teaching of L2 (see for example Atkinson, 1993; Jakobsson and Rydén, 2010; Then and Ting, 2011). For instance, the only occasion that L1 would be eliminated from the interactions between EFL teachers and their students is when these teachers do not speak their students' L1. This indicates that the LEP of the PYP towards L1 did not consider the viewpoints

of the EFL teachers on the role of L1 inside the L2 classroom and how the LEP may create a practical role of L1 inside the classroom.

Findings in this section with collaboration from findings in section (6.2) point out that the role of L1 in the LEP of the investigated PYP should be reconsidered to be employed as a positive factor in the EFL classroom. It is recommended for the policy-makers in the PYP of Barzan University to take into consideration the viewpoints of the EFL teachers about the role of L1 in teaching EFL to be sure that it acts as a positive element in facilitating the teaching and the learning processes. The LEP of the PYP towards L1 should consider when it is useful to use L1 and it should permit both teachers and students to use L1 to facilitate the teaching and learning processes. Section (6.4) will explore findings from my classroom observations to review some of the functions that L1 may play in the EFL classroom to facilitate the educational process.

6.4 Language practices

Chapter five examined the language practices of the four EFL teachers (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve) using classroom observations. The third objective of this study is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. My discussion in section (6.2) has raised the question of how students' L1 may facilitate teaching and learning of L2. The discussed literature in chapter two indicated that many researchers such as Garton (2014) and Raschka, et al. (2009) support modifying the concentration of the LEP from banning L1 to reassessing when, how and where to use it effectively to serve pedagogical values. Therefore, this section will review how L1 was used in the observed EFL classrooms by teachers and/or students and it will discuss whether this use of L1 facilitated the educational process or not to achieve the third objective of this study. My analysis of the language practices

inside the EFL classrooms focused on the extent of the use of L1 by the teachers and/or the students in light of the research on the functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. Seven major functions of code-switching emerged from my classroom observations. These functions were: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching. The overall findings from my classroom observations will be discussed in this section.

Although the LEP of the PYP bans using L1 in the EFL classroom as highlighted in section (6.2), my data analysis from the EFL classrooms revealed that all the teachers did not implement this policy by using L1 themselves and/or permitting their students to use it. Disregard of the LEP by language teachers if it does not correlate with their professional beliefs or their contextual realities is a common practice as noted by Glasgow (2014). The EFL teachers' disregard of the LEP in this study supports Wiley and García's (2016) comment that LEPs will not always be well conceived, received, resourced or implemented. On the other hand, the data from the observed EFL classes indicated that the participants varied in the degree of their disregard of the LEP of the PYP towards L1. According to research by Asker and Martin-Jones (2013), teachers of L2 vary in their interpretation and implementation of the LEPs in their classrooms.

Findings from the EFL classes revealed that the participants varied in the amount of their use of L1. Other researchers such as Copland and Neokleous (2011), Duff and Polio (1990) and others discovered that teachers of L2 varied in the amount of using L1. Due to the qualitative nature of this study, my analysis of the EFL classes did not include the number of L1 words that were used by the participants or the ratio of L1 to L2 use inside the EFL classes. However,

the analysis focused on the frequency of participants' use of the studied functions of code-switching.

The largest amount of using L1 was done by Ahmed whereas the least amount was done by Steve who did not use his students' L1. Ahmed's use of L1 varied between one word to chunks of words. Ahmed used four of the functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; and other switching) in all the four observed sessions. The classroom management function was used in three of the observed sessions. The socialising function was used in two of the observed sessions whereas the affective function was used in one of the analysed sessions.

The use of L1 by Hamza varied between one word to chunks of words. Hamza employed the socialising function in all the four observed sessions. Two of the analysed functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; and repetitive function) were discovered in three of Hamza's sessions. Instances of the equivalence function were found in two of Hamza's sessions while the affective function was noted in one of his sessions. Hamza did not use the classroom management function and the other switching.

John's use of L1 was in a form of one word or a maximum of two words. John clarified in his reflections that he preferred to use L1 in form of words instead of sentences to avoid the embarrassment of committing errors. John used the equivalence function in all the four observed sessions. The metalanguage and the socialising functions were used by John in three of the analysed sessions. John used the repetitive function only once whereas the affective function and the other switching were not used by John.

On the other hand, Steve did not use L1, but he conceded in his reflections that being able to speak his students' L1 would improve his teaching approach. Steve declared that he was comparing between L1 and L2 grammars to compensate for his inability to speak his students' L1.

The literature indicates that code-switching between L1 and L2 facilitates teacher-student interaction and foreign language learning (see for example Greggio and Gil, 2007; Harbord, 1992). Findings from the observed EFL classes revealed that all the four participants permitted their students to use L1 in their interactions. Other researchers such as Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) observed that the majority of EFL teachers allowed their students to use L1. Permitting L2 students to use L1 inside the language classroom is in line with researchers' calls to treat language students as bilinguals to improve their learning of L2 (see for example Butzkamm, 2003; Cook, 2001; Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain, 2005). However, the participants varied in using L1 in their interaction with the students and in permitting their students to use it. These differences are in agreement with Seedhouse's (2004) theory that a unique system of speech exchange in the L2 classroom interaction does not exist.

Ahmed used L1 to interact with his students and he reported in his reflections that using L1 in his interactions with his students would relieve them from receiving false information from their colleagues. Ahmed initiated interactions with his students and permitted his students to initiate interactions with him using L1. Ahmed asked his students to use L1 and repeated his students' use of L1.

Hamza did not use L1 to interact with his students even when he initiated the use of L1. The same observation was made by Polio and Duff (1994) who clarified that teachers' encouragement of their students to use L2 does not always reflect their own language practices.

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In most of the analysed extract, Hamza initiated the use of L1. However, Hamza argued in his reflections that some of his uses of L1 were to show his students that L1 would not help them in learning L2. It is possible that Hamza was concerned about sharing an L1 with his students. Teachers who share an L1 with their students tend, sometimes, to underestimate it where it should be treated as their most valuable asset as noted by Copland and Neokleous (2011). When Hamza's students used L1, he used L2 to interact with them except in the socialising function. Hamza was inconsistent with his students' use of L1. Hamza criticized, on some occasions, his students' use of L1 whereas he did not on the other occasions.

John did not use L1 to interact with his students except to repeat some of their uses of L1. Although John asked his students to use L1, he did not notice an error that a student committed during translating a sentence in one of the instances. John reported in his reflections that he would ask his students to use L2 if he was not familiar with their L1. According to research conducted by Eldridge (1996), speakers of the target language as their L1 may not always be able to decide when to use code-switching. John sometimes initiated the use of L1 while his students initiated the use of L1 in most of the analysed extracts.

On the other hand, all the uses of L1 in Steve's classes were initiated by the students because he did not speak their L1. Steve sometimes asked his students to use L1 and students tended to use L1 to interact among themselves without seeking his permission. Steve supported, in his reflections, his students' use of L1 without his permission. Nevertheless, findings from the metalanguage function indicated that Steve tended to use speech modification techniques (see Walsh and Li Li, 2016) and strategies of negotiating meaning and form (see Ellis, 2008) to facilitate his interactions with his students. I did not conduct detailed analysis of Steve's use of these techniques and strategies because they were not within the scope of this study. Therefore,

it could not be decided whether Steve's use of these techniques and strategies assisted him in conducting successful interactions with his students or not. However, these techniques and strategies did not assist Steve in conducting a successful interaction with his students in one of the instances and they did not stop his students from intervening through using L1 to assist each other in both of the analysed instances in the metalanguage function.

Findings from Ahmed and Hamzas' classes indicated that they did not have a sense of linguistic gap between them and their students as a result of sharing a common L1. On the other hand, it seems that John and Steve were concerned about the linguistic gap between them and their students. This difference supports Widdowson's (1994) comment that teachers of L2 who share an L1 with their students have the advantage of knowing the appropriate contexts of language learning while teachers of L2 who speak the target language as their L1 have the advantages of knowing the appropriate contexts of language use and defining possible target objectives.

Findings from the discussed functions of code-switching between L1 and L2, except the other switching, showed that the EFL teachers and their students' uses of these functions were not random and L1 served a positive role in facilitating the teaching and learning of L2. This purposeful use of functions of code-switching is a common observation. For instance, Bullock and Toribio (2009) and Sert (2005) assert that code-switching does not represent a random mixing of two languages, but it facilitates several vital functions that may improve the environment of learning L2. Students' use of L1 to facilitate their learning of L2 disagrees with Jakobsson and Rydén's (2010) finding that most of students' uses of L1 were not relevant to the lesson. Nonetheless, the participants varied in the functions of code-switching that they used and/or permitted their students to use.

My analysis of Ahmed's classes indicated that all the seven functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching) were used by him and/or his students. Hamza and/or his students used five of the discussed functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; affective function; and socialising function). Five of the analysed functions of code-switching were used by John and/or his students (metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; and socialising function). On the other hand, students in Steve's classes used four of the functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; equivalence function; socialising function; and other switching).

Findings from the analysed functions of code-switching between L1 and L2, except the other switching, revealed that these instances of code-switching served either core goals or framework goals (see Littlewood and Yu, 2011) (see section 2.3.6). This use of code-switching between L1 and L2 to improve the learning environment is in line with Qian, et al. (2009) and Sert (2005). Therefore, the literature shows that banning teachers and students from using L1 obstructs the educational process (see for example Atkinson, 1987; Atkinson, 1993; Butzkamm, 2003). Instances of serving the core goals of teaching the target language can be seen in three of the analysed functions of code-switching (metalanguage function; repetitive function; and equivalence function). For instance, teaching and learning L2 grammar was one of the major reasons for using the metalanguage function and the repetitive function. This finding supports observations from other researchers such as Crawford (2004), Greggio and Gil (2007), Kim and Elder (2008) and others that using L1 to teach and learn L2 grammar is a common practice among teachers and students. Teaching and learning L2 vocabulary was the main objective for using the equivalence function. Using L1 in teaching L2 vocabulary is a common observation.

For instance, Liu, et al. (2004), Nation (2003), Yletyinen (2004) and others revealed that L1 was used in teaching and translating the meaning of L2 vocabulary. On the other hand, instances of using the framework goals to create affective and material conditions of learning were found in three of the analysed functions of code-switching (classroom management function; affective function; and socialising function). Researchers such as Azlan and Narasuman (2013), Polio and Duff (1994) and Poulisse and Bongaerts (1994) report that teachers of L2 may use code-switching to show solidarity with their students.

The only exception was the 'other switching' function where code-switching between L1 and L2 was not used for functions that served significant educational purposes. Hence, supporting rescinding the ban on L1 by the LEP of the PYP does not mean that the policy-makers and teachers of L2 in Barzan University should neglect the recommendation by researchers such as Butzkamm (2003), Hall and Cook (2012) and others that a maximal use of L2 should be implemented and L1 should only be used to improve the educational process.

To sum up the findings from my data analysis of the EFL classes, none of the EFL teachers fully implemented the LEP of the PYP towards L1, but they varied in their disregard of it. This discrepancy between the LEP and the language practices of teachers of L2 is illustrated by Creese and Leung (2003) and Hornberger and Johnson (2007) that teachers' interpretation and implementation of the LEP are often influenced by institutional and individual experiences, values and perceptions. All the participants used L1 and/or permitted their students to use it, but in varying degrees. However, six of the analysed functions of code-switching clarified that the uses of L1 by the EFL teachers and/or their students were not random. These uses served particular functions of code-switching and they were used to achieve core or framework goals of teaching L2.

The LEP of the PYP towards L1 in Barzan University should be reassessed to provide teachers and students with the authority of deciding what forms optimal use of L2 and L1 according to the immediate context of the classroom and teachers' experiences. Adopting an optimal position towards L1 by the LEP of the PYP would provide teachers and students with the tools that would improve the classroom environment. Therefore, McMillan and Rivers's (2011) recommendation to implement an "English-mainly" policy instead on an English-only policy should be considered by the policy-makers in Barzan University.

6.5 Chapter summary

This chapter discussed my findings from the data analysis in chapters four and five. This study has three main objectives. The first objective is to identify the LEP of the PYP towards the use of learners' L1 and EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy. The second objective is to explore EFL teachers' perceptions regarding their use of L1 inside and outside their classrooms. The third objective is to analyse the relationship between the language practices of the EFL teachers and the LEP of the PYP with a focus on how they use or do not use their learners' L1 inside their classrooms. The main goal of discussion in this chapter was achieving these three objectives through reviewing the findings from chapters four and five and connecting them to the previous literature. These objectives were explored in separate sections.

As discussed in chapter three, five members of an ELC (Zain, Steve, John, Hamza and Ahmed) participated in this study. The data analysis in chapter four investigated the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University and the participants' perceptions towards using L1. Chapter five explored the role of L1 inside the EFL classes in terms of its use by the teachers and/or their students in light of the seven functions of code-switching between L1 and L2 that emerged from the data analysis. These functions included: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence

function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching.

The findings from the data analysis in chapters four and five were discussed in light of their relationship to the previous literature in this chapter. This study pointed out that L1 was banned by the LEP of the PYP, but the EFL teachers were not certain about this ban. This ban on L1 was not supported or even implemented by the EFL teachers. The participants reported in their interviews that L1 was used by them and/or their students and my EFL classroom observations supported this indication. My classroom observations revealed that the use of L1 by teachers and/or students was not random, but it facilitated teaching and learning of L2. L1 was used to serve core goals that were vital in improving the classroom environment. L1 was also used to accomplish framework goals that assisted in developing affective and material conditions of learning. Thus, this study urges the policy-makers in Barzan University to review the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Students' L1 should be perceived as a positive element inside the classroom and it should not be banned or neglected. The LEP of the PYP towards L1 should consider how students' L1 could be used to serve pedagogical values in language teaching and learning. The LEP of the PYP towards L1 should include the voices of the EFL teachers taking into consideration their experiences in teaching L2. This policy should treat students as bilinguals who will graduate from the PYP with two languages (English and Arabic) instead of attempting to turn them into native speakers of L2.

Chapter Seven

Conclusion

7.1 Chapter overview

This chapter will conclude this study. It will start with restating this research questions and it will summarise the major findings of this study to answer these questions. Then, it will acknowledge the limitations of this study in a separate section. After this, the contributions of this study will be illustrated. Finally, this chapter will conclude with my recommendations for future studies.

7.2 Findings summary

This section will restate the research questions and it will summarise the major findings of this study to answer these questions.

Q1- What is the language education policy (LEP) of the preparatory year programme (PYP) towards the use of L1, and what is the EFL teachers' attitude towards this policy?

This question explored the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University, as an institution, towards the use of learners' L1 (Arabic). This study revealed that the LEP of the PYP in Barzan University banned L1 in the EFL classrooms and this ban was administered by Zain, the Director of the English language centre (ELC), with support from the Dean of the PYP. However, this policy was covert because it was considered as a de facto policy instead of writing it in a formal document.

All the four EFL teachers in my study stated that the LEP of the PYP did not strictly ban L1 because they were not certain what the actual policy was. This uncertainty about the actual policy may have resulted from the treatment of it as a de facto policy instead of writing it in a formal document.

My data analysis indicated a disparity between the policy-makers in the PYP of Barzan University and the EFL teachers about the status of L1 in the EFL classroom. Zain strongly supported the strict ban on L1 by the LEP of the PYP whereas all the EFL teachers did not support banning L1.

Zain reported that he regularly used verbal and written reminders to clarify the LEP of the PYP towards L1 to his staff members. Zain added that he would sometimes ask the EFL teachers not to use L1 during his regular visits to their classes. However, two of the EFL teachers (John and Hamza) asserted that they have never been officially informed about the policy of using L1.

Zain suspected that the EFL teachers and particularly the ones who speak Arabic as their L1 did not actually implement the LEP of the PYP towards L1.

My conclusion from these findings is that the viewpoints of the EFL teachers on the LEP of the PYP towards L1 should not be ignored because their experiences and awareness about their classroom realities would enhance this policy. This policy should not neglect some of the factors such as most of the students in Barzan University share an L1 and some of the EFL teachers also share this L1 with their students. The LEP of the PYP towards L1 should adopt an optimal position that would acknowledge L1's role in facilitating the educational process in light of the findings in the third question of this study.

Q2- What do the ELC staff report to be their language practices inside and outside the EFL classroom?

