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**Teachers' and Students' Attitudes and Actual Use of the
L1 in ESAP Classrooms**

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PhD

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

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Abstract

The use of the first language (L1) in teaching and learning a second language (L2) has long been the topic of debate amongst educators, linguists and policymakers. Use of the L1 was considered the norm until the late 19th century, when the goals of language learning shifted towards developing oral proficiency. Subsequent methods, such as the Direct Method, took the view that L1 use hindered natural learning and caused language interference. Thus, languages were best taught and learned monolingually. Conversely, others viewed its use positively (the Silent Way) or took an unclear stance (Communicative Language Teaching). Recent academic and socio-political changes led to a re-evaluation of the use of the L1, resulting in research on teachers' and students' attitudes towards the use of the L1 and later its actual application in the classroom due to the conflict between attitudes and classroom practices. However, there remain substantial gaps in the literature regarding attitudes towards and actual use of the L1, as well as the motives underlying those views and uses, especially in English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) contexts within Saudi Arabia. This gap is particularly notable in the case of Preparatory Year Programmes (PYPs) and English-Medium Instruction (EMI) courses in higher education in Saudi Arabia, where Arabic is the mother tongue but English is essential for academic and professional advancement.

This thesis, therefore, aims to investigate teachers' and students' attitudes towards and actual use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms in Saudi higher education, in terms of the purposes for which it is used and the factors and situations influencing its use. The study employed a mixed-methods approach in two phases. The first involved classroom observation (4 groups from each domain) and stimulated recall interviews (8 teachers and 11 students) to investigate actual use of the L1 and the factors motivating its use. The second phase comprised questionnaire (21 teachers and 134 students), with follow-up interviews (7 teachers and 15 students) to explore the participants' attitudes and the reasons for their views. The findings showed that while there were differences in views and practices among teachers and students, there was clear evidence of extensive use of the L1 in Saudi ESAP classrooms for a wide range of purposes (e.g. explaining ESAP vocabulary and joking with the students), but it was used largely as a device to deal with issues arising during the lessons. In terms of attitudes, the participants acknowledged the significance of English while also recognising the various beneficial roles of the L1, especially when facing difficulties with ESAP

vocabulary and teaching low-proficiency students. By offering in-depth insights into teachers and students' attitudes and practices in Saudi ESAP contexts, this research not only fills a crucial empirical gap but also contributes to the broader discussion on the reintegration of L1 in EMI in higher education settings. The findings have implications for language policymakers, educators and curriculum designers that could help design and implement effective teaching methodologies to achieve optimal learning outcomes.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1. Introduction.....	1
1.1 Introduction.....	1
1.1.1 Research interest	1
1.1.2 Background to the study	2
1.1.3 Significance of the study.....	4
1.1.4 Limitations of previous studies	5
1.2 Research context: Saudi Arabia	6
1.2.1 Education in Saudi Arabia.....	8
1.2.2 Significance of education for the Saudi government	9
1.2.3 English language teaching in Saudi Arabia.....	9
1.2.4 The current status of English language teaching and learning.....	11
1.3 Research site: English Language Centre.....	16
1.3.1 Preparatory Year Programme (PYP)	16
1.3.2 Use of English in the Preparatory Year Programme: English for Specific Academic Purposes and English as the medium of instruction	18
1.4 Structure of the thesis.....	20
Chapter 2. Literature Review	21
2.1 Introduction.....	21
2.2 Shifting perspectives on L1 use in language teaching and learning	21
2.2.1 The origins of translation and L1 use.....	21
2.2.2 The Grammar Translation Method.....	22
2.2.3 The Reform Movement	23
2.2.4 The Direct Method	25
2.2.5 Behaviourism: The Audiolingual Method.....	27
2.2.6 The re-emergence of L1 use in alternative methods	30
2.2.7 Communicative Language Teaching and relevant theories	31
2.2.8 The spread of the monolingual approach	34
2.3 Change in context and recognition of L1 use	37
2.3.1 Current forms of L1 use	39
2.3.2 Current understandings of L1 use	45
2.3.3 English language teaching (ELT) in higher education	49
2.4 Empirical studies of L1 use.....	59