This question explored the perceptions of the ELC members, as individuals, towards the use of L1 in their language practices. Zain contended again that he tended to make it explicit to the EFL teachers that L1 was not permitted everywhere in the PYP. Zain declared that he would warn any EFL teacher who uses L1 with his students that he violated the LEP of the PYP. On the other hand, Zain admitted that he would use L1 with the PYP students whenever they visited his ELC office because they did not usually have sufficient proficiency in L2.

The viewpoints of the participants, as EFL teachers, on the role of L1 in their and their students' language practices were explored. Four out of the five participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) conceded that they would use their students' L1 inside the EFL classes and they also acknowledged that their students would use both L1 and L2 in their interactions with them. The only exception was Steve who said that his inability to speak his students' L1 did not permit him to use it inside the EFL classroom and made it impossible for his students to use it in their interactions with him. This shows that the EFL teachers' ability to speak their students' L1 formed a significant factor in their attitude towards using their students' L1.

All the participants said that their EFL students tended to use L1 in the interactions among themselves, but in varying degrees. Zain declared that this would be the expected behaviour because students shared an L1, had low proficiency in L2 and had not received sufficient training in using L2 in public schools. The conclusion I draw from this is that instead of banning students from using L1, the focus of the LEP of the PYP towards L1 should perceive students' L1 as a positive element that would improve students' bilingual proficiency.

The majority of the participants (Steve, John and Ahmed) reported that they would permit their students to use L1 while two of the participants (Zain and Hamza) argued that they would ban their students from using it. It is possible that some of the participants' L1 influenced their attitude towards their students' use of L1.

Most of the participants (Zain, John, Hamza and Ahmed) remarked that they would use L1 outside their EFL classes and within the premises of the PYP with both other EFL teachers who speak students' L1 and with their students. Steve admitted that he would not use his students' L1 because he did not speak it. This points out that most of the participants were more concerned about using L1 inside their classes than outside them.

Despite the LEP of the PYP's ban on L1, all the participants revealed that this policy was not implemented by them and/or their students. Nonetheless, the participants had different opinions about the LEP of the PYP towards L1 and varied in their reported language practices in terms of implementing this policy inside and outside the EFL classroom.

Findings from this question revealed that the policy-makers did not consult the EFL teachers about the role of L1 inside the L2 classroom and how the LEP could provide students' L1 with a practical role inside the classroom for it to become a positive factor as the third question will reveal.

Q3- How do the EFL teachers' language practices relate to the LEP of the PYP?

This question examined the language practices of the four EFL teachers (Ahmed, Hamza, John and Steve) using classroom observations to identify how using students' L1 by teachers and/or students may facilitate teaching L2. The analysis of the language practices inside the EFL classrooms concentrated on the extent of the use of L1 in light of the research on the functions

of code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. Seven major functions of code-switching emerged from my analysis that included: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching.

None of the EFL teachers fully implemented the LEP of the PYP's ban on L1 -rather they used it themselves and/or permitted their students to use it- but they varied in the degree of their disregard of this policy. The participants varied in the amount of L1 that they used. Ahmed used the largest amount of L1 while Steve did not use his students' L1. The participants' use of L1 varied between one word to chunks of words. The participants also varied in the amount and frequency of their uses the functions of code-switching. Although Steve did not use his students' L1, he acknowledged that speaking it would improve his teaching approach.

L1 was used in all the observed EFL classes during interactions between the participants and their students and/or among the students, but in varying degrees. Steve tended to use speech modification techniques (see Walsh and Li Li, 2016) and strategies of negotiating meaning and form (see Ellis, 2008) to facilitate his interactions with the students because he did not speak their L1. However, these techniques and strategies did not stop Steve's students from using L1 to assist each other.

It seems that Ahmed and Hamza did not have a sense of linguistic gap between them and their students because they shared a common L1 whereas John and Steve were concerned about this linguistic gap.

The analysed functions of code-switching, except the other switching, revealed that the uses of students' L1 in the EFL classrooms were not random and L1 facilitated teaching and learning

of L2. However, the uses of the functions of code-switching that were analysed varied among the observed EFL classes between using all the analysed functions to using some of them.

The analysed functions of code-switching, except the other switching, indicated that these functions served either core goals or framework goals (see Littlewood and Yu, 2011). The metalanguage function, the repetitive function and the equivalence function served the core goals of teaching L2. One of the major reasons for using the metalanguage function and the repetitive function was teaching/learning L2 grammar. The main goal for using the equivalence function was teaching/learning L2 vocabulary. On the other hand, the classroom management function, the affective function and the socialising function were used to serve the framework goals to create affective and material conditions of learning. The 'other switching' function was the only exception because this function did not serve a crucial educational purpose.

My finding indicated that teachers of L2 and/or their students disregarded the LEP of the PYP towards L1. L1 was used to serve core goals or framework goals that assisted teachers and students in teaching and learning L2. My conclusion from these findings is that the LEP of the PYP should permit the use of L1 to improve the educational process. This policy should provide teachers and students with the authority of deciding the form of optimal uses of L2 and L1 in light of the immediate context of the classroom and teachers' experiences.

7.3 Study limitations

This study has several limitations that need to be pointed out. Firstly, this is a case study inquiry that was conducted in a single newly established university in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, findings from this study do not necessarily apply to the other universities. Due to the limited time scale of the data collection for this study, it was not possible to conduct this study in more than one

university. To overcome this limitation, I recommend conducting similar studies in the other universities to see if similar results would emerge from these universities.

Another limitation is that only male members of Barzan University participated in this study. This study contains classroom observations, interviews and reflections, but cultural and administrative obstacles made it impossible to ask female members of this university to participate. This study may have different results if the female members of Barzan University participated. I would recommend conducting a similar study within the female campus of a university in Saudi Arabia to discover if similar results would emerge.

One of the limitations of this study is that all the classes that were observed in this study were from the third level of the intensive EFL module in the PYP of Barzan University. Classroom observations were conducted in this level only because the majority of the PYP students were attending it during data collection of this study. Classes from the first, the second and the fourth levels of this intensive module were not included. Studying classes from the first or the second levels of this intensive module where students are at the early stages of experiencing English as a medium of instruction may have produced different results. The classes of the fourth level of the intensive EFL module where students are about to pass the intensive EFL module may also have produced different results. Therefore, I would recommend conducting a similar study within all the levels of the intensive EFL module to find out whether similar results would be discovered.

Another limitation of this study was the short time for data collection and the tight schedules of the participants. This limitation did not provide me sufficient time to transcribe my classroom observations and to conduct comprehensive revision of them before conducting the reflections meetings with the EFL teachers. Consequently, I had to rely on my fieldnotes during these

meetings to avoid this limitation. It is possible that showing my transcripts of the classroom observations would have assisted the EFL teachers in enhancing their memory about my observations.

7.4 Study contributions

This study's main contribution to knowledge is investigating the LEP of the PYP towards L1 and its implementation in a newly established university in Saudi Arabia. Students' L1 (Arabic) is the medium of instruction in high school education of Saudi Arabia. On the other hand, the English language (L2) is the medium of instruction in undergraduate education of Saudi Arabia and particularly in medical and science colleges. The universities use the English language as the medium of instruction to provide students with access to the most updated literature in their undergraduate major. However, students tend to graduate from high schools with low proficiency in L2. This factor led Saudi universities to introduce the PYP in recent years. The PYP's major objective is bridging the resultant gap between high school education and undergraduate education. This study focused on studying the intensive EFL module that PYP students have to attend and pass to be allowed to select their preferred undergraduate major. The newly established universities are mainly located in small cities of Saudi Arabia where the Arabic language is the dominant medium of interaction in the daily life of their communities. These universities largely expanded high school graduates' opportunities of pursuing their undergraduate education. This study conducted an interpretive case study inquiry with a qualitative orientation to investigate the relationship between the LEP of the PYP towards L1 in Barzan University and the language practices of EFL teachers. The literature shows that this relationship has not been investigated before in Saudi newly established universities. The focus

of this study was on the role of L1 in the LEP of the PYP and the impact of this policy on using L1 by the EFL teachers and/or their students.

Findings from this study agreed with what other researchers have found that the LEP of the PYP banned L1 (see for example Kang, 2008; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Simon, 2001). However, the EFL teachers were not certain about this ban (see for example Shohamy, 2006; Wiley and García, 2016). The EFL teachers did not support or implement the LEP of PYP's ban on L1 (see for example Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013; Glasgow, 2014).

In the interviews, all the participants revealed that they and/or their students were using L1 (see for example Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013; Creese, 2005 cited in Asker and Martin-Jones, 2013, p. 345; Raschka, et al., 2009; Tien, 2009). This included Zain, the Director of the ELC, who strongly supported banning L1, but admitted that he was using L1 and permitted his students to use it in their interactions with him.

My classroom observations indicated that L1 was actually used in the EFL classrooms by the teachers and/or their students (see for example Creese and Leung, 2003; Hornberger and Johnson, 2007). The EFL teachers' use of L1 varied between extensive use of it to not using it (see for example Copland and Neokleous, 2011; Duff and Polio, 1990).

This use of L1 was not random, but it had a crucial role in enhancing the classroom environment (see for example Bullock and Toribio, 2009; Sert, 2005). The use of L1 was analysed in light of the research on code-switching between L1 and L2 in the L2 classroom. Seven functions of code-switching were discovered in the studied EFL classrooms. These functions were: metalanguage function; repetitive function; equivalence function; classroom management

function; affective function; socialising function; and other switching. The participants varied in the functions of code-switching that they used and/or permitted their students to use.

The classroom observations clarified that the studied functions of code-switching, except the 'other switching' function, served either core goals or framework goals of teaching L2 (see Littlewood and Yu, 2011). The metalanguage function, the repetitive function and the equivalence function served core goals of teaching mainly L2 grammar and vocabulary. The classroom management function, the affective function and the socialising function were used to achieve framework goals to develop affective and material conditions of learning. My data indicated that using L1 to serve core goals was significant in improving the classroom environment. Otherwise, banning L1 would obstruct the teaching and learning of L2. This would also hinder teacher/student(s) interaction and student/student interaction. On the other hand, the framework goals, except the socialising function, were not used in all the observed EFL classrooms. I would recommend the policy-makers in their reconsideration of the LEP of the PYP towards L1 to discourage the EFL teachers from using L1 to serve framework goals. This recommendation would expand EFL students' opportunities of listening to and practising L2 to improve their learning. However, this recommendation cannot be implemented in the socialising function. Findings showed the high significance of this function during exchanging the Islamic greeting between teachers and students. The Islamic greeting has a religious and cultural value that would make it difficult to be banned inside the EFL classroom.

This study urges policy-makers to reconsider the LEP towards using L1 in teaching L2. The LEP should consider the viewpoints of teachers of L2 and recognize the positive role that students' L1 may play in facilitating the teaching and learning of L2. The policy-makers should conduct meetings with teachers of L2, in a form of workshops for instance. The teachers of L2

should be encouraged to express their opinions in these meetings about the role of students' L1 in the LEP. It is possible for these meetings to assist language teachers in exchanging their opinions with their colleagues about when and how L1 could serve as a positive element inside the classroom. These meeting could assist the policy-makers in developing an LEP towards L1 that states clear parameters for teachers of L2 about when and how to use students' L1 inside the classroom to serve pedagogical values. Therefore, this study supports adopting an "English-mainly" policy instead of an English-only policy (see McMillan and Rivers, 2011).

On the other hand, this study invites the question as to how relevant its findings are for other language-teaching contexts. The argument of the thesis has been that the LEP towards using L1 is very specific to each context. Clearly, then, the findings cannot be universally applied. However, the recommendations that the position of L1 in the LEP should be considered in relation to each specific context, and that the voices and experience of teachers of L2 should be taken into account, are widely applicable. Where contexts are similar, this research could be used as the foundation for discussion and policy debate.

7.5 Recommendations for future research

This section will discuss my recommendations for future research based on the findings and the limitations of this study. First of all, female faculty members of the PYP in Barzan University have not been included in this study as a result of cultural and administrative obstacles. Therefore, I would recommend conducting a similar study within the female campus of a university to compare its results with the findings of this study to see if similar or different findings would emerge.

The voices of the PYP students in the researched PYP have not been included. Studying the attitude of the PYP students towards the role of L1 in the LEP of the PYP is significant. I would also recommend studying the PYP students' perspectives towards the use of L1 by them and their EFL teachers. The results of such study could be integrated with the findings of this study to create more robust arguments regarding the LEP of the PYP towards L1. Studying PYP students could enrich the recommendation by other researchers such as Cook (1999), Hall and Cook (2012) and Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2005) to treat learners of EFL as bilinguals.

The findings of this study highlighted the necessity of conducting additional interpretive case studies inside the EFL classroom to understand the actual use of L1 by teachers and/or their students. This study was conducted in the third level of the EFL module where all the students in the observed classes passed the first and second levels of the intensive EFL module. In the first level of the intensive EFL module, students would be joining this module after finishing their secondary school that uses the Arabic language as its medium of instruction. It would be interesting to conduct a similar study in the first level of the EFL module to explore the uses of L1 by the teachers and/or their students. Such a study would assist in analysing the influences of the LEP and the development of students' proficiency in L2 in the uses of L1 inside the EFL classroom.

Conducting similar studies in the PYP of other newly established universities in Saudi Arabia to further investigate the relationship between the LEP of the PYP towards L1 and the language practices of the EFL teachers and their students would provide additional opportunities to gain deep understanding of the use of L1 in foreign language contexts. These studies may assist in supporting this study's recommendation to rescind the LEP's strict ban on L1 and adopt an English "mainly" policy that would reconsider when, how and where to use L1 in EFL

classroom effectively to achieve pedagogical values as the findings of this study revealed (See for example Garton, 2014; McMillan and Rivers, 2011; Raschka, et al., 2009).

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Appendices

Appendix I

<u>Hamza's Fourth Class</u>

Hamza: [To the researcher individually before the beginning of class] But this time, you will be hearing some Arabic. [Laughs]

Hamza: Alright! Let's start our class. Please, put your mobile phone in the box. Come on. Put your mobile phone… in the box, please and let's see what we have here… OK? Now, so, what's our topic? Our topic is… past actions past actions and we have two past actions. The first one will be what? The first one will be past simple. Past what?

AS: Simple

Hamza: past simple and the other one will be what? Past?

AS: continuous

Hamza: continuous… So, … Usually

A student entering the class: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>.

Hamza: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <Reply to Islamic greeting>. Please, put your mobile phone here and sit down… Will you please just… turn over your book? Just turn over your book like this and be with me. Try to understand the idea. So far you and we, we have dealt with present simple and we used to… we used to talk about one action… I go. I speak. I eat. You drink. She drinks. One action and also we dealt with… past simple. It's one action. I met. I ate. I slept. I took. I wrote. You wrote. She wrote. She sat. One action, but this time, we are going to deal with two actions. Can we talk about past continuous in English with only one action? Usually, no. If you want to use past continuous, you have to use it with… with another action. Do we have like this in Arabic? We don't have like this in Arabic. We don't have like this in Arabic… So, if you want to talk about past continuous, you have to deal with two actions not one action. Usually, we deal with two actions. How do we how do we deal with this? And we don't have… like this action or actions in Arabic. We don't have like this in Arabic. OK! Forget about the language in Arabic because we we just talk. We don't think of the Arabic grammar. We're dealing with English grammar now. OK! I'm gonna switch a little bit to… Arabic language. OK? Now, be with me… زياد… زياد… قبل ثلاث ليالي كان نايم في Three nights ago البيت. الساعة كانت اثنعش ونص بعد منتصف الليل. زياد نايم على سريره <Zyad… Zyad… was sleeping at home. The time was twelve-thirty after midnight. Zyad was sleeping in his bed>. Snoring [making a snoring sound]. Do you snore?

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AS: No.

Hamza: You don't snore? How do you know?

[Some students are laughing.]

Hamza: How do you know that you don't snore? You have to ask… one of the members of your family.

AS: (XXXX)

Hamza: But he said no. He doesn't snore. OK! ...نايم. نايم بالليل ونص اثنعش الساعة سريره على نايم زياد إذاً <So, Zyad was sleeping on his bed at twelve-thirty at night. أخوك؟ اسم وش. أخوه. النوم في مستغرق Sleeping… deep sleeping. His brother. What's your brother's name?>

AS: محمد <Mohammed>

Hamza: الغرفة من شيء وخذا ودخل، زياد فيها نايم الي الغرفة البدروم، باب وفتح جاء محمد. محمد <Mohammed. Mohammed came and opened the door of the bedroom, the room where Zyad was sleeping in, and entered and took something from the room>. [Hamza is slamming the classroom door] زياد مسكين. الطريقة بهذي الباب وسكر <and he closed the door this way. Poor Zyad> [Hamza is acting like getting up suddenly with fear] نم. بس. اسكت قاله محمد فيه؟ وش. النوم من مفزوع قام قاله أمس؟ سويت وش قاله. لمحمد جاء، الصباح في زياد قام يوم. ثانية مره نام زياد رجع. ثانية مره نام مسكين He> الصباح؟ اربع الساعة ولا اثنعش؟ الساعة عن يتكلم بدء وشو؟ عن عن عن يتكلم فبدء... جيت إلا قاله. شي ماسويت woke up frightened. What's happening? What's happening? Mohammed said to him shut up. Go back to sleep. The poor went back to sleep again. Zyad went back to sleep again till the morning. When Zyad woke up in the morning, he came to Mohammed. He said to him what have you done yesterday? He said I did not do anything. He said no, you came… And he started to talk about about about what? He started to talk about twelve o'clock? Or four o'clock in the morning?>

AS: لا <No>.

Hamza: المؤقتة؟ اللحظة هي وش. مؤقتة لحظة عن يتكلم بدء ست؟ الساعة ولا <Or six o'clock? He started to talk about a temporary moment. What is this temporary moment?>

AS: اثنعش <twelve>

Hamza: وخذا الباب وفتح أخوه ماجاء إلى ونص اثنعش هي الي <that is twelve-thirty when his brother came and opened the door and took>

A student entering the class: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>

Hamza: وبركاته الله ورحمة السلام وعليكم <Reply to Islamic greeting>. بقوة الباب وسكر <and slammed the door>. Put your mobile here and sit down. وبركاته الله ورحمة السلام وعليكم <Reply to Islamic

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greeting<. شف هذي اللحظة الي بدء زياد يتناقش مع أخوه عليها. الي هي كم مدتها؟ يمكن خمس دقايق. هذي هي See this moment that Zyad started to discuss with his brother about. How long الماضي المستمر.> is it? It may be five minutes. This is the past continuous.>. This is past continuous. And that's أي عمل في الماضي كان مستمر وحدث معه حدث آخر قاطعه، لحظة دخول الحدث على الحدث المستمر it. Any action in the past that لحظة دخول محمد الي هو الحدث... الي دخل على العمل المستمر. وش هو المستمر؟ > was continuous was continuous and another action happened with it interrupting it. The moment of an action interrupting another continuous action the moment when Mohammed entered which is the action… that entered the continuous action. Which is the continuous? >

AS: النوم <the sleeping>

Hamza: النوم. النوم مستمر من اثنعش ونص إلى. من اثنعش يمكن. مادري متى ينام. إحنا ما ما عرفنا إحنا بدنا. خذينا لحظة مؤقته. من إثنعش ونص يمكن بدء. الساعة إحدعش نام. ماندري و... إستيقظ. مايهمنا لا قبل ولا بعد إحنا... اللحظة الي إثنعش ونص. هذي اللحظة الي كان العمل مستمر، دخل عليه عمل آخر قطعه قطعه. ممكن يوقف هو أحياناً بس يدخل عليه يعطله شوي يرجع ويكمل. هذا العمل المستمر الي كان مستمر ودخل عليه عمل آخر. هذا هو اسمه لحظة الماضي المستمر <The sleeping. The sleeping is continuous from twelve-thirty to. It may be from twelve o'clock. I don't know when he goes to sleep. We don't don't know we want. We took a temporary moment. He may have started from twelve-thirty. He slept at eleven o'clock. We don't know and… he woke up. We are not interested about before or after we… the moment which is twelve-thirty. This moment where the action was continuous, it was interrupted interrupted by another action. It may stop sometimes where it is interrupted for a short period and it continues again. This continuous action that was continuous and it was interrupted by another action. It is called the moment of past continuous.>. So, here we have a continuous action. عندنا عمل مستمر <We have a continuous action>. OK?... And we don't know exactly when it started or when it will finish. ماعندنا (XXXX) هذ اللحظة. لا قبل ولا بعد <We don't have (XXXX) before or after. This moment>. Twelve thirty OK? a.m. simple past على هذي اللحظة. in this moment. هذي اللحظة الي كان فيها العمل مستمر ودخل معه عمل آخر. هذي اللحظة المؤقتة ماضي مستمر> This moment where the action was continuous and interrupted by another action. This temporary moment is past continuous>. So, how can we write this? I'll tell you how we can write this. While… while Zyad was sleeping comma his brother Mohammed… opened the door… OK! or the room or whatever. OK? while Zyad was sleeping, his brother Mohammed opened the door… Slammed. He slammed the door of the room because we don't want to use the the verb slam. Opened. OK? So, while Zyad was sleeping. This is the continuous action in the past continuous past action. هذا عمل مستمر في الماضي. كان مستمر كان مستمر. طيب هو الآن مستمر؟ <This action is continuous in the past. Was continuous was continuous. So, is it continuous now?>

AS: لا <No>.

Hamza: No, we are we are now at present. Zyad is not sleeping. Now, he's in my class. طيب طيب حنا لما نرجع للماضي، وش نرجع؟ شلون نرجع؟ بجسمنا؟ ولا نرجع بعقلنا؟ .We are going back <OK>. <So, when we go back to the past, what do we go back? How do we go back? With our bodies? Or with our minds?>. Say this is imagination. This is what? Imagination. إذا هناك أعمال. نرجع للماضي نفكر فيها <Therefore, there are actions. We go back to the past and think about them>. OK? نستعيدها، نتكلم عنها <we retrieve them. We talk about them>. So, we have to use our

imagination. Alright! We don't go there when you talk about past. So, here while Zyad was sleeping, his brother, Mohammed, opened the door. See here? Opened. This is verb two. And was sleeping. This is past continuous. This is what? Past continuous. Now, we can write the sentence again using different style. How? We can write when when Mohammed… Mohammed, Zyad's brother, when Mohammed opened… the door of the room, Zyad

A student entered the class: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>.

Hamza: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <Reply to Islamic greeting>. was sleeping [writing on the board]. It's the same, yeah. It's the same the same idea, but the style is different. Here we have used while and here we have used what? When. While بينما <while>, when عندما <when>. If you want to… just to… equivalent of the mean while بينما <while> and when عندما <when>. So, when Mohammed opened the door of the room, Zyad was sleeping. OK? When Mohammed entered the room. This is past… this one is what? One action past. There was another action which was what continuous action. That is past continuous and that's it. This is الماضي المستمر يستخدم للتعبير عن حدثين حدثا في الماضي past continuous and nothing else… In short, <The past continuous is used to describe two actions that happened in the past>. You cannot talk about one action. There must be two actions. إذا تبي تتكلم عن الماضي المستمر <If you want to talk about the past continuous>, there must be two actions not one action. يستخدم يستعمل في اللغة الإنجليزية للحديث أو للكلام أو للكتابة عن حدثين أو عملين حدثا في الماضي. أحدهما كان مستمر والآخر حدث معه أو قطعه. الحدث المستمر ماضي مستمر والي قطعه <It is used, used in the English language to speak, talk or write about two actions or two doings that happened in the past. One of them was continuous and the other happened with it or interrupted it. The continuing action is past continuous and the interrupting action is> verb two past simple and that's all. Yes?

AS: (XXXX)

Hamza: In English. Yes?

AS: … I need example of… past simple.

Hamza: This is past simple. This is past simple opened. This one is past simple opened.

AS: We can… we can use… simple past simple or we can use… the continuous?

Hamza: …

AS: (XXXX)

Hamza: OK! OK! OK! OK! I'll give you. You can use past simple for completed past action. You can use past simple with completed past action. If any action happened in the past and finished in the past, you can use past simple.

AS: … You mean you can use… for

Hamza: I don't need anything. I'm giving you the answer to your question. You asked when can I use past simple. You can use past simple for an action. That is

A student entered the class: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>.

Hamza: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <Reply to Islamic greeting>. That started in the past and finished in the past. You can use past simple like this. If you have to use past continuous if you have to use past continuous, you can use past continuous to talk about two actions. One action was continuing or happening and another action happened with him

A student entered the class: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>

AS: Yes.

Hamza: with it. Now, the the long action وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <Reply to Islamic greeting>. The long action will be past continuous and the short action will be past simple. That's it. Got it now? This is what I had. Do not try to compare. There's no comparison here. And do not try to separate the two action. One for past simple, you cannot. The short action will be past simple and the long action will be past continuous. Look at the example and we'll come to know. Look at. Which is the long the longest action or which action is long?

AS: sleeping.

Hamza: Sleeping. Zyad is… was sleeping. This is the long action and which one is the short action. It took only two or three minutes or five minutes.

AS: Open

Hamza: Open the door. Open. When you open the door, how many minutes do you need to open the door? You need ten seconds or maybe five seconds. So, this is a very short action. With short action, you use past simple. And with long action, you use past continuous. All in the past. OK? It's a moment. It's a short moment in the past. Yeah. OK? Anyone would like to ask more questions? Anyone would like to ask more questions? Alright! Now, let's see what we have here. We have more examples. More examples, we'll see. OK! Come on. Come on. Alright! Now, page one hundred and six, for those who came late, page one hundred and six. Some students came late. I think, yeah. So, what do we have here? We have simple past and past continuous tense. Look at these examples. Number one, who wants to read?

Ss: …

Hamza: No one? Zyad!

AS: He had… an operation in… nineteen nine.

Hamza: This is what?

Another S: …

Hamza: This is past simple. One action this is one action. It happened in nineteen ninety-one. It's one action only. An action that started in the past and completed and finished in the past. This is past simple. Now, number two number two. Abdulmajeed!

AS: She she vomited blood last night.

Hamza: OK! She vomited blood last night. This is past simple one action. You know the meaning of vomited. She took off the food out of her stomach. OK? She vomited last night. This is E, Zain vomited… past regular verb with last night one action. This is past simple. OK! Number three, number three, anyone would like to read? Yes?

AS: … She broke… her arm… there days

Hamza: Three

AS: three days… ago

Hamza: This is again past simple. She broke her arm three days ago. She broke. Over. One action. This is past simple. Now, let's see four, five and six. Let me go a little bit up and see what we have here. OK! Come on. God! What's this? I don't know a butterfly or a mosquito… OK! Now, number four. Who wants to read? Mohammed!

AS: At nine…

Hamza: What?

AS: At…

Hamza: At what? You said at nine!

AS: At nine… number four?

Hamza: Yeah, number four. You said at nine! Is it nine? Your book is different from our book?

AS: At nine…

Hamza: OK! What… Whatever come on come on whatever. At whatever come on. It's OK. At ten. I don't know. [Short laugh] come on.

AS: At eight p.m., I was… writing the (XXXX).

Hamza: OK! Now, forget about the… the previous sentences. Look at this sentence. Number four, at eight p.m. at eight p.m. we are talking about what? Exactly at… we are not talking

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about seven. And and also we are not talking about at nine o'clock as Mohammed said at nine. At eight, exactly, at eight, I was writing the duty rota. I was writing the duty rota. Duty rota it's a timetable for duty. It's a timetable for duty.

AS: where's the… second… action…?

Hamza: No, no, no, still still. He gave us an action here and an action and here he's going to join the two the two actions together. Now, he's he's moving… OK? Step by step step by step. He's giving us this action and here, he's giving another action and he's going to join the two actions to make a past continuous full sentence, but, now, look at this. At eight, I was writing the duty rota. Now, if I ask you I. You said I was writing. What were you doing at seven-thirty?

Ss: I don't know.

Hamza: I don't know. It's not here… At eight, I was writing the duty rota. What about seven-forty-five?

AS: I don't know.

Hamza: Nobody knows. What about… nine o'clock? We don't know. So, we are we are talking about a very short action at a particular time. At what? At a particular time and that's it. We are not concerned about the previous or the… action after that. OK! Now, number five, anyone would like to read? Just read. Yes, Saud.

AS: The… nurse was making the bed when the patient arrived.

Hamza: Uh-huh! This is two action. Doctor Hamad! This is what you asked for. The nurse was making the bed when the patient arrived. The nurse was making the bed when the patient arrived. What was the nurse doing when the patient arrived?

AS: the making the bed.

Hamza: What was the nurse doing when the patient arrived?

AS: … She was making the bed.

Another S: making the bed

Hamza: She was making the bed. إذاً عندما وصل المريض إلى غرفته إلى سريرة، الممرضة كانت؟ <Therefore, when the patient arrived to his room to his bed, the nurse was?> She was what? She was making the bed. كانت ترتب السرير. طيب متى بدئت ترتيب السرير؟ متى انتهت؟ <she was making the bed. So, when did she start making the bed? When did she finish?>. [Short laugh] I don't know. So, we don't need to know when did she start and when did she when did she finish. We need to know exactly at the time when the patient came to his bed. لما المريض جاء إلى سريرة،

هو وش يبي في السرير؟ يبي... يرتاح على السرير. وجد أنه مايقدر. إذاً ما همه،... متى بدئت ومتى تنتهي. هو الآن يبي السرير. يلا خلاص روحي (XXXX) <When the patient came to his bed. What does he want from his bed? He wants… to rest in the bed. He found that he couldn't. Therefore, he didn't care… when she started and when she would finish> He wants his bed now. OK go away finish (XXXX).>. So, he wants to sit. He wants to sleep on his bed because he's tired. He so, he's interested in in what? In a very short moment. He wants that particular moment. That bed on a particular… moment. يمكن السرير أمس ما كان حقه، حق... مريض ثاني <The bed may be not his yesterday. It belongs to… another patient.>, but today he's he's here. He needs it now. OK! So, the nurse was making the bed when the patient arrived. This is past simple and this is what? Past continuous. This one, in a way, it's… it's longer and this one is a short action. And this is a little bit longer that that one. لأن الوصول يأخذ ثواني، أما ترتيب السرير يأخذ دقائق <because arriving takes seconds whereas making the bed takes minutes>. So, this is longer than OK? Arriving… Number six, who wants to read? Hamad!

AS: While… while his… arranging the bed, … the patient arrived.

Hamza: Uh-huh! It's the same. Almost the same, but, in this sentence,

AS: When

Hamza: he used while. In six, he used while and, in five, he used when as I did with my sentence here while and when.

AS: So, the same meaning?

Hamza: Yeah, it's the same. Yeah, it's the same, but you can change this the way how we write the sentence, but the meaning is same. While the nurse was making the bed, the patient arrived. بينما الممرضة كانت ترتب السرير <While the nurse was making the bed> OK? The patient arrived وصل المريض <the patient arrived>. Now, number seven, number seven, anybody can help? Yes? Hamad!

AS: While the dentist… was cleaning the patient's… teeth, his assistant was… suctioning.

Hamza: OK! While the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth إذا بينما كان طبيب الأسنان ينظف <So, while the dentist was cleaning>

A student entering the class: السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>.

Hamza: وعليكم السلام ورحمة الله وبركاته <Reply to Islamic greeting>.

AS: I'm sorry teacher.

Hamza: OK! It's OK. So, while the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth, بينما كان طبيب الأسنان ينظف أسنان المريض. شغال هو قاعد ينظف... أسنان المريض شغال <While the dentist was cleaning the patient's teeth. He is working cleaning… the patient's teeth working>. This is a

continuous action in the past. عمل مستمر في لحظة الماضي <continuous action in the moment of the past>, his assistant… المساعد أو المساعدة <his assistant male or female> was suck suck. You know the meaning of suck? شفط <suck> suck. OK? Suctioning كانت تشفط ال... الأشياء الي تطلع <was suctioning the… things that come out> OK? So, so, this one is what? Past continuous and this one is past continuous. Oh! Can we… put two continuous actions together? Yes, yes, we can. How? You said that one action was… happening and… another action happened with. OK. That's fine. وقال بينما حنا شغالين بمحاضرتنا، فجأة دخل علينا طالب اسمه مهند <While we were busy with our class, suddenly a student named Mohanned entered the class. And he said> I'm sorry… ووضع... الجوال حقه وجلس. هذا دخل علينا. حنا عملنا مستمر ودخل مهند علينا. قطع عملنا، بس ما اوقفه. قطع قطع السالفة لأنه... انتبهتوا له؟ ولا لأ؟ ولا ما انتبهت له؟ <And he put… his mobile and sat down. He entered our class. Our action was continuous and Mohanned entered our class. He interrupted our action, but he didn't stop it. He interrupted interrupted our talk because he… Did you notice him? Or not? Or you did not notice him?>.

AS: إلا انتبهت له <Yes, I noticed him>.