2.4.1 Teachers' beliefs about the inclusion and amount of L1	59
2.4.2 Empirical studies on the inclusion and amount of L1	61
2.4.3 Attitudes to and actual use of the L1	63
2.4.4 Functions of L1 use in ESAP contexts.....	66
2.4.5 Functions of L1 use by students.....	68
2.4.6 Factors influencing L1 use	69
2.5 Summary	76
Chapter 3. Methodology	78
3.1 Introduction.....	78
3.2 Research paradigm.....	78
3.3 Methodology: Mixed-methods approach.....	79
3.4 Aim of the study.....	83
3.5 Research questions.....	83
3.6 Research context and participants.....	85
3.7 Research instruments	87
3.7.1 Observation	87
3.7.2 Stimulated recall interviews.....	90
3.7.3 Questionnaire	91
3.7.4 Interviews.....	93
3.8 Data collection procedures.....	95
3.8.1 Piloting.....	95
3.8.2 The main study.....	99
3.9 Data analysis	109
3.9.3 Qualitative data analysis	109
3.9.4 Quantitative data analysis	111
3.10 Quality of the study.....	112
3.10.1 Reliability and validity.....	112
3.10.2 Trustworthiness	112
3.10.3 Reflexivity.....	114
3.11 Ethical considerations	115
3.11.1 Consent, confidentiality and anonymity	115
3.11.2 Potential harm to participants.....	116
3.12 Summary	116

Chapter 4. Analysis and Discussion of Teachers’ Attitudes and Actual use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms	118
4.1 Introduction	118
4.2 Teachers’ attitudes towards the inclusion of L1 use.....	120
4.3 Teachers’ attitudes towards the frequency of L1 use	123
4.4 Teachers’ practices and attitudes regarding the purposes and reasons for L1 use in ESAP classrooms	124
4.4.1 Pedagogical-related purposes.....	125
4.4.2 Instruction-related purposes	159
4.4.3 Feedback-related purposes	175
4.4.4 Religious-related purposes	182
4.4.5 Interpersonal-related purposes	185
4.5 Teachers’ attitudes towards broader aspects of L1 use: Purposes, factors and situations beyond observed practices	189
4.5.1 Attitudes towards functions/purposes of L1 use	190
4.5.2 Factors influencing L1 use	194
4.5.3 Situations in which L1 use might be considered appropriate	198
4.6 Summary	203
Chapter 5. Analysis and Discussion of Students’ Attitudes and Actual Use of the L1 in ESAP Classrooms	205
5.1 Introduction	205
5.2 Students’ attitudes towards the inclusion of L1 use	206
5.3 Attitudes towards the frequency of L1 use.....	211
5.4 Students’ practices and attitudes regarding the purposes and reasons for L1 use in ESAP classrooms	214
5.4.1 Pedagogical-related purposes.....	215
5.4.2 Instruction-related purposes	236
5.4.3 Feedback-related purposes	240
5.4.4 Religious-related purposes	247
5.4.5 Interpersonal-related purposes	249
5.5 Students’ Attitudes Towards Broader Aspects of L1 Use: Purposes, Factors and Situations Beyond Observed Practices	256
5.5.1 Functions of L1 use.....	256
5.5.2 Factors influencing L1 use	266
5.5.3 Situations in which L1 use might be appropriate.....	269

5.6 Main findings and implications.....	273
Chapter 6. Conclusion	280
6.1 Introduction.....	280
6.2 Research aims	280
6.3 Research questions and main findings	280
6.3.1 Attitudes towards the use of the L1	280
6.3.2 Actual use of the L1	282
6.4 Study contributions	287
6.5 Research implications	288
6.6 Study limitations	290
6.7 Recommendations	292
References	295
Appendix A. Observation Schedule.....	320
Appendix B. Teachers' Questionnaire	321
Appendix C. Students' Questionnaire	322
Appendix D. Interview Questions.....	326
Appendix E. Permission for Data Collection.....	329
Appendix F. Revised Observation Schedule	330
Appendix G. Sample Observation Schedule.....	331
Appendix H. Stimulated Recall Interview Sample	334
Appendix I. Follow-up Interview Sample	335
Appendix J. Codebook and Themes	336
Appendix K. Information and Consent Form (English)	345
Appendix L. Information and Consent Form (Arabic)	347