Hamza: ايه، قطع السالفة. بعدين دخل وحط و <Yes, he interrupted the talk. Then, he entered and put and>… This is what? Past continuous. طيب ألا ألا يجوز أنه يكون عندنا هنا <So, Is it is is OK that we also have here> past continuous وجنبنا شيء اسمه <And besides us something called> past continuous بدينا مع بعض. أنا بديت الساعة تسع إلى <This is it>. This is past continuous. هذا هو <This is it?>. We started together. I started at nine to ten and الساعة عشر والدكتور تسع إلى عشر. حنا بدينا مع بعض <We started together. I started at nine to ten and the doctor at nine to ten. We started together>. This is past continuous and this is past continuous. مايصير عملين يشتغلوا مع بعض؟ يبدأو مع بعض وينتهوا مع بعض؟ <Could two actions work together? They start together and finish together?>

AS: (XXXX)

Hamza: Oh! God! You came late. I have to again.

[Some students are laughing]

Hamza: هذي مشكلتك يا سعود. أنت أمس... عبرت لي واليوم <This is your problem Saud. You yesterday… expressed to me and today>. I'm sorry.

AS: (XXXX).

Hamza: طيب أمس أمس أمس. أمس الأربعاء، ماكان الدكتور... شغال هنا من الساعة تسع إلى عشر؟ <OK yesterday yesterday yesterday. Wednesday yesterday, wasn't the doctor… working here from nine to ten?>

AS: ما أدري <I don't know>.

Hamza: حنا أمس من الساعة تسع إلى عشر، كنا شغالين ولا لأ؟ <We yesterday from nine to ten, were we working or not?>.

AS: إيه <Yes>.

Hamza: طيب هذا ماهو هذا أمس ماضي؟ كان مستمر من تسع إلى عشر عملنا؟ والدكتور؟ كان مستمر من تسع إلى عشر؟ أمس؟ ولا لأ؟ مع بعض؟ <OK this yesterday, wasn't it a past? Our action was continuous from nine to ten? And the doctor's? His action was continuous from nine to ten? Yesterday? Or not? Together?>. So, two sentences with was… OK! Was or were plus base, I, N, G and that was… OK? You got it now? Yes?

AS: Now is it for…

Hamza: Forget about now. لأنه أنا آسف إني أعطيت مثال <I'm sorry that I gave an example> now لأنه <because it is a problem. Any any attempt to connect>… مشكلة هذي. أي أي وضع محاولة لإلصاق I'm sorry. Forget about. Talk about yesterday. Talk about last week. Don't talk about now. Yes?

AS: … the action… he… this (XXXX)… this action is…

Hamza: Which one? You are talking about this one?

AS: Yes.

Hamza: You don't have… first action or second action two actions together.

AS: together?

Hamza: Together.

AS: … does it… You need to stop any… actions?

Hamza: We don't care about when the first action… this action started as a… when it did when did it start or when when it will finish. We are we're interested in the moment only. حنا بس مهتمين في لحظة ماهم الاثنين مع بعض. متى بدء ومتى ينتهي مايهمنا. لا هذا ولا هذا <We are only interested in the moment when the two are together. We are not interested in when they started and when they finished. Both of them>.

AS: ماهو مع الفعل يعني؟ <You mean not with the verb?>

Hamza: لا لا. مع بعض، مع بعض. هذا… المدرس أمس، قطع محاضرتنا؟ حنا قطعنا محاضرته؟ اشتغلنا مع بعض الاثنين؟ <No, no, together, together. This… teacher yesterday, did he interrupt our class? Did we interrupt his class? Did we work together?>.

AS: لا <No>.

Hamza: هو اشتغل… هو اشتغل ساعة وأنا اشتغلت ساعة. قطعنا بعض؟ دخلنا على بعض؟ حنا نعرف وش درس؟ هو يعرف وش درسنا؟ بس كنا شغالين مع بعض <He worked… He worked for an hour and I worked for an hour. Did we interrupt each other? Did any of us enter the other's class? Do we know what he

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taught? Does he know what we taught? But we worked together.>. This is past continuous. إذاً الماضي المستمر هو عبارة عن خيال ترجع بالماضي إلى أعمال. الحركة الأولى عمل كان OK? Got it now? مستمر. إنت كنت نايم وأبوك جاء يبي يتأكد إنك تنام بالبيت ولا ما تنام بالبيت. يبي يتأكد لأنه متعود عليك... أحياناً يجي Therefore, the past continuous consists of an imagination <ما... فتح الباب ها سالم! أي يبه أنا نايم أنا نايم that you go back to actions in the past. The first action was continuous. You were sleeping and your father came to make sure whether you are sleeping in the house or not. He wants to make sure because he is used to you… he sometimes comes and… He opened the door O'Salem! Yes, father I am sleeping I am sleeping> [with a sleepy voice] نام نام خلاص مشى خلاص. هذا ماضي مستمر. ايهم الماضي المستمر؟ سالم نومه بداخل سريره هذا كان عمل مستمر. دخل عليه والده. قطع العمل. صحي سالم... نام خلاص وراح. فدخل عليه دقائق دقيقة وطلع مشى. الآن، العمل المستمر هذا نستخدم معه الماضي OK go back to sleep go back to sleep and he went and that's <المستمر والعمل الي قطعه أو حدث معه it. This is past continuous. Which one is the past continuous? Salem Sleeping inside his bed was a continuous action. His father entered his room. He interrupted the action. Salem woke up… Go back to sleep it's OK and left. He entered for a few minutes and went out and left. Now, we use past continuous with this continuous action and with the action that interrupted or coincided with>. We use verb two. OK? Now, let's go to number one down… Now, let's see the information here. The simple past tense is used to talk about activities or situations that began and ended in a particular time in the past. OK? The simple past tense is used to talk about activities or situations. <إذاً يستخدم للحديث عن أعمال وحالات So, it is used to talk about actions and situations> that began and ended بدئت وانتهت <started and finished> at a particular time في وقت معين <at a particular time> in the past في الماضي <in the past>. Like yesterday, last night, two days ago, in 1990 as in exercise one in… sentence one and two and three as we saw. Yes?

AS: Can use… date?... In one one thousand and ninety

Hamza: In 1990, in 2000, in 2002 past, past years.

AS: Past years teacher no problem.

Hamza: Last year What?

AS: (XXXX) يعني <it means> (XXXX)

Hamza: Yeah, yeah, yeah, in 1660, in 1555, before five hundred years. Yes, it's past, yeah. OK? Now, this is past simple. Now, the past continuous الماضي المستمر <Past continuous> expresses an action that was in progress. يعبر عن عمل أو حدث <it expresses an action or event> was in progress. كان <was> in progress بالماضي شغال. متى؟ <in progress. When? In the past> at a specific time in the past. في وقت محدد في الماضي <in a specific time at the past>. As in four كما As in> في الجملة رقم أربعة، متى كان مستمر؟ الساعة ثمان. الجملة الرابعة الساعة ثمان كان مستمر العمل. طيب قبل؟ sentence number four. When was it continuous? At eight o'clock. Sentence number four at eight o'clock the action was continuous. What about before?> I don't know. After? I don't know. Or at the time of another action. كما في <Or at the time of another action. As in> as in with with a particular as in five and six. عمل كان لاحظوا الجملة خمسة وستة. العمل المستمر Pay attention to sentences five and six. An action was> مستمر وحدث معه عمل عمل آخر.

continuous and another action, action happened with it. The continuous action> was or were plus base I, N, G والعمل الآخر <and the other action> verb two. أو أحياناً الحدثين لا يلتقيان مع بعض. يعني ما يدخل واحد على الغرفة ويوقف العمل. أحياناً يكون العمل مثل ماحنا ندّرس هنا، في هناك أكثر من أربعين محاضرة شغالة من الساعة تسعة إلى عشر. ولا لأ؟ <Or, sometimes, the two actions don't intersect with each other. That is someone does not enter the room and stop the action. Sometimes, the action is similar to when we are teaching here, there are more than forty classes in progress between nine and ten. Or not?>

AS: ايه <Yes>

Hamza: كله هذي ماضي مستمر. إذا تكلمنا عن أمس أو أول أمس أو الأسبوع الماضي. كله هذي تعتبر ماضي مستمر. ولا أحد دخل على الثاني <All of these are past continuous. If we talk about yesterday, the day before yesterday or last week. All of these are considered past continuous. And no one intersected with the other>. We can also use past continuous in these cases. OK? As in number six. Number three, when two actions are in progress the same at the same time in the past, the past continuous can be used in both parts of the sentence… This is number seven… number five and six two actions happen together, but in number seven, as I told you, two actions were happening at the same time, but there is no connection between the two actions as in number seven. Alright? The… dentist was what? Cleaning the patient teeth while the assistant was what? Was suctioning OK? And that's it. OK? This is past continuous. Let's see what we have… Come on. God! It's too slow… I don't know what happened… I can only see… blank page. What happened? Oh! Look, look at this. Look at this. All of a sudden something happened here. Unexpected [talking to himself] … Which one is this?

AS: It's… one-oh-six

Hamza: One-oh-six? Huh? Twenty-one… OK! Now, it's the… the… the next page. Let's see what we have here. Now, number four, use the past continuous to focus on the duration of an action, not its completion. إذاً… الماضي المستمر إذا إستخدمناه، بالإنجليزي طبعاً ماعندنا بالعربي أصلاً منه، إحنا نركز على <Therefore… If we use past continuous, in English, of course, we do not have it in Arabic in the first place, we focus in> duration في دائماً. متى بدء أو متى إنتهى متى على وليس الحدث وقت <the duration of the event and not in> الماضي المستمر مايهمنا متى بدء العمل الساعة كم والساعة كم ينتهي when it started or when it finished. We are always, in the past continuous, not interested in what time the action started and what time it finished>. Look at this. He was writing a long report last night. He was writing a long report last night. When did he start?

AS: don't know.

Hamza: I don't know. And when did he finish?

Ss: …

Hamza: I don't know, but, last night, he was writing a long report. At a particular time, last night, it took him one hour, two hours, three hours. We don't know exactly, but, at a short time last night, he was doing an action. So, we are interested in the duration of time and not

the completion of the action. OK! Now, we do not know if he finished the report last night. We do not know, but he was writing the report. Did he finish? I don't know. When did he start? I don't know. Now, number five, we use the simple or use the simple past tense to focus on the completion of an action, but if you want to use verb two past simple, the action should be what? Should be completed. The action should be what? Completed. How? Look. He wrote a long report last night. It means he finished. Why? Because we know that past action… simple past. We use simple past to talk about an action started in the past and finished in the past. عمل بدء بالماضي وإنتهى بالماضي <An action that started and finished in the past>. This is what? Past simple. So, if you use past simple, he probably finished the report because we said he wrote. Wrote means what? Finished, finished. He wrote. He ate. He ate the sandwich. It's it is in his stomach now. He drank the tea. He drank the tea. Finished. It's here and the cup is empty now… I was drinking. I was drinking a cup of tea at eight o'clock, but I did not finish. Now, I drank because it's almost empty. I drank, but, at eight o'clock, when I came here in the first class, I was drinking the cup. I did not finish it. I was drinking, but now I drank. It's over [referring to a cup of tea that he was holding]. OK! Now, number six, the past continuous tense usually describes a situation or circumstances. You know the meaning of circumstances? ظروف، ظروف < circumstances, circumstances>. The past continuous tense usually describes the situation or circumstances in which… a simple past tense action occur. يعني... يرجع يوضح النقطة أنه بينما كان العمل مستمر في الماضي أمس، حضر حصل معه <That is… it goes back to explain the point that حدث آخر قطعه. مثل الذي كان نايم، زياد نايم ودخل أخوه while the action was continuous in the past yesterday, another action attended happened with it and interrupted it. Like the one who was sleeping, Zyad was sleeping and his brother entered> and opened the door. He slammed the door. See. He was running when he broke his leg. See? He was running. A boy was running. He was running. [Pretending to scream of pain] Then, so, he was running and something happened. It stopped him. So, this one was action continuous action in the past. كان يركض <He was running>. So, all of a sudden something happened. What happened? He broke his leg. Past simple. He broke the leg. إذاً الحدث كان بالماضي وحدث معه حدث آخر <Therefore, the action was in the past and another action happened with it>. Broke the leg وقف العمل. خلاص <Finish. The action stopped>. Now, he's not moving. ال ...الماضي أحياناً إذاً <Therefore, the past sometimes… the> past simple يوقف? يساوي وش <What does it do? It stops the> past continuous. (XXXX) كان يركض ال <He was running> and he stopped him.

AS: وأحياناً مايوقفه <And sometimes it doesn't stop it>.

Hamza: وأحياناً مايوقفه. مثل زياد الي كان نايم ودخل أخوه بعدين طلع. كمل نومه إلى الصباح <And sometimes it doesn't stop it. Like Zyad who was sleeping and his brother entered and then left. He continued sleeping to the morning>. OK? This is past continuous again with past simple… So, now we have the forms. تركيبة ال... ال <form of the… the> past continuous. How do we form? Affirmative sentence statements positive statements, I was working. He was working. She was working. It was working. You were working. We were working. They were working. Any problem?

Ss: …

Hamza: Now, here, I was. This is… negative. I was not. I wasn't. I was not working. Let me remove the… sentences which were (XXXX). OK! Yeah! I was not working. She was not working. He was not working. It was not working. You were not working. We were not working. They were not working. Any problem here?

Ss: …

Hamza: So, this is positive and this is negative. Now, yes/no questions OK?... Yes/no questions, was he working? Yes, he was. Were you working? No, we weren't. No, we weren't… Was he working?... No, he wasn't. Were you working? Yes, we were. Any problem here? So, this is short answers with yes/no questions. And, now, here we have Wh- questions. We have what? Wh- questions. How to make past continuous with Wh- questions… See. Where was she working? Where was she working? طيب أعطيك... الفرق مابين <OK! I'll give you… the difference between> where was she working? أين كانت تعمل < where was she working>? Where where did she work? This is past simple. Where did she work? أين عملت؟ أين اشتغلت؟ < Where did she work? Where did she work? Where did she work>? Where was she working? أين كانت تعمل < Where was she working>? OK? So, but, please, do not try to understand things using Arabic language. Though sometimes I [short laugh] … use Arabic in… giving the ideas, but try to stick to the idea of English language. And the second one, where were they working? Where were they working? It means he's asking about a time in the past when they were working at a particular… in a particular company or in a particular place. Any problem here?

Ss: …

Hamza: OK! Let's see the exercises. Yes? Any problem?

AS: … Where was she working what different where did… did she work?

Hamza: Oh! God! OK! [laughs] that's why because I… I… I told you that… Yes? Any problem Abdulmajeed?

AS: Yes.

Hamza: Yes?

AS: This one… Teacher! I was running… when I broke broke… my leg. That's yesterday. If I spoke the past simple… what? If I spoke.

Hamza: … Well, I'm trying to comprehend. I'm trying to understand what idea you are trying to convey. What do you mean by stop?

AS: (XXXX) He was running when he broke his leg. Teacher! Did did he stop teacher!... simple… continuous or… or… past simple?

Hamza: You mean to say that if he… if he didn't break his leg? If he didn't break his leg?

AS: He stopped teacher not (XXXX).

Hamza: Yeah, yeah, even if he stopped. Yes, while I was running, I stopped. While I was running, I stopped. Yes, past simple. OK? Now, let me go back to your question. See. Where did she work? This is past finished action. عمل بدء بالماضي وإنتهى. يعني هي الآن ماتشتغل <An action that started in the past and finished. It means she doesn't work now>. Where was she working? Where was she working? OK? Last week. Where was she working? أين كانت تعمل؟ > < Where was she working?> Did she stop? Where where was she working? In which company? Did she stop? Is she working… We don't know. We do not know whether she stopped or not. Where was she working? We do not know whether she stopped or not. ما نعرف إذا هي ما زالت تعمل ولا وقفت العمل> <We do not know if she is still working or she stopped working>. But where did she where did she work? Where did she work? هي الآن ما تعمل <She doesn't work now> because past simple finished action. Past continuous unfinished action in the past. OK? Yes? Any other question? Alright! Let see what we have here. I think we have… OK! Now, unit twenty-one, expressing activities and situations in progress in the past. Exercise one, underline each correct answer. How many sentences do we have? Oh! A lot of sentences. OK! Now, underline each correct answer. Think, read and try to find out the correct answer. Come on. I'll give you two minutes to think. [Speaking to a student] Pen? OK! I might help you with a pencil. I might help you… OK? Got it? Fine. Now, you have to read these sentences and choose the correct answer. Yeah, we have to choose. Come on. You have to think. This is very important…

[Hamza is taking students' attendance.]

[Someone came and asked Hamza to allow a student to leave class and speak to him. Hamza refused to permit this student to leave his class.]

Hamza: Alright? Let's see what we have here… Come on. Let's start now. Underline each correct answer. Yes?

Ss: …

Hamza: Number one? Yes?

AS: … The patient was died… while… while… the doctor was operation on him.

Hamza: Very good! What's your answer?

AS: … was died

Hamza: Was?

AS: died

Hamza: died. Fantastic! So, this is your answer which is wrong… This is your answer which is totally wrong. I'm so sorry. Saud!

AS: Dead Died

Hamza: Died. This one?

AS: Yeah.

Hamza: Yes, your answer is correct. Yeah, it's died. We need verb two. For past simple, we need verb two. So, we have died and what? This is verb one. This is verb two. You cannot put was. You cannot use was with another verb. Can you say he is go? In English, can you say he was go?

AS: I don't know.

Hamza: Do we say he was go? What happened to you? Abdulaziz! Do we say he was go? We say he went. So, we don't say he was go. Alright! Now, number two. Zyad!

AS: … When… did the doctor start his… round yesterday?

Hamza: Fantastic! When did? Because we have yesterday here and this is past simple. And we have one action past simple. One action so, it should be what? Did. Fantastic! Now, number three. Yes?

AS: … Was… the doctor [could not pronounce the word]

Hamza: Drilling drilling

AS: drilling his patient… (XXXX)

Hamza: Fantastic! So, we have when. We have when here and this is verb two. So, what do we need?

AS: was

Hamza: We need past continuous was or were plus base, I, N, G. So, it's was drilling was drilling. Correct! Your answer is correct. Alright! Next, now, we have number four… Mohammed!

AS: She was… climbing the… stair… she fell down.

Hamza: She was climbing. Your answer is correct. Fantastic! Yes. Now, see here we have when and we have here what? Verb two. We have when verb two. So, what do we need? We need was or were plus base, I, N, G. So, it's was climbing which is correct. Fantastic! OK! Number five? Come on. It's easy. Hamad!

AS: She was… checking the… patient ID… line when the doctor came in the room.

Hamza: So, what's the answer?

AS: … was checking.

Hamza: was checking, yeah. Was checking. I think your answer is correct, but let us check. What do we have here? We have when

AS: when

Hamza: when and where is the… Yeah, came verb two. OK! Then, was checking. Correct. Yes, it's totally correct. Now, number six? Number six? Abdulmajeed!

AS: The car changed (XXXX) yesterday.

Hamza: Yeah, here we have one action. One action which is past simple. So, it's changed. Correct. Yeah, changed. One action past simple. Fantastic! Number seven? Number seven? Abdulaziz!

AS: (XXXX)

Hamza: … OK! Lovely! So, your answer is what?

AS: … last type

Hamza: It's what? Last type? Fantastic! And your answer is wrong. You have a problem Abdulaziz. I don't know what's the problem you have in mind. This is very strange. I'm sorry I'll have to ask someone else. Yes? Saud!

AS: Last typing.

Hamza: It's last typing, yeah. It's last typing. When when and where is the… This is verb two. OK? This is verb two and when. So, we need past continuous last typing. This is wrong. In English, we cannot put was with verb one or two. It's wrong. This is the second mistake you are committing… I think we have to stop. Yeah, we have to stop. للأسف في اللحظة الي بديت إنه تحس <Unfortunately, at the moment where you started to feel that>. [Short laugh] OK! OK! No problem. Thank you and Inshallah we'll meet you on Sunday. Take your mobile phone and go. Come on. You can go now and take your mobile phone.

Appendix II

<u>Ahmed's Reflections</u>

R: بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم <In the name of God the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful>. This is… the interview with Mr. [name of the participant]. Today is 26th of February 2015. OK! بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم <In the name of God the Most Gracious, the Most Merciful>… I started observing your classes on the 12th February 2015. First, as usual I take note of how students are arranged around the class just in case I might need it in the future. Do you have any comment on the arrangement of students?

Ahmed: No, in fact, it's your way in… discussing these. The way that students are sitting here or distributing in class. I don't have any idea about this chart.

R: Uh-huh!

Ahmed: I can't understand it.

R: The rows, I mean some teachers, for example, sit students like…

Ahmed: Groups? Or… U letter?

R: Groups, yeah.

Ahmed: Uh-huh! Yeah.

R: They are just sitting in…

Ahmed: In rows.

R: In rows, yeah. You could say every student is sitting individually.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: There are not sitting in pairs… (XXXX)

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: OK!... You started with good afternoon,… as usual,… you started your class with good afternoon.

Ahmed: Good afternoon, Yeah. In the beginning, I say in Arabic السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting> because we are Arabs, you know. And then I say good afternoon in order to… transfer myself from Arabic into an English, yeah.

R: Uh-huh! Interesting! OK! You were checking students' workbook, I think.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: I am not sure if they had… homework or something.

Ahmed: Yeah, they had a homework. They have a homework that that time and I went through their workbooks to check their… items.

R: Do you check… that they did it correctly or just check they they did it actually or...

Ahmed: No, in fact, I just check if they did the homework or no and in the revision week I ask them to do the homework each together. Then, we do it the whole class all together.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, and there was an incidence with a student who didn't bring his book. You spoke with him in Arabic. I remember it… He didn't bring it and he I think he said it was in his car and you asked him to…

Ahmed: To bring it. Because if a student sit down in the class without a book, at once he will get out his phone mobile and starting… and start chatting. Yeah? So, I don't want this to happen. In addition, that there will be a very big gap between the student and the teacher in the class if he doesn't have the book. So, I asked him to go to the car and bring it. In order to show him the importance of the book in the class and in order to try not to do it again.

R: OK! So, in addition, you spoke to him in Arabic. You you asked him where is your book and it was in Arabic.

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, yeah, because the situation wasn't academic. So, I'm not after… talking in English in order… I want him to understand what I want. I want the book now. So, he has to go and bring the book. So, the the goal wasn't English. It was the book. So, I used my first language with him.

R: OK!

[Coffee break]

R: OK! Yeah, here and there was an instance. You said who can, you started in English, 'who can remind me of the rule of have got and have. تتذكروا أمس <Remember yesterday>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, this is a part of my… everyday lessons to check the the the past or the previous lesson. I'd took with the students at that time. In order to make up their minds and make a kind of revision to check their understanding. This is my way in teaching.

R: And why in this instance you used Arabic. تتذكروا أمس <Remember yesterday>. You said…

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah because if I say in the past or yesterday or... they thought that we are talking about tenses in English. I don't want that. I I want to take their minds to the last or to the last lesson we talked about for a specific point.

R: Uh-huh! OK! Yeah, here, for example,… a student entered the class and he was a bit late and he said 'السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>' and you answered 'وعليكم السلام <reply to Islamic greeting>'.

Ahmed: Yes.

R: So, is it OK, for example, for students to say السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting> instead of good morning or something?

Ahmed: This is our way in… Arabic Islamic culture to enter any place… and there are people you have to say السلام عليكم <Islamic greeting>. This is our way to say hello, yeah.

R: Uh-huh! OK!

Ahmed: According to my religion, I have to say وعليكم السلام <reply to Islamic greeting>.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, in that incidence, you explained the grammatical rule of have got in both languages, in Arabic and English.

Ahmed: Yeah, and that to make sure that the main idea of the… of the rule goes directly to the to the students' mind.

R: Uh-huh! OK!

Ahmed: Because it wasn't our lesson for that day. It was just a revision. So, I would like just to give them the… the main rule just like this. In order to start… to start talking about another points.

R: OK!... here you said 'هنا <here> have… خلي بالكون <be careful> auxiliary مش فعل <not a verb>'.

Ahmed: Yes, yes, here because we have the word have in English. We can use it as a main verb and as an auxiliary. And for have got and have, we have two haves. The first one with have got, the have's auxiliary and in the second have here is a main verb. And that makes difference in both rules. I want to make… to make the awareness of the students for this point.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, in this point, you were talking about as you said 'ممكن تجي هنا <it could be true here>'

Ahmed: Yeah, yes, with has got or have got. We talked about have got for… plural pronouns and has got with singular pronouns.

R: Uh-huh! OK!

Ahmed: And has, we have has and have as a main verb, yeah. We can use it with… singular pronouns.

R: Here, in this instance,… you were, I think, giving students a task. You said: 'Rewrite the sentence in the correct form اعد كتابة الجملة بالصياغة الصحيحة <rewrite the sentence in the correct form>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, yes, because this the main problem that faces students into… or in the exams on their exams or quizzes. The most important point that I want here is to let the students know the meaning of the word rewrite, in Arabic, the sentence in the correct form because we face this problem in the exams, mid exams, final exams and quizzes. The students always raises up their hands and ask what does it mean what should I do with this exercise. They want only the… the translation of the… the information to start doing or writing their… the exam.

R: Uh-huh! OK! Interesting!... Here you said: 'What can we do in this exercise? وش ممكن نسوي في هذي الحالة <what could we do in this situation>?' You said… the instruction in both languages.

Ahmed: Yeah, sometimes I use this way to… to control the time of my class because I have to accomplish the objectives. So, I need to distribute the information to all the students that I have. I know that not all the students can understand what I said in English. So, I translate it into Arabic to to be to be sure that all of the students have got the the meaning.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Here you said, for example,… 'the answer is Yes, I have. ليش اختلفت الاجابة هنا <why is the answer different here>?' You said.

Ahmed: Yeah, because with have got and and have the the question form for these we have different auxiliary that can we start that can we start the the question, yeah. I told the students that in Yes/No questions, the auxiliary that you have in the in the question, you have to use it for the answer. And for that I ask them to… let them see the difference in answers.

R: Uh-huh! Interesting!... 'Is it clear to do this exercise'… repeated several times and no answers. The students didn't answer. So, you resorted to Arabic and said 'واضحة طريقة السؤال <is the formation of the question clear>?'.

Ahmed: Yeah, this is this is as usual because at that time from 12:00 to 02:00, students you can see them, some of them, are… unconcentrated and cannot can't focus during the class… they are tired, some of them just want to sleep, yeah. So, the… the the interference in the… in the class is very weak. So, I have to do that and repeat it several times in order to let them…

R: Wake-up

Ahmed: Wake-up, yeah, or… be with me in the environment of teaching.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Here I think… a student was answering… a question… He said 'They haven't got a flat.' And you said 'خليها زي ماهي؟ ليش تنفيها؟ <Why did you make it negative? Leave it as it is>.'

Ahmed: Yes, yes, because here the students used the word not for negative and I want the students to know that we use not for negative sentences and in Arabic if I say the word negative, maybe not all the students will know what does it mean the word negative. So, I used in Arabic to aware the students that here not is used to make the sentence negative because we have the negative rules for each sentence they… they learn. So, I will use the word نفي <negation> in Arabic to let them know that we use the word not to make negative sentences in English, yeah. That's it.

R: OK! OK!... Here you repeated the rule again of have got in both English and Arabic.

Ahmed: Yeah, just a kind of repetition in order to make… the… the rule clear for them.

R: OK! In this instance, you asked students to do an exercise by themselves. Then you said 'حل لوحدك وإذا عندك سؤال ارفع ايدك <do it alone and if you have a question raise your hand>'.

Ahmed: Yes, did I say that?... I think I my way is asking the students to do an exercise by themselves. Then, they can share it in pairs. And if they have a question, they can ask me as a teacher.

R: So, you allow students to work on pairs? Or do they have to do it individually and then…

Ahmed: First, individually because I want the student himself to know that he is very weak in that lesson or that level that he is studying. Now, I want them to to make it in pairs because if he… see that his colleague is very good in English, that may enforce him and may… make him feel that he must…

R: Improve himself?

Ahmed: Improve himself in English and make him study well.

R: OK!

Ahmed: Yes.

R: Yeah, as you said, students… students were working individually and some were helping each other.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: Yeah, here in this instance you said ' اذا كان عندك مشكلة في الإجابة خلي صديقك يساعدك بس بدون صوت <if you have a problem in answering, let your friend help you, but without a voice>'. You allowed students to help each other in this instance.

Ahmed: Yeah, yes, but I don't want the… class to… to be in… in arbitrary way. I need it an academic environment.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, here for example in this instance you asked the student to answer a question, but the student said he can't because he doesn't know the answer. He said ' ما اعرف الإجابة <I do not know the answer>'. He said in Arabic…

Ahmed: Yeah, he said ما اعرف اجاوب <I do not know how to answer>. Yes, yes.

R: Is it allowed, for example, you speak to students in English and they reply… in Arabic or…?

Ahmed: I think in our class or in… this case, the student doesn't have any way to… to say that he don't know the answer… He has only his first language to say انا ما اعرف الإجابة <I do not know the answer>. He can't say it in English. So, it's better than staying without any… talk.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, here, you were I think talking about the task, you said ' في أحد ماهو فاهم هذا التمرين <Is there anybody who does not understand this exercise>?' and a student said ' أنا أستاذ <Me teacher>'.

Ahmed: Yes.

R: Then, you discussed it with him in Arabic. You explained the task to him in Arabic.

Ahmed: Yeah, because it is one to eighteen. One student to eighteen students and I have the time. I have objectives. So, I have to to… to explain it for him in Arabic. Then, if he can try to translate it into English by himself. Because I can't stop with one student along the time in the class.

R: Uh-huh! OK! Yeah, during the time that they were doing the exercise, you were checking students' performance and you were discussing with some of them in Arabic.

Ahmed: Yes, yes, I have to do that because when I come to a student and… find him doing the exercise in… in a wrong way, the first thing I ask is that correct in English? If I found no response, I have to translate it into Arabic in order to bring his mind to the exercise. To make it clear for him.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... I think we discussed this point before. The same point here

Ahmed: Yes?

R: Same again... Here in this instance, you said… a student said 'teacher الحين ‹now› do تجي مع ‹comes with› he, she, it?' And you said… you were looking at other students and asked them 'is this correct?'

Ahmed: Yes, this is a way for… self-correcting or self-correction for students. If a student give an incorrect information or grammatical mistake, I don't answer him directly. I transfer… his question for the students in order to let him hear from more than one student not from the teacher only, yes.

R: OK!... Here you said 'what does it mean short forms? الإختصارات ‹the abbreviations›' you said

Ahmed: Yes, yes, here because students have the long form and the short form for some… expressions in English and they have to use it and we we use it as a written expression not only orally. So, I want them to know that the word short forms means in Arabic إختصارات ‹abbreviations› because it could be a question in their exams.

R: Uh-huh! OK! Then, I think here you were discussing you started discussing the comparatives and superlatives

Ahmed: Yes.

R: And you were comparing two things.

Ahmed: Yes.

R: You said 'we are comparing two things نقارن بين شيئين ‹we compare between two things›'.

Ahmed: Yes, this point was to make… the students aware about the comparative and superlative and the difference between comparative and superlative. I want them to know that comparative is talking about comparing only two things that they can find in the sentence only two things. And… superlative is a kind of… or we use superlative to to compare from three or more things. Yeah, that's the point.

R: OK! Here in this instance, you asked about the meaning of a vocabulary item you said 'what does it mean age?' and the students said ' عُمُر ‹age›'.

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, I wanted to check… this word with the students that they know that the word age has the same that… for the… how old or the word old that they know. Yeah, to ask about the age.

R: So, you accept the Arabic meaning if students said…

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, yeah.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, for example here in this instance you said 'now عندك <you have> the word younger'.

Ahmed: This is only the interference of the first language in the second language. It doesn't have any…

R: Uh-huh!... I think we discussed it here… Yeah, another instance here you said 'Can you remember these two rules?' No no answer from students and when you resorted to Arabic you said 'تتذكروا هذين القاعدتين <do you remember these two rules>?' and students said 'yes'.

Ahmed: Yeah, because the word rules is not familiar for the students. Yeah, so, I have to translate it into Arabic to know that the word to let them know that the word rules means قاعدتين <two rules>. Yeah.

R: Interesting!... Yeah, here in this instance… I think you were talking about the word young. You said 'is it one syllable or two syllables? مقطع ولا مقطعين <one syllable or two syllables>?' and students replied 'مقطع <one syllable>'.

Ahmed: Yes, according to the pronunciation of the adjective, yeah I want them to say to know that the word syllable syllable because it is not mentioned in their books. I want them to know that the word syllable depends on pronunciation for that adjective in one minute. Yeah, and syllable in Arabic means مقطع <one syllable> and syllables مقطعين <two syllables> or more. Yeah, that's it.