List of Tables

Table 3.1. Research questions and instruments.....	84
Table 3.2. Research instruments and participants.	87
Table 3.3. Demographic information of observed teachers.	101
Table 3.4. Demographic information of teachers interviewed.	106
Table 3.5. Student questionnaire respondents' fields of study	107
Table 3.6. Demographic characteristics of interviewed teachers	108
Table 3.7. Student interviewees' ESAP domains	108
Table 4.1. Themes and codes related to pedagogical purposes.	126
Table 4.2. Instructional-related purposes themes and codes.	160
Table 4.3. Feedback-related purposes themes and codes	175
Table 4.4. Religious-related purposes	183
Table 4.5. Interpersonal-related purposes	185
Table 5.1. Pedagogical-related purposes for L1 use.	215
Table 5.2. Instructional-related purposes themes and codes.	237
Table 5.3. Feedback-related purposes themes and codes	240
Table 5.4. Religious-related purposes	247
Table 5.5. Interpersonal-related purposes	249
Table I(1). Codebook.	336
Table I(2). Themes and codes.	343

List of Figures

Figure 3.1. Research design.	82
Figure 3.2. Planned data collection stages.	96
Figure 3.3 Revised data collection procedure.	100
Figure 4.1. Teachers' responses to the inclusion of Arabic in class.	121
Figure 4.2. Teachers' attitudes to the frequency of Arabic use.	124
Figure 4.3. Teachers' responses to the use of L1 when teaching an item with an equivalent in Arabic.	130
Figure 4.4. Use of the L1 to explain reading passages.	134
Figure 4.5. Use of the L1 to explain abstract or specialised vocabulary.	137
Figure 4.6. Use of the L1 to explain vocabulary.	138
Figure 4.7. Use of the L1 to teach unfamiliar content.	140
Figure 4.8. Use of the L1 to save time.	141
Figure 4.9. Use of the L1 when an item is likely to be in an examination.	142
Figure 4.10. Use of the L1 when students ask for clarification.	144
Figure 4.11. Use of the L1 when students ask for translation.	145
Figure 4.12. Use of the L1 when teaching low-level students.	148
Figure 4.13. Use of the L1 to explain grammar.	152
Figure 4.14. Use of the L1 to teach speaking rules.	157
Figure 4.15. Use of the L1 to give instructions during classroom tasks and activities.	163
Figure 4.16. Use of the L1 to maintain discipline.	166
Figure 4.17. Use of the L1 when students seem lost.	168
Figure 4.18. Use of the L1 when students are demotivated/out of mood.	170
Figure 4.19. Use of the L1 to check comprehension.	172
Figure 4.20. Use of the L1 to sum up the lesson.	173
Figure 4.21. Use of the L1 when students are stressed.	177
Figure 4.22. Use of the L1 to provide feedback on written work.	178
Figure 4.23. Use of the L1 to correct spoken errors.	179
Figure 4.24. Use of the L1 to joke with students and create a good classroom atmosphere.	188
Figure 4.25. Teachers' responses to the use of the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives.	191
Figure 4.26. Use of the L1 to give instructions during tests.	192
Figure 4.27. Use of the L1 to check attendance.	193
Figure 4.28. Use of the L1 when teaching large numbers of students.	194
Figure 4.29. Use of the L1 when teaching in a lecture hall.	196
Figure 4.30. Use of the L1 to cover an overloaded syllabus.	197
Figure 4.31. Use of the L1 to avoid making errors in English.	199
Figure 4.32. Use of the L1 with students focused on examinations.	200
Figure 4.33. Use of the L1 when unable to simplify words.	201
Figure 4.34. Use of the L1 when feeling tired.	202
Figure 4.27. Students' use of the L1 in ESAP classes.	207
Figure 4.28. Preferred frequency of teachers' use of the L1.	212