R: Uh-huh!... I think you were… You wrote… an example on the board and you said Ismail is younger than and… Ismail is taller than. A student said 'تقريبا نفسه <almost the same>' referring to younger and taller. I'm not sure what he meant, but you said yes.

Ahmed: Yeah, for me my understanding for that point was for نفسه <the same> for the –er that younger is one syllable and taller was one syllable. Yeah, that's it.

R: OK! This instance… You wanted to say something?

Ahmed: No, no.

R: You said… 'لو شلت <if you remove> وحطيت got <and put> have بالفراغ راح يكون وش <what will be in the gap>?' (XXXX)

Ahmed: Yeah, this is a kind of revision for the rule of have got and have. In order to refresh their minds only.

R: Uh-huh! Yeah, a student was asking you a question about 'ليش مافي <why is not there> some هنا <here>?' and you said 'excellent question why? تتذكروا <do you remember>' and then you said 'لإنها نفي <because it is negative>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, this… this… this question was about the use of some and any and the difference between the use of some and any and it was a lesson for… for us previous lesson for us and the student… the student here asked me why don't we use some and it was a good question to… remind the students all the students that for negative or questions we don't use some with negatives or questions sentences.

R: OK! Interesting! Here a student said 'أستاذ <teacher>' and you replied in English. You said 'yes?' And he said 'أقرأ <shall I read>?' and you said yes.

Ahmed: Yeah?

R: I mean you… the communication…

Ahmed: The use of of Arabic and English?

R: Yeah.

Ahmed: The…

R: They ask you in Arabic and…

Ahmed: Yeah, in fact, I tried tried to… respond in English in order to let him ask me in English, but the questions or the… what the student want wasn't… a lesson. It wasn't an explanation point. It wasn't… so, he just want to ask for something. When say أستاذ <teacher>, the first… idea that come to my mind that he will ask me to leave the class maybe to the bathroom, to the toilet. So, some of the students some of the students find this difficult to ask in English and maybe the case is urgent, so he he just want to to leave. So, I… accept it in Arabic. If it is for something which is in… or according to our lesson, I ask him to speak in English, but for the first time OK I accept it in Arabic to know what what what does he want.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... OK!... Yeah, here you were giving an instruction. You said 'now we will stop if you have any questions about the exercise, ask. If you have any question about the quiz on the second class ask me. إذا عندك أي سؤال، أسألني <if you have any question, ask me>'. You repeated the instruction…

Ahmed: Yeah, I think this… this note has been written on Thursday. One of the Thursdays.

R: Yeah.

Ahmed: Yeah, so in the first hour just like today. The first hour, we have a normal class. The second… hour, the students have a quiz for the whole unit they learnt in that week. So, my first question was for the the class we stopped and the second one I was talking about the second hour. They have about twenty minutes before the quiz. So, they can ask me about anything in the whole unit. That's the point.

R: Uh-huh! OK! So, you mean at the beginning of the second class they are allowed to ask…

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, they are allowed to ask.

R: It's not a fifty minutes quiz?

Ahmed: No, it's twenty-five minutes quiz starting after twenty minutes from the second hour. Yeah, we start at 1:10 and the quiz starts at 1:30.

R: OK! Interesting!... OK! I think we repeated that.

Ahmed: Yes.

R: I attend the second class on the 16th of February with the same similar arrangement. You started with discussing an exam that students had in the morning using both Arabic and English. I think they had a mid-term in that day.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: And you were revising the exam with them.

Ahmed: No, I just wanted to get a feedback about… how did they do in the mid-term. In order to… try to… to know the points of strength and weakness for these students according to their answers. To know that this student find the grammar difficult and that student find the reading comprehensions difficult so and so. Just like this and to hear from them their opinions about the… the mid.

R: OK!

Ahmed: If they have any complaints about explaining lessons, grammar for me as a teacher, they they can come with notes after the mid. They can say doctor I can't understand this way of explaining grammar. That's why I did bad in the mid-term. So, I want to hear that, yes. I want to hear the positive points and negative points from the students.

R: OK! Here an instance of vocabulary. I think we discussed it… Yeah, here in this instance you said 'can you see the hat?' And a student said 'قبعة <hat>?' You said 'thank you! What does hat mean?' And another student said 'قبعة <hat>' 'Yes, thank you!' So,…

Ahmed: Yeah, this… my first question wasn't about the meaning of the word hat, but the response of a student the respond of a student was the mean… the meaning of the word hat. I said thank you because… I know that the student are processing the word in his mind and then I at once asked what does the word hat mean to let all the students in the class know that the word hat means قبعة <hat>.

R: Uh-huh! OK! So, about feedback here the student said, for example, a good answer here, for example, or you wanted to compliment him. So, do you use English or you use Arabic in that…

Ahmed: I have to use Arabic in fact because the level that we are teaching here are not after the definitions of words in English. The students don't have… dictionaries English/English dictionaries. They don't use dictionaries at all and the book itself doesn't have any kind of definitions. The word and its definition in English.

R: No, I mean the feedback when a student says… a good answer and you want to compliment…

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, I try to say thank you in order to reward him.

R: Uh-huh!

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: So, you don't use Arabic in feedback?

Ahmed: No, no, I… always try to enthusiase the students in English thank you, excellent, fantastic yeah to know that these are positive words that can… used in English for them.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, I think in this instance you were talking about the difference between shirts and t-shirts.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: And you said look at my shirt. You were wearing as I remember black shirt.

Ahmed: Yeah, as a real life example.

R: Uh-huh!

Ahmed: Yeah, I always try to bring my all classes into real life situations. That that's very near to the student's mind. From the environment, yeah.

R: Uh-huh! And you said 'what do we call these in English?' I think you were referring to your buttons.

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, buttons.

R: Uh-huh! And a student said 'أزرار <buttons>'.

Ahmed: [Short Laugh] in Arabic because they, yeah they don't know the… the concept in English. So, they use Arabic only.

R: So,…

Ahmed: And I have to… to translate it then, yeah.

R: Yeah, I… in the… then you didn't accept his answer and said 'no, in English we call them buttons'.

Ahmed: Yeah, because my question was in English. So, I need the respond in English. Yeah, I want them to know the the word in English.

R: Uh-huh! OK! And then a student said what's or in Arabic 'وشو التيشيرت <what is the t-shirt>?' He didn't… fully understand it. And and then you answered in Arabic ' قميص بدون أزرار <a shirt without buttons>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, that's to… to clarify it just.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... In… this instance you were talking about the word trousers.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: You said 'what trousers mean?' And a student said 'عمامة <turban>'. And you were nodding with your head as no then pointing at… at your trousers.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: And a student then said 'بنطلون <trousers>'. You said 'yes'.

Ahmed: Yes, yes. This is the the way that I act. This is the way of acting in class. And here the answer was incorrect. So, I would like to all the students to know that the word عمامة <turban> doesn't mean trousers. And this is a trouser as a real example, yeah.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... You were then introducing present continuous to students I think. And… you said 'can you tell me the type of each sentence? تعطيني نوع الجملة <could you tell me the type of the sentence>? What is it for? والغرض منها <and its purpose>?'.

Ahmed: Yes, yes, here, in this case, I was after… the tense and the use of tense. When do we use it in English? But the use of Arabic here تعطيني نوع الجملة <could you tell me the type of the sentence>? to make the word type clear for the students just. Because they know sometimes the word kind as نوع <type> not type. So, I used type and I want them to know that it means in Arabic نوع <type>.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah,... here I think we discuss it. For example, here you said 'do we have activities in the first three sentences?' And students didn't answer, no response. So, you again resorted to Arabic and said 'عندنا نشاط في أول ثلاث جمل <we have activities in the first three sentences>' and students… (XXXX).

Ahmed: Yeah, because they know the word actions. The word actions is more familiar for them than activities and the book used the word activities. And I now I want to… let them know that the word activities have the same meaning of actions, yeah. So, I used the word activities and then I used the Arabic. Then, I said it actions. Yeah, I want them to know that the word activities means نشاط <activity> then I said actions as حدث <action> and they have the same meaning.

R: Uh-huh! OK! Interesting!... Yeah, here in this instance you said 'let's start from sentence four. We will talk about the present continuous الحاضر المستمر <present continuous>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, that's the starting point to talk about a new lesson a new grammatical lesson for them which is the present continuous. And I have only sentence four that represents that… that tense. So, I say from sentence four, to make clear for the students that sentence one, two and three don't represent the… the tense that we are talking about.

R: OK!...

Ahmed: And that was to make it clear for the students that… we have difference between the rule in present simple and present continuous and difference in use.

R: OK! Here in this instance, you were talking I think about a picture on book. You said 'can you give me a sentence that describe Marry?' And students said 'present continuous?' You said 'no'. And then another student said 'present continuous?' You said 'no, describe'.

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, because they didn't understand the word describe. What does it mean the word describe, yeah. So, I give them the chance to try then I… make… make the point only on the the on this word. I determine the word describe for them. To know or to give the chance for others to try to give me just the meaning of the word describe. Then, I go back to my first question.

R: Uh-huh! And then a student said… 'present continuous sentence'. Again you didn't understand you said no, this is… present continuous sentence. Then, you resorted to Arabic to explain it…

Ahmed: Yeah, because I found myself obliged for that.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, you were writing a sentence on board and you asked students 'is this sentence represent an activity? هل هذه الجملة تمثل حدث <does this sentence represent an action>?' Students said 'yes'.

Ahmed: Yeah, again just to make… the light or to shed the light on the word activity. To let them to keep it in mind.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, I think a student was asking you about how to add –ing. I think he was asking about adding it to the past…

Ahmed: Yeah, yeah, the problem with the present continuous for the students they know that the word continuous means –ing, but they always use the –ing without the verb be verb be. And this is the… the biggest problem with the students with the present continuous. So, I would like always on my… when I'm teaching present continuous, I always try to make… it as a main point for the students to use verb be with the –ing for the verb. Yeah, that's it.

R: OK! What about here, for example, when a student asked you about… adding –ing to the past and you resort to Arabic and said 'نضيف. هذي مفروغ منها‘ <this is foregone conclusion. We add> –ing للفعل المجرد <to the base verb>'.

Ahmed: Yes, yes, I… because this is a very sensitive point for students. I don't want the students to keep in mind that what is he talking about in English and I respond in English, student may take from his colleague more than the teacher. So, I want to (XXXX) in Arabic to cancel every… every single information came from that… student. To let all the students in the class hear me clearly.

R: Uh-huh! Interesting!... I think here you were introducing a task… Yeah, here in this instance you were talking about something, I'm not sure, you said 'this is the most common mistake in exams among students هذا أكثر خطأ شائع بين الطلاب في الإختبارات <this is the most common error among students in the exams>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, I was… I was talking about the using of –ing without verb be in present continuous. Yeah, that that was the… point. They watching TV at the moment. As you know this is… a fragment example and I always use this kind of examples on the board and ask the students if we don't have… the same exercise on the book, I ask them to check it and find the mistake, yeah.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, and then you were answering a student and said 'فهمت ليش كانت غلط ياسعد <did you understand why it was incorrect Saad>?' because this student thought that both sentences correct.

Ahmed: Yeah, because I found a case that I thought he will use the… the fragment sentence in… exams and in his life. So, I want him to know that the point that is in… in his mind is… is wrong. We can't use –ing with the verb without verb be.

R: OK! Interesting! Here, the third class when we started audio-recording for classes… You revised or you reminded students of the previous lesson you talked about present continuous positive sentences. Then, you (XXXX) present continuous positive sentences.

Ahmed: Yes, yes, because I want the students to know that present continuous here is a tense and positive sentences is a type of sentence in the same tense. We can use present continuous in positive sentences, negative sentences and questions.

R: OK!... is eating, you were using your hands to show…

Ahmed: Yeah, this is… a teaching technique. We call it in English acting and we use it sometimes in the classroom to… to clarify the sentence or the… action for the students.

R: OK!... OK! Here a student was answering a question. He said 'Tom is running because he is late for work.' He was describing a picture on book. You said 'maybe! Yes, excellent.'

Ahmed: Maybe because the… the picture didn't give us that… that the… that Tom is running for… because he is late, but it is a kind of creating from the student. So, I say excellent because of his creating mind or creating ideas… creativity.

R: … Yeah, here in this task you asked students to do… exercise in in pairs and you said it both in English and… Arabic.

Ahmed: Yeah, because here I want them to know that the word pairs means only two students two students. And to make it clear that the word groups we are talking about three students or more and pairs we are talking about only two.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, in this instance, students were discussing with each other in Arabic. As I… overheard or something, some of these… things that they were discussing about were related to the lesson and some of them were not related to the lesson something about the topic, for example.

Ahmed: from outside the…

R: Yeah.

Ahmed: I told you that time from 12:00 to 02:00, the students some of the students are very tired. Their their focusing are not OK that time not 100% to learn English. So, I that that is expected at any class. Not all the not all the students are in the class to learn, you know that. Some of them are there if they have the motive if they are motivated to learn English. They will talk about lessons that we are discussing in the class and others will find anything just… to forget about the lesson.

R: OK!... Yeah, here… it was as I remember a student was chewing a gum. And you said 'I chewing a gum. The sentence is correct for Abdullah? Could you Abdullah put it in a sentence?' and he said 'chewing وش معناه <what does it mean>?' And you pointed at his mouth.

Ahmed: Yeah, [short laugh] that was a kind of… entering the example with the case that I have… in the classroom. In order to… let the students see that as a real example. Yeah, and to let them know that the word chewing means chewing gum, yes.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... OK!... You were here discussing the difference between who's and whose.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: …

Ahmed: To show the difference between using the wh-word to ask about people and to ask about possessive things.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... And here a student said 'who is' and you said 'I want you to read it in the short form. Read it'…

Ahmed: Yeah, because of… it's very clear that whose and who is are not the same. If if who is is not written in the short form. And I think in the exams and quizzes, the the writer of the exam will write it in the short form not… not using the… the long form. I want the students now to know that who's in the short form with apostrophe means who is and whose for possessive is… is totally different from who's for… to ask about to ask about people.

R: Uh-huh!... Here, for example, this instance you were asking… answering a student's question. He was asking, but 'وش معنى <what is the meaning of> he?' And… and students said 'هو <he>'. And then 'وش معنى <what is the meaning of> him' and you said to the student ' هو <him as well>'. You said 'نفس المعنى بس إختلف مكانه <the same meaning, but its position is different>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, this this because the… the book is talking about the four kinds or the four types of… pronouns at the same time. And that make, I think, a very… unclear… point for the students because they don't use the pronouns as grammatical lessons. They just use it in the… in the sentences. So, here I want them to know that he we use it as a subject and him we use it as an object in the sentence and both of these words have the same meaning.

R: OK!... Yeah,… Here, I note I noticed that in your classes at the end of the class you switch it yourself. You switch… the audio-recorder yourself and you hand it back. What do you feel when you have it in your pocket? Do you…

Ahmed: In fact, sometimes I… I forgot that… that I have a recorder. And at the end of my class, I try… always I try to… accomplish all my objectives and my… tasks. So, I at the end of the class when I check the attendance or close my pen and put it in my (XXXX), I just check if I have forget anything I remember it. So, I hand it to you just that.

R: Uh-huh! OK! I thought maybe you felt not comfortable having the audio-recorder.

Ahmed: No, no, no, no, not all.

R: Thank you!... Now we will talk about the fifth class that I attended with you… And here you were still talking about whose and who.

Ahmed: A kind of revision.

R: Uh-huh! Yeah.

Ahmed: Yeah.

R: ...

Ahmed: And warming up students.

R: OK!... Yeah, here in this instance you you were holding the marker and said 'for me as teacher I own this marker. What does it mean I own?' Students said 'قلمي <my pen>' and then you corrected without saying you are wrong or something. You said 'أنا أملكه <I own it>'.

Ahmed: Yeah, because I want them to know that the word own بمعنى يملك <in the meaning of own>. Yes. Not my marker it is not the as the same as my marker. The word own in itself means يملك <own> in Arabic. Yeah, that was the target.

R: Yeah, here I noticed there was a projector overhead… a projector in the class. Does it work?

Ahmed: Yeah, no it works. No, it works, but sometimes… I don't… use it. Most of… of my… of my… classes I don't use the data show because I would like to use the… the usual type of teaching. Going around the class, talking to the students face to face, writing on the board in order to motivate them to use the pen their… their pens not to use the… the projector.

R: Uh-huh! OK!...