Figure 4.33. Use of the L1 to teach an English linguistic item with an equivalent in Arabic.	217
Figure 4.30. Use of the L1 to explain reading passages.	219
Figure 4.32. Use of the L1 to explain abstract and specialised vocabulary.	222
Figure 4.31. Use of the L1 to explain vocabulary.	222
Figure 4.33. Use of the L1 to teach an English linguistic item with an equivalent in Arabic.	225
Figure 4.29. Use of the L1 to save time.	226
Figure 4.37. Use of the L1 with low-level students.	229
Figure 4.34. Use of the L1 when students ask for translation.	230
Figure 4.35. Use of the L1 when students ask for clarification.	231
Figure 4.38. Use of the L1 to explain grammar.	234
Figure 4.44. Use of the L1 to give instructions during classroom tasks and activities.	239
Figure 4.42. Use of the L1 to correct spoken errors.	243
Figure 4.43. Use of the L1 to provide feedback on written work.	244
Figure 4.41. Use of the L1 when students are demotivated.	251
Figure 4.40. Use of the L1 to joke and create a good classroom atmosphere.	254
Figure 4.36. Use of the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives.	257
Figure 4.55. Use of the L1 to check comprehension.	258
Figure 4.56. Use of the L1 to sum up a lesson.	259
Figure 4.57. Use of the L1 to teach speaking rules.	260
Figure 4.58. Use of the L1 to suggest effective learning strategies.	261
Figure 4.59. Use of the L1 to give instructions during tests.	263
Figure 4.39. Use of the L1 to maintain discipline.	264
Figure 4.60. Use of the L1 to check attendance.	265
Figure 4.45. Use of the L1 to cope with large numbers of students in class.	267
Figure 4.61. Use of the L1 to cope with an overloaded syllabus.	268
Figure 4.63. Use of the L1 when students are lost.	269
Figure 4.64. Use of the L1 when students are tired.	270
Figure 4.65. Use of the L1 when the teacher cannot simplify terms.	271
Figure 4.66. Use of the L1 when an item is likely to be in an examination.	272

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Author's Declaration

I declare that, except where explicit reference is made to the contribution of others, that this dissertation is the result of my own work and has not been submitted for any other degree at the University of Glasgow or any other institution.

Signature: Abdulaziz Almatrafi

Acronyms and Abbreviations

EFL English as a Foreign Language

EAP English for Academic Purposes

EGAP English for General Academic Purposes

ESAP English for Specific Academic Purposes

ESP English for Specific Purposes

ELC English Language Centre

KSA Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

L1 First language

L2 Second language

PYP Preparatory Year Programme

SLA Second language acquisition

ZPD Zone of proximal development

Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This study investigates teachers' and students' attitudes towards and actual use of the students' first language (L1) in an English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) context within a university Preparatory Year Programme (PYP) in Saudi Arabia. It explores their beliefs about how the L1 should be used in ESAP classes. In addition, it examines how teachers and students use the L1 in ESAP classes, as well as the reasons they give for their perceptions of and motives for using the L1.

This opening chapter contextualises the research and offers an overview of the thesis. To begin, I discuss my reasons for investigating L1 use. I then provide an overview of the topic, its importance, the research aims, and the educational context. Lastly, I briefly set out the subsequent chapters.

1.1.1 Research interest

Although I did my bachelor's degree in English language and linguistics and took some courses related to second language acquisition (SLA), there were no courses or lessons that discussed the benefits of first language (L1) use in the second language (L2) classroom, except those related to Behaviourism and Contrastive Analysis (see Chapter 2). My interest in the use of the L1 began on the day I went to university to receive my bachelor's degree certificate. I was in the English department building and passing a classroom. The teacher was teaching some aspects of syntax and semantics, trying to explain the meaning of "agent" and "patient". I heard him using Arabic to explain these terms. Although I used the L1 frequently as a learner, I had not considered why teachers and students use it and whether its use would have a positive or a negative impact on the process of teaching and learning. However, having heard it used, perhaps because I was not part of that class, I began to wonder why the teacher did not use English to explain those terms. Was it not wrong to use Arabic? Did he have to use Arabic at that particular moment? I began to question every aspect of Arabic use at that time.

My interest began to evolve when I held the position of language instructor. My awareness of L1 use made me conscious of it in every class I taught, although there might have been occasions when I used it unconsciously. However, the point is that I was very careful about my uses. I started to notice that similar to many studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015), I had conflicting views about the use of the L1 (Arabic) in the L2 (English) classroom. Upon discussing this issue with other colleagues, I found similar concerns. Although there were official guidelines prohibiting the use of the L1 in classes in Saudi Arabia (Baeshin, 2016), there was no policy concerning its use at the university where I worked, although it was expected that classes would be conducted in English.

It might be the case that institutional policy influences the use of L1 in one way or another, as noted by Duff and Polio (1990), but there might be teachers who follow their own policy concerning its use. They might do so regardless of their students' attitudes towards its use (Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009), despite recognition of their importance in making such a decision (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Studies have revealed that teachers are not happy about the uses of the L1 in the Arabic context (see Alshehri, 2017) and elsewhere (e.g. Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Macaro, 2009), but it is unclear whether, for example, this is because they have an issue with using the L1 altogether or the frequency with which it is employed.

Part of my interest concerned how teachers perceive and use the L1 in class. In other words, I was concerned not only with attitudes towards its use but also actual use. This included exploring the factors underlying teachers' attitudes and what motivated them to use the L1 as there are many reported differences between teachers' perceptions and actual use of the L1 (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2012). Teachers' attitudes are shaped by their beliefs and factors such as learning and teaching experience, as well as their understanding of students' attitudes and their use of the L1. Their attitudes are important in directing and balancing the amount and functions of L1 and L2 use. Moreover, students' levels of linguistic proficiency, motivation and engagement have long been listed among the factors that affect their use of the L1 (Lu & Fehring, 2015).

1.1.2 Background to the study

Before discussing the literature, it is important to note that this thesis acknowledges the recent interest in the use of the first language (L1). This includes the shift in focus towards

bilingual teaching, with the recognition of translation and code-switching and the ongoing development of translanguaging defying the concept of defined languages. Hall (2020) addressed the various ways in which translanguaging is defined – as a concept, a pedagogy and a lens – considering this issue challenging for those working within the field of ELT. He further noted that some studies viewed translation as form of translanguaging, arguing that discussion on own language and new language use fall under the umbrella of translanguaging, whereby all language resources can be used to learn a new language. This study acknowledges the issues surrounding the terms “mother tongue”, “first” and “native” language, since learners might be multilingual and teaching might draw on their L2 to teach them their third or fourth language; hence, the suggestion to use the term “own language” (Hall & Cook 2013). However, due to their wide use in the literature, the terms “first language” (L1) and “own language” are employed interchangeably in this thesis, while the terms “code-switching” and “translanguaging” are used as contextually appropriate (see Chapter 2 for further detail).

The literature on the use of the L1 in language teaching and learning shows that it has long been a matter of debate (Hall & Cook, 2012). The origins can be traced to the 19th century, when L1 use was considered the norm. This was later discouraged with the advent of the Reform Movement and subsequently prohibited with the emergence of new methods (e.g. the Direct Method), based on the view that it could have negative effects, such as hindering the development of fluency and causing language interference (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). While receiving a little support and use within alternative approaches (e.g. Total Physical Response), major theories of SLA, such as comprehensible input (Krashen, 1982), consolidated its avoidance, leading to uncertainty concerning its applicability within recent approaches to language teaching, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). However, in many circumstances, as noted by Cook (2001, p. 405), L1 use “creeps back in”, reflecting the fact that language teaching theories and methods might not be followed or applied in classrooms in their entirety (Hall & Cook, 2013). Moreover, criticisms of an L1-only policy in recognition of learners’ prior knowledge, together with academic and political changes, have resulted in the revival of interest in and encouragement of L1 use (Hall, 2020).

Interestingly, teachers tend to under-report their L1 use (Hall & Cook, 2012) perceiving it as regrettable but necessary (Macaro, 2005). However, others hold positive view (Schweers,