Ahmed: In my opinion, the projector is just a kind of… justifying teaching for teacher, yes.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, here you were talking about a… a certain point. You said 'be careful, be careful for this' and a student asked you 'careful حذر <careful> teacher?' and you said 'انتبه <be careful>'.

Ahmed: Yeah,… here I was trying just to say that… this point is very important and you have to be aware of it and take it into consideration. And here the student was trying to translate the word careful into Arabic, but here, in the context itself, it means انتبه <be careful> not إحذر <look out>. إحذر <look out> for… for cases or situations in a… in moving, yeah. But for me انتبه <be careful> be aware using your mind.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, here a student instead of saying my, he said may and said 'my daughters' and then you were talking to a student and said 'سمعت إجابة خاطئة منك لما قلت <I heard an incorrect answer from you when you said> may'.

Ahmed: … because… to show them the importance of… correct pronunciation for the words because in English if the pronunciation is incorrect, it may mean another… another meaning of another word. So, I always do that. If a student give me a wrong pronunciation for any word. If if… if the wrong pronunciation gave another meaning for another word, I always

write it on the board and tell them that… or I tell the students that this word in English means something and this means something and the difference between them is in the spelling, but orally it is in the pronunciation.

R: Uh-huh!... Here in this point… a student was answering a question he said 'who is this dictionary?' and you said 'Now, dictionary is it a person?' he said the student said 'No', but he seemed not sure about his answer and seemed confused for me.

Ahmed: Yeah, because his answer was… was wrong for the… for the wh-word that we… we used. Here who is is asking about people and the… not things. And the student use used the word who is as whose for possessive and just I want to make it clear for him that the word dictionary here is not the correct answer for the wh-word.

R: OK!...

Ahmed: And also to told all the students… to tell the students that… who is talking about person or… or people.

R: Uh-huh! OK!... Yeah, here just a note… you were invigilating an exam I think on that day…

Ahmed: yeah, I am a supervisor for… for the exam unit. So, sometimes I… have a full-time working from 8:00 in the morning till 2:30 or sometimes for 3:30 without having any break even for five or ten minutes.

R: OK! This is the last class I attended with you… We'll go through it quickly if there is anything I would like a comment or something… OK!

Appendix III

Steve's Interview

R: This is the second interview with Mr. [name of the participant]… Today is Sunday the 22nd of February. Time is 1:10. OK! We started… in the previous interview with discussing some of your… reflections on what happened in your class.

Steve: Uh-huh!

R: So, today I'll ask you some general questions about your language ideology, and language attitude towards the teaching of English in general and in Saudi context in specific.

Steve: Uh-huh! OK!

R: We started last time general information questions that I asked you and today we'll start with focus questions. So, my first question is what is the language policy towards using Arabic in the preparatory year?

Steve: … mmm.

R: As far as you know.

Steve: As far as I know, it is to use as little as possible. I don't know if they ban it completely, but I as far as I know is to use as little as possible.

R: OK! Do you agree with this policy?

Steve: … Not really. No [short laugh]

R: Why?

Steve: Because it's useful to use Arabic… It's… as I said last week, as long as it gets across the message I can't see any reason why not…

R: OK! …

Steve: It's it's impossible to to to… for them to understand… It's very good for them to discuss something in a group in Arabic. It gets their enthusiasm up. And they'll remember it.

R: OK! Do you use Arabic in your language classrooms?

Steve: Personally?

R: Yeah.

Steve: No.

R: No, you don't?

Steve: [Laughs]

R: … Do you use Arabic outside your language classrooms?

Steve: No. [laughs]

R: Interesting! What language does your students use with you?

Steve: With me?

R: Yeah.

Steve: English.

R: English.

Steve: Only.

R: And among themselves?

Steve: Arabic.

R: Arabic…

Steve: Very occasionally, they use English. If if I'm there and in a conversation. They know I'm listening. Very occasionally, they use English.

R: Uh-huh! Interesting! So, how would you rate their English level?

Steve: For this group that I'm that you observed?

R: Yeah.

Steve: … In in what sense? You mean beginners, elementary and intermediate?

R: Yeah! Uh-huh!

Steve: Elementary.

R: Elementary?

Steve: Uh-huh!

R: And students in the preparatory year in general, how would you rate them?

Steve: In the medical department or…

R: … in the preparatory medical, engineering,… in general students.

Steve: Most of them are beginners I believe.

R: Beginners?

Steve: Uh-huh.

R: OK! … Do you think they have to learn English? And why?

Steve: In their life or in this university?

R: Yeah, in their life.

Steve: Do I think they have to?

R: Uh-huh!

Steve: No, I don't think they have to.

R: Why?

Steve: … Just a minority of people know English and they seem to manage OK.

R: You mean in their community? In [name of the university's city] for example?

Steve: Yes…

R: Would you like to add something?

Steve: … No, I just I I I don't think they have to. It depends on what they want to do in their life of course. If they want to do… if they want to leave [name of the university's city] and do something which is going to involve… a different sphere of people and jobs yes, but most of them don't want that.

R: Uh-huh! OK! Do you think their social life affect their learning of English?... Whether positively or negatively?

Steve: What do you mean their social life?

R: I mean their… life outside university. Like their parents, their families… their life outside your class.

Steve: I have been asking them if they have a brother or their father or their parents speak English and very few of them say yes. But occasionally someone who do and you can tell it has affected their English and they are far more enthusiastic to speak English if their parents did.

R: So, you think that if the parents speak English, it has a positive… effect on students' enthusiasm?

Steve: Definitely yes, oh yeah.

R: Interesting!... I have to ask you this question. Do you use Arabic in explaining grammar?

Steve: Do I?

R: Uh-huh!

Steve: No, I wouldn't know how.

R: OK! And translation?

Steve: I wouldn't know how.

R: Vocabulary?

Steve: Same.

R: Explaining tasks? You don't use Arabic at all?

Steve: No.

R: OK! Socialising with students?

Steve: No.

R: Classroom management?

Steve: [Laughs]

R: Feedback or outside the class during interaction with colleagues and students?

Steve: Not at all, I'm sorry.

R: OK! Don't you… You don't have to be sorry.

Steve: [Laughs]

R: Do you permit students to use Arabic inside the classroom?

Steve: Of course,… It's almost impossible for them not to. And I have most of the time I have I I don't have a problem with it as long it is in the right time in the right place. It's when they're chatting needlessly when I'm speaking is is when I am annoyed and I ask them to stop.

R: OK!... Does the textbooks permit L1?

Steve: … Do the textbooks permit Arabic! [Thinking] ... Not as far as I know, no.

R: OK! Would you recommend using bilingual textbooks?

Steve: Hmm! … depends on the level. I would use it… at the lower levels…

R: OK! Are the textbooks related to students' daily life or background?

Steve: Not, in the least [laughs].

R: OK!... How would you describe students' attitude towards English language? And why would you describe it that way?

Steve: … In parts, they quite like it. In that, they are still… They are exposed to English… I know they watch movies of course and they watch TV… But I mean a majority they really don't like learning it… and four hours a day is quite tedious for them I know so they get quite bored… I think for the majority of them it's just just just a hassle they have to do (XXXX) everyone to do it. And there is a minority who are quite good and if you are good in something then you like doing it.

R: OK!

Steve: But I mean everyone knows a few words in English…

R: So, would you say that the majority of students have a negative attitude towards learning English?

Steve: In this university…

R: Or in the…

Steve: I I think they come without a sort of any really any strong views at all, but as soon as they realize it's quite difficult and (XXXX) quite a lot of work in there and they have to do four hours a day. It does become a bit of a hassle for them.

R: OK!... Do you… Sorry! Do you agree with the policy that students have to achieve a certain grade in EFL courses to be able to choose their BA major? You know, they used to

have… a policy that students has to got… students have to get a C at least to be able to proceed to their BA major and now I think they are taking into consideration the entire GPA. For example, you have to get a certain GPA to be able to choose your major. So, do you agree with this policy?

Steve: Which one? The new one?

R: Both both of them. That you have to be good in English to be able to choose your major.

Steve: … Are they… I don't know when they go to their major are they taught entirely in English?

R: …I think so.

Steve: yeah, I think so as well… I mean it must have been incredibly difficult to do all these subjects in English when it's your second language. I mean I couldn't do it… but if they have no choice as to whether that be taught in Arabic or English, it's definitely English, I'll have to agree. They have to make a certain standard before (XXXX).

[Interrupted by a phone call].

R: Sorry!... In your opinion, what do you think are the advantages of code-switching?

Steve: Of?

R: Code-switching.

Steve: Code-switching?

R: Yeah, code-switching like moving between Arabic and English while speaking.

Steve: In what context?

R: In teaching, for example, or in learning by students.

Steve: …

R: Are you familiar with this concept?

Steve: … You mean for the teacher to to switch between Arabic and English all the time?

R: Yeah, yeah, all the time or when they think that it is needed.

Steve: … I can see its advantages, yes.

R: … Can you name some of these advantages? In your opinion.

Steve: … if occasionally I do speak Arabic, all of the sudden they wake up and they start listening to me. Because I know when I'm only speaking only in English, they cannot understand every word and they switch off. So, if these students can… understand… more, they are going to become slightly more enthusiastic in learning it… And I know when it's purely in English. It's just… it's just… as I said it's just become a noise in the background and they start falling asleep and losing their motivation. But since they do understand something they quite like it. Of course, if if you like doing something. If you understand something, you like doing it more. If you're quite good at something, you like doing it. So,… I think it would help their motivation if if if there is if there is a lot more Arabic.

R: OK! So,… on the other hand, what are the disadvantages of code-switching?

Steve: … [Laughs] It's a very good question… disadvantages of code-switching!... I suppose there's a tendency to use the easier language more. You get you could get a bit lazy and use Arabic too much… I mean you need to have that element of practice in the foreign language… That's all.

R: OK!... Do you think that learning English will change students' attitude towards how they perceive their culture, L1 and community?

Steve: That's a very good question as well.

R: Thank you!

Steve: That's how they perceive their?

R: Culture, L1 and their community. Whether positively or negatively.

Steve: This is something I could write a whole a whole essay on this. [Laughs] I'm sure it does change their perceptions in some way, yeah. [Laughs]

R: Do do you have any idea how it could change?

Steve: … simply by using the language or by being taught by…

R: Being… a bilingual let's say or if we could say or knowing two languages in addition to your own... Knowing a new language in addition to your mother tongue. Do you think has… it has… an effect on their perception of their community…

Steve: Of of their own community? Of what they think of the other community? Or both?

R: No, of their own community.

Steve: Of their own community!

R: Of [name of the university's city] community or Saudi community.

Steve: … Wow! That's a really difficult question! [Short laugh] … It obviously does… [Thinking in a low voice] It's something by learning the language or by understanding the other persons culture? I I think when you do learn a language you do understand the other person's way of life way of thinking culture a bit more and then you automatically compare that to your own. And you see the advantages and disadvantages of your own. Or and you see the advantages and disadvantages of the person's too. For sure… I have to think about that question a lot to give you a really good answer.

R: How long do you need is it a day or … (XXXX)?

Steve: [Laughs]

R: … OK! The next question how would you improve the current language policy?

Steve: How would I improve the current language policy?

R: Yeah, if someone like came to you and ask you asked you how would you improve the preparatory year in terms of language policy, and language teaching and…

Steve: That's a loaded question, isn't it?... I'll have to make it more interesting for them because they're just coming in and it's just routine. They need they need it has to be just more active… indeed. OK! There is nothing. There isn't any one book which is perfect. We need some more stimulating. You want stimulating environment. It is just become really a bit monotonous for them… A language lab would be nice… it's so geared towards passing the quiz and passing the exam rather than learning the language. We need to change that somehow, but I suppose for them they sort of they just want to get to the stage and get to the stage simply to reach the final goal. They don't really want to learn English. (XXXX). It has to be a bit more interesting for them. Oh! Again, that's a really loaded question and... Sorry, Thamir!

R: That's OK!

Steve: [Laughs]

R: Two more questions to go.

Steve: OK!

R: Do you feel students are enthusiastic towards learning English?

Steve: A minority.

R: Minority of them?

Steve: Yes.

R: OK! Interesting! The last question does the majority of your students participate in your classroom? Why would you think so?

Steve: Why do the majority of students participate?

R: Uh-huh! Does all of them or most of them…

Steve: Again, it depends completely in the class. In some, you do some as a class, but they all participate. There is always about one or two really quiet ones who are quite likely to be just a little shy…

R: You think they don't participate these, for example, because they are shy?

Steve: … Well, I don't think they they used to it anyway. I don't know if they have that kind of sort of culture in the school they've just left because I know in September when I had a really good level four class. We had so much time in our hands because they didn't have one book. And We did also a lot of speaking exercises. They just got together to discuss what they are going to talk about in groups. And they stood up and told everybody… about it to give some kind of discussion. And, then, there will be question and answer session. And some, just very few of them could do that. And a lot of them were really really reluctant. They just weren't used to it. When you mean participate, in what way do you mean participate?

R: In tasks, for example, or when you ask them questions or you want volunteers.

Steve: Yeah,… they they they most of them about 50% of them like to. The the others are quite reluctant. They're very shy sometimes.

R: OK! Interesting!

Steve: … What was the question before that?

R: Do you feel that students are enthusiastic towards learning English?

Steve: In a way, you know, I think they sort of want to, but when they discover how difficult it is, they lose their motivation. But I think I think they do want to… They know it's quite a good thing to know another language. They know English is quite important in the world. So maybe I was a bit pessimistic in my last answer. [Laughs]

R: OK! Interesting!... Since we have… more time, can we go back to the class?

Steve: OK!

Appendix IV

<u>ELC Director Interview Questions</u>

a) *General information questions:*

1. Name.

2. Nationality.

3. Languages spoken.

4. Highest qualification.

5. Years of teaching experience.

6. Years of teaching experience in Saudi context.

7. Are you doing teaching hours currently?

8. Years of experience in administration in general within the field of English as a foreign or second language.

9. Years of experience as the Director of the English Language Centre.

b) *Focus questions*

1. What is the language policy of the preparatory year towards using Arabic?

2. Do you agree with this policy?

3. How do you make sure this policy is implemented?

4. Do you permit or encourage teachers to use Arabic in their language classrooms?

5. What would be your reaction if you noticed that a teacher is using Arabic with students inside the classroom or outside it?

6. Do you use Arabic outside language classrooms with teachers or students?

7. Did you use Arabic when you were teaching in your classrooms in SA and in your home country?

8. What language do students use with you? Among themselves? Why do you think so?

9. How would rate students of the preparatory year English level in general?

10. Do you think students have to learn English? Why?

11. Do you think their social life affect their learning of English? If so how?

12. Do you use Arabic when you are teaching in: explaining grammar, translation, vocabulary, explain tasks, exams, socialising with students, classroom management, feedback or outside the class during interaction with colleagues and students?

13. Do you permit teachers to use Arabic in: explaining grammar, translation, vocabulary, explain tasks, exams, socialising with students, classroom management, feedback or outside the class during interaction with colleagues and students?

14. Do you permit students to use Arabic inside the classroom?

15. Do the textbooks permit L1? Would you recommend using bilingual textbooks?

16. Are the textbooks related to students' daily life or background?

17. How would you describe students' attitude towards the English language? Why would describe it that way?

18. Do you agree with the policy that students have to achieve a certain grade in EFL courses to be able to choose their BA major?

19. What are the advantages of code-switching in your opinion? Name 5

20. What are the disadvantages of code-switching in your opinion? Name 5

21. Do you think that learning English will change students' attitude towards how they perceive their culture, L1 and community?

22. What are the plans to improve the current language policy in the preparatory year?

23. Do feel that preparatory year students are enthusiastic towards learning English?

24. From your experience, do the majority of preparatory year students participate in English classroom? Why do you think so?

Appendix V

<u>Teachers Interview Questions</u>

c) General information questions:

10. Name.

11. Nationality.

12. Languages spoken.

13. Highest qualification.

14. Years of teaching experience.

15. Years of teaching experience in Saudi context.

16. Current level of English being taught.

d) Code switching questions:

Samples of their classroom interactions will be discussed with them. The samples will focus mainly on interactions that code-switch from English to Arabic and/or Arabic interactions.

e) Focus questions

25. What is the language policy towards using Arabic?

26. Do you agree with this policy?

27. Do you use Arabic in your language classrooms?

28. Do you use Arabic outside your language classrooms?

29. What language do your students use with you? Among themselves?

30. How would rate their English level?

31. Do you think they have to learn English? Why?

32. Do you think their social life affect their learning of English?

33. Do you use Arabic in: explaining grammar, translation, vocabulary, explain tasks, exams, socialising with students, classroom management, feedback or outside the class during interaction with colleagues and students?