1999) and some begin using it but decrease its use as students make progress in learning (Shimizu, 2006). Many of these studies found participants value its use to promote comprehension of grammar, vocabulary and complex linguistic items. Using the L1 can make students feel comfortable, especially at lower levels, and enable them to follow the lesson. Studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015) observing its use in the classroom have concluded that some teachers also employ the L1 to maintain discipline. Studies have also found the L1 to be beneficial for explaining different types of instructions, such as for examinations and class activities (Shimizu, 2006). In addition, they have found participants use it for joking and creating a friendly atmosphere (Schweers, 1999). Studies in the ESAP context, such as those of Shimizu (2006) and Kovačić and Kirinić (2011), have found teachers and students favour use of the L1 to explain difficult grammatical items, or to provide the exact meaning of specialist terms (e.g. Chirobocea-Tudor, 2021), suggesting differences in attitudes and uses worth exploring. Various researchers (e.g. De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Edstrom, 2006; Franklin, 1990) have sought to examine the reasons for teachers' and students' preferences concerning the inclusion of the L1 and have concluded that institutional policies and students' proficiency are among the factors affecting the language choice. In another vein, Alsuhaibani's (2015) study concluded that teachers' uses of the L1 were influenced by situations that arose within the class.

1.1.3 Significance of the study

Despite growing global interest in the use of the L1 in the language classroom, little research has been conducted on this topic within the Saudi context, both generally and in higher education preparatory ESAP programmes specifically. There is therefore a gap that needs to be addressed through research at the local level to understand the various aspects of L1 use in English language classrooms in the Saudi setting. There has been an expansion of ESAP programmes in Saudi Arabia driven by national educational reforms and the increasing implementation of English-medium instruction (EMI) in universities (Gaffas, 2016). ESAP provision serves as a crucial bridge between students' general and academic English proficiency, and the specific linguistic demands of academic degree courses taught in English. Yet, this has received insufficient attention in research in Saudi Arabia, especially with respect to the role and implications of L1 use. ESAP is a relatively new concept in Saudi Arabia and, to my knowledge, only two studies (AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019; Rushwan,

2017) have addressed the use of L1 within this context, demonstrating the need for further exploration.

Thus, this study makes a significant contribution by examining L1 use in the Saudi ESAP context in terms of its inclusion, its functions and the situations in which it is employed. By focusing on the Saudi context, the study addresses the need for context-specific studies that consider Saudi learners' needs and institutional expectations. It is hoped that the findings of this research will inform pedagogical practices, enhance teacher training programmes and inform decision-making on educational policy regarding language instruction in higher education in Saudi Arabia.

Furthermore, the findings offer valuable theoretical and practical contributions to the broader field of English Language Teaching (ELT) in identifying principled (Levine, 2003) and judicious (Edstrom, 2006) uses of the L1, especially in the ESAP context. There are also significant insights for those who prepare training programmes for teachers, as pointed out by Baeshin (2016), who discussed the usefulness of the L1. This research thus fills a crucial gap in the literature by shedding light on attitudes towards and uses of the L1 in the ESAP context in Saudi Arabia, a context where English continues to play a vital role in both ESAP and EMI programmes, as well as contributing to broader academic and professional advancement.

1.1.4 Limitations of previous studies

Although prior studies (e.g., Schweers, 1999; Shimizu, 2006; Tang, 2002) have examined the main functions of L1 use and concluded that they are often related to grammar and vocabulary, they have not tended to explore the reasons underlying its use. Moreover, they have discussed how teachers use the L1, for explaining grammar and words, but not the kinds of words teachers and students find difficult and use the L1 to explain, for example, equivalence or the lack of it. Some studies have reported that teachers use the L1 to save time but have not indicated whether this is in relation to practice activities, to cover materials or because the lesson time is limited. One possible reason for these gaps is that most studies have used structured questionnaires with closed questions and have not given participants the opportunity to provide additional information related to the use of the L1. Furthermore, previous studies have overlooked the role of students' use of the L1 and its implications for

their classmates' and teachers' choice of language. In addition, few studies have investigated actual use of the L1 and explained the factors motivating its use, which are both critical for determining its effectiveness. Finally, it has been documented that teachers tend to under-report, consciously or unconsciously, their use of the L1 (Hall & Cook, 2012) and they might be unaware of the range of functions for which they employ it. Thus, this study employed a mixed-methods approach, using questionnaires, follow-up interviews, observation and stimulated recall interviews to explore teachers' and students' attitudes and their actual use of the L1 to answer the following refined research questions, which are discussed in detail in Section 3.5:

RQ1. How do teachers and students use Arabic in ESAP classes?