34. Do you permit students to use Arabic inside the classroom?

35. Do the textbooks permit L1? Would you recommend using bilingual textbooks?

36. Are the textbooks related to students' daily life or background?

37. How would you describe students' attitude towards the English language? Why would describe it that way?

38. Do you agree with the policy that students have to achieve a certain grade in EFL courses to be able to choose their BA major?

39. What are the advantages of code-switching? Name 5

40. What are the disadvantages of code-switching? Name 5

41. Do you think that learning English will change students attitude how they perceive their culture, L1 and community?

42. How would you improve the current language policy?

43. Do feel that students are enthusiastic towards learning English?

44. Does the majority of your students participate in your classroom? Why do you think so?

Appendix VI

<u>**Information Sheet**</u>

Dear English language teacher _____

     I am writing to ask if you could help me with my research. I am a lecturer in Applied Linguistics at [name of the researched university] and I am now doing my PhD in Applied Linguistics at the University of Birmingham, the United Kingdom. This work will form the basis for my PhD thesis.

     In this research, I am studying language policy in English language classrooms with the focus in the implementation of this policy within the classroom by teachers and students. My aim is to explore the stand of teachers and students as regards the value and purpose of language policy in Saudi undergraduate education. I expect this study to contribute in diagnosing and improving the current language policy and implementation of language policy in undergraduate language education in the country.

     The research will involve classroom observation, fieldnotes and audio recording of communicative practices in your classroom as well as an interview with you of between 60 and 120 minutes. This interview will be conducted in two sessions if it conflicts with your classes or your duties. In addition, the research will involve conducting a focus group interview with a group of your students. Thus, apart from the interview, the research will not take you substantial extra time. The study is not intended to judge the adequacy of your work or your communicative performance, so feel free to conduct your work in an unconstrained and natural way.

     The study will be conducted fully within the ethical standards prescribed by the University of Birmingham, by the British Association of Applied Linguistics and by relevant Saudi research

boards. As well as all people involved (teachers and pupils), you will need to give your full informed consent, and I will ensure anonymity at all stages of the research process and when reporting the findings. That is, you will not be identified by name, all recordings will be transcribed and listened to only by myself and a very limited number of assistants who will help me with the transcriptions. You have the right to ask not to be audio recorded as well as to withdraw at any point from the research process if you feel appropriate to do so no later than 23:59 GMT of 20/March/2015.

I expect your participation to provide important inputs that may help to shape the future of undergraduate education in the country.

Thank you very much for your time and I look forward to hearing from you in due course.

Yours sincerely,

Thamir Alomaim

Main Researcher: Mr. Thamir Alomaim

E-mail Address:

Research Supervisor: Professor Adrian Blackledge

E-mail Address:

Mail Correspondence Address:

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ورقة معلومات

مدرس اللغة الإنجليزية الموقر _____

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله...

أكتب لكم هذا الخطاب لأسألكم عن إمكانية مشاركتكم في بحثي العلمي. أنا محاضر لغويات تطبيقية في جامعة حائل وحالياً أحضر لدرجة الدكتوراه في اللغويات التطبيقية في جامعة برمنجهام، المملكة المتحدة. هذه الدراسة تشكل جزء من متطلبات رسالة الدكتوراه.

في هذه الدراسة، أجري بحثاً عن السياسة اللغوية في الفصول الدراسية للغة الإنجليزية، وتركيز الدراسة سيكون على تطبيق السياسة اللغوية داخل الفصول الدراسية من قبل المدرسين والطلاب. هدفي من هذه الدراسة هو استكشاف موقف المدرسين والطلاب تجاه قيمة والغرض من السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي السعودي. أتوقع من هذه الدراسة أن تساهم في معالجة وتطوير السياسة اللغوية الحالية وتطبيق السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي بالبلاد.

هذه الدراسة ستتضمن حضور ومراقبة الفصول الدراسية، تسجيل ملاحظات، وتسجيلات صوتية للممارسات التواصلية في فصولكم الدراسية، بالإضافة إلى مقابلة معكم تستغرق بين 60 إلى 120 دقيقة. قد يتم تقسيم المقابلة إلى فترتين إذا كانت تتعارض مع وقت عملكم ومهامكم. بالإضافة، ستتضمن الدراسة إجراء مقابلة جماعية مع مجموعة من طلابكم. لذلك، باستثناء المقابلة، لن تقتطع الدراسة الكثير من وقتكم. لا تهدف الدراسة لتقييم جودة عملكم أو مهاراتكم التواصلية، لذا أرجوا أن تقوموا بعملكم بالطريقة المعتادة بدون أي ضغوط.

ستتبع الدراسة بشكل كامل الأخلاقيات العلمية المحددة من قبل جامعة برمنجهام، الجمعية البريطانية للغويات التطبيقية، وأي جهة علمية سعودية ذات علاقة. مثل جميع الأشخاص المشاركين بالدراسة (من مدرسين وطلاب)، تحتاج الدراسة أن تقدموا موافقتكم التامة على المشاركة بالدراسة، وسأتأكد بشكل من عدم الكشف عن هويتكم في كل مراحل الدراسة العلمية، وعند تقديم نتائج الدراسة. أي أنه لن يتم الإشارة لاسمكم، وكل التسجيلات الصوتية سيتم تفريغها والاستماع لها من قبلي وعدد محدود جداً من المساعدين الذين سيساعدونني في تفريغ التسجيلات. لديكم الحق بطلب عدم تسجيلكم صوتياً، كما لكم الحق بالانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت تودون عند رغبتكم بذلك، وذلك قبل الساعة 23:59 بتوقيت جرينتش من 20/مارس/2015.

أتوقع أن مشاركتكم ستقدم معلومات هامة، والتي قد تساعد في تشكيل مستقبل الدراسة الجامعية في البلاد.

</div>

شاكراً لكم وقتكم الثمين، واتطلع قدماً للسماع منكم في الوقت الملائم.

مع تحيات طالب الدكتوراه/   ثامر عيسى العميم

الباحث الأساسي/ ثامر عيسى العميم

البريد الإلكتروني/ ██████████

مشرف الدراسة/ البروفيسور إدريان بلاكليدج

البريد الإلكتروني/ ██████████

عنوان التواصل البريدي:

██████████

Students Information Sheet

Dear English language student _____

I am writing to ask if you could help me with my research. I am a lecturer in Applied Linguistics at [name of the researched university] and I am now doing my PhD in Applied Linguistics at the University of Birmingham, the United Kingdom. This work will form the basis for my PhD thesis.

In this research, I am studying language policy in English language classrooms with the focus in the implementation of this policy within the classroom by teachers and students. My aim is to explore the stand of teachers and students as regards the value and purpose of language policy in Saudi undergraduate education. I expect this study to contribute in diagnosing and improving the current language policy and implementation of language policy in undergraduate language education in the country.

The research will involve classroom observation, fieldnotes and audio recording of communicative practices in your classroom as well as one focus group discussion with you and some of your colleagues of between 60 and 120 minutes. This focus group discussion might be conducted in two sessions if it conflicts with your classes or your study time. Thus, apart from the focus group discussion, the research will not take you substantial extra time. The study is not intended to judge your language level, your academic status or your communicative performance, so feel free to behave in an unconstrained and natural way.

The study will be conducted fully within the ethical standards prescribed by the University of Birmingham, by the British Association of Applied Linguistics and by relevant Saudi research

boards. As well as all people involved (teachers and pupils), you will need to give your full informed consent, and I will ensure anonymity at all stages of the research process and when reporting the findings. That is, you will not be identified by name, all recordings will be transcribed and listened to only by myself and a very limited number of assistants who will help me with the transcriptions. You have the right to ask not to be audio recorded as well as to withdraw at any point from the research process if you feel appropriate to do so no later than 23:59 GMT of 20/March/2015.

I expect your participation to provide important inputs that may help to shape the future of undergraduate education in the country.

Thank you very much for your time and I look forward to hearing from you in due course.

Yours sincerely,

Thamir Alomaim

Main Researcher: Mr. Thamir Alomaim

E-mail Address:

Research Supervisor: Professor Adrian Blackledge

E-mail Address:

Mail Correspondence Address:

Appendix IX

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<u>**ورقة معلومات للطلاب**</u>

طالب اللغة الإنجليزية الموقر _____

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله...

أكتب لكم هذا الخطاب لأسألكم عن إمكانية مشاركتكم في بحثي العلمي. أنا محاضر لغويات تطبيقية في جامعة حائل وحالياً أحضر لدرجة الدكتوراه في اللغويات التطبيقية في جامعة برمنجهام، المملكة المتحدة. هذه الدراسة تشكل جزء من متطلبات رسالة الدكتوراه.

في هذه الدراسة، أجري بحثاً عن السياسة اللغوية في الفصول الدراسية للغة الإنجليزية، وتركيز الدراسة سيكون على تطبيق السياسة اللغوية داخل الفصول الدراسية من قبل المدرسين والطلاب. هدفي من هذه الدراسة هو استكشاف موقف المدرسين والطلاب تجاه قيمة والغرض من السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي السعودي. أتوقع من هذه الدراسة أن تساهم في معالجة وتطوير السياسة اللغوية الحالية وتطبيق السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي بالبلاد.

هذه الدراسة ستتضمن حضور ومراقبة الفصول الدراسية، تسجيل ملاحظات، وتسجيلات صوتية للممارسات التواصلية في فصولكم الدراسية، بالإضافة إلى مقابلة جماعية معكم ومع مجموعة من زملائكم بين 60 إلى 120 دقيقة. قد يتم تقسيم المقابلة الجماعية إلى فترتين إذا كانت تتعارض مع وقتكم الدراسي. لذلك، باستثناء المقابلة الجماعية، لن تقتطع الدراسة الكثير من وقتكم. لا تهدف الدراسة لتقييم مستوى اللغة لديكم، مستواكم الأكاديمي أو مهاراتكم التواصلية، لذا أرجوا أن تتصرفوا بالطريقة المعتادة بدون أي ضغوط.

ستتبع الدراسة بشكل كامل الأخلاقيات العلمية المحددة من قبل جامعة برمنجهام، الجمعية البريطانية للغويات التطبيقية، وأي جهة علمية سعودية ذات علاقة. مثل جميع الأشخاص المشاركين بالدراسة (من مدرسين وطلاب)، تحتاج الدراسة أن تقدموا موافقتكم التامة على المشاركة بالدراسة، وسأتأكد من عدم الكشف عن هويتكم في كل مراحل الدراسة العلمية، وعند تقديم نتائج الدراسة. أي أنه لن يتم الإشارة لاسمكم، وكل التسجيلات الصوتية سيتم تفريغها والاستماع لها من قبلي وعدد محدود جداً من المساعدين الذين سيساعدونني في تفريغ التسجيلات. لديكم الحق بطلب عدم تسجيلكم صوتياً، كما لكم الحق بالانسحاب من الدراسة في أي وقت تودون عند رغبتكم بذلك، وذلك قبل الساعة 23:59 بتوقيت جرينتش من 20/مارس/2015 .

أتوقع أن مشاركتكم ستقدم معلومات هامة، والتي قد تساعد في تشكيل مستقبل الدراسة الجامعية في البلاد.

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شاكراً لكم وقتكم الثمين، واتطلع قدماً للسماع منكم في الوقت الملائم.

مع تحيات طالب الدكتوراه/   ثامر عيسى العميم

الباحث الأساسي/ ثامر عيسى العميم

البريد الإلكتروني/ ██████████

مشرف الدراسة/ البروفيسور إدريان بلاكليدج

البريد الإلكتروني/ ██████████████

عنوان التواصل البريدي:

Appendix X

Statement of Consent

I, ……………………………………………………………………………………. hereby accept to take part as a participant in the study conducted by **Mr. Thamir Issa Alomaim** on "**Language Policy in Saudi Undergraduate Science Colleges: A Qualitative Study about Implementation of Language Policy in Saudi Undergraduate Education**". I have read the information sheet and I confirm my understanding of the purpose and processes involved in the study. I also understand that I will not be identified by name at any stage of the research process and that I have the right to ask not to be audio recorded as well as to withdraw at any point from the study if I feel appropriate to do so no later than 23:59 GMT of 20th/March/2015.

…………………………………………………………………….   ……………………………

(Signature of the participant)   (day/month/year)

<div dir="rtl">

خطاب موافقة

أنا الموقع أدناه ……………… ……………………………………………………………… أبدي موافقتي على المشاركة في الدراسة العلمية التي يجريها الأستاذ/ **ثامر عيسى العميم** والتي بعنوان **"السياسة اللغوية في الكليات العلمية السعودية: دراسة كيفية عن تطبيق السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي السعودي"**. لقد قرأت رسالة معلومات البحث وأؤكد فهمي للغرض من هذه الدراسة والإجراءات المتبعة فيها. كما أؤكد فهمي أنه لن يتم تعريفي بالاسم في أي مرحلة من مراحل الدراسة وأنه لدي الحق بأن أطلب عدم تسجيلي صوتياً، كما أنه لدي الحق بالانسحاب من الدراسة بأي مرحلة عندما أرغب بذلك، وذلك قبل الساعة 23:59 بتوقيت جرينتش من تاريخ 20/مارس/2015.

……………………………   …………………………………………………………………

(توقيع المشارك)   (اليوم/ الشهر/ السنة)

</div>

Appendix XI

<u>Statement of Consent by English Language Students</u>

I, ………………………………………………………………………………………. hereby accept to take part as a participant in the study conducted by **Mr. Thamir Issa Alomaim** on "**Language Policy in Saudi Undergraduate Science Colleges: A Qualitative Study about Implementation of Language Policy in Saudi Undergraduate Education**". I have read the information sheet and I confirm my understanding of the purpose and processes involved in the study. I also understand that I will not be identified by name at any stage of the research process and that I have the right to ask not to be audio recorded as well as to withdraw at any point from the study if I feel appropriate to do so no later than 23:59 GMT of 20th/March/2015.

…………………………………………………………………………….   …………………………………

(Signature of the participant)   (day/month/year)

<u>خطاب موافقة من قبل طلاب اللغة الإنجليزية</u>

أنا الموقع أدناه ……………………………………………………………………… أبدي موافقتي على المشاركة في الدراسة العلمية التي يجريها الأستاذ/ **ثامر عيسى العميم** والتي بعنوان "**السياسة اللغوية في الكليات العلمية السعودية: دراسة كيفية عن تطبيق السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي السعودي**". لقد قرأت رسالة معلومات البحث وأؤكد فهمي للغرض من هذه الدراسة والإجراءات المتبعة فيها. كما أؤكد فهمي أنه لن يتم تعريفي بالاسم في أي مرحلة من مراحل الدراسة وأنه لدي الحق بأن أطلب عدم تسجيلي صوتياً، كما أنه لدي الحق بالانسحاب من الدراسة بأي مرحلة عندما أرغب بذلك وذلك قبل الساعة 23:59 بتوقيت جرينتش من تاريخ 20/مارس/2015.
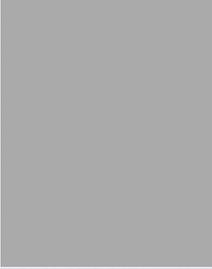
……………………………   ………………………………………………………………………

(توقيع المشارك)   (اليوم/ الشهر/ السنة)

316

Appendix XII

<u>**Approval letter to conduct data collection**</u>

Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia
Ministry Of Higher Education

المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي

إلى من يهمه الأمر، ، ،

بناءً على الخطاب الذي وصل إلينا من الأستاذ/ **ثامر عيسى محمد العميم**

طالب الدكتوراه بجامعة برمنجهام في بريطانيا، والذي أبدى فيه رغبته في

إجراء دراسة علمية لرسالة الدكتوراه على الطلاب ومدرسي اللغة الإنجليزية

لدينا في السنة التحضيرية تحت إشراف الملحقية الثقافية السعودية في

بريطانيا وجامعة برمنجهام في بريطانيا، والرسالة العلمية ستكون تحت

عنوان: **"السياسة اللغوية في الكليات العلمية السعودية: دراسة كيفية عن**

تطبيق السياسة اللغوية في التعليم الجامعي السعودي".

فإننا نفيد بأنه لا مانع لدينا من إجراء المذكور أعلاه دراسته العلمية في مقر

كليتنا.

عميد السنة التحضيرية في

الرقم :	التاريخ / / ١٤هـ	المرفقات : ....