- (a) In which situations do teachers and students use Arabic in class?
- (b) Why do teachers and students use Arabic in class?

RQ2. What are teachers' and students' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses for medical/technical fields of study?

- (a) What are teachers' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses in terms of the frequency and functions of use, the factors driving its use and the situations in which it is used?
- (b) What are students' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses in terms of the frequency and functions of use, the factors driving its use and the situations in which it is used?
- (c) What factors affect teachers' and students' perceptions of the use of Arabic in class?

RQ3. What are the reasons behind teachers and students' perceptions regarding their preferred frequency and functions of use and their motives for using the L1?

1.2 Research context: Saudi Arabia

Saudi Arabia, officially known as the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), which is the context of this study, is an independent Muslim country with a rich cultural and religious heritage, located in the southwest of Asia. Founded in 1932 by King Abdulaziz, its origins can be traced back to the earliest civilisations of the Arabian Peninsula and it holds a strategic

location, connecting Asia, Africa and Europe (Embassy of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia). It covers about 80% of the Arabian Peninsula and is the largest country in the Middle East, fifth largest in Asia (Saudi Arabia, 2024). It is bordered by the Red Sea to the west, Kuwait, Jordan and Iraq to the north, Yemen to the south, Oman to the southeast and the United Arab Emirates, Qatar and the Persian Gulf to the east. It is widely recognised as significant both religiously and economically, aspects that have played major roles in the Saudi educational system, including the introduction of English.

Saudi Arabia is a Muslim country and its official language is Arabic. It is recognised as the centre of Islam and is the site of the two holiest cities, Makkah, where prophet Mohammed was born around 570 CE, and Medina. Millions of Muslims visit these two cities to pray and perform pilgrimage each year. There is a strong connection between Arabic and Islam as it is the language of the holy book from Allah, the Quran. The Quran was revealed in Arabic for many reasons, including being the mother tongue of the prophet and the people he first preached to. Arabic has a rich vocabulary and complex grammar. The Quran was vital for its preservation and standardisation and continues to be a reference point (Rahman, 2009). It could be said that Arabic is viewed not merely as a language but as part of Muslims' religious and cultural identities. In addition, there is a strong relationship between Arabic and Muslims' practices, including their daily supplications. It should be noted that despite the availability of translations of the Quran, they are not an accurate equivalence of the original version. Indeed, as Rahman (2009) stressed that the Quran defies translation. Hence, many Muslims learn Arabic to feel a deep connection with the words of God. This shows the strong connection of many Muslims, including Saudi people, with the Arabic language. While visitors to the Holy mosques in Makkah and Medina often expect to be able to communicate in English and/or in Arabic, the Saudi government has trained employees to be able to communicate in a wide range of languages, such as Urdu and French.

The discovery of oil in the 1930s significantly changed the Saudi economy (Alshahrani, 2015). Following War World II, Saudi Arabia gained the interest of the world due to its oil reserves. The Saudi Arabian government partnered with United States (US) oil firms, resulting in the foundation of the Saudi oil company, Aramco (Ramady, 2010). A new era of wealth began and enabled the Saudi government to invest and develop its health and education sectors and infrastructure. This resulted in the development of the whole country.

However, due to fluctuations in oil prices, the Saudi government has moved towards economic diversification. A key part of this is the advocacy of Saudization, which involves training, qualifying and employing Saudis, especially those who are unemployed (Dakhiel, 2017). The education system forms the basis for this movement.

1.2.1 Education in Saudi Arabia

Education in Saudi Arabia is deeply rooted in and interlinked with Islamic teachings. Schooling was traditionally centred on Quranic lessons aimed at teaching people, including children, to read the words of God and memorise them by heart. There was a gradual shift towards formal teaching beginning in 1930 for males, but it took about another 20 years for females to have formal schools during the time of King Faisal, one of the successors of King Abdulaziz, who played a vital role in developing the education system (Al-Otaibi, 2020). It is important to acknowledge the importance of Islam, as its principles influence the education system (Al-Otaibi, 2020). One aspect of this is gender segregation as the genders are taught separately and require separate schools and universities. This segregation also includes teachers and staff. It is not solely the result of Islamic principles but is also due to social and cultural norms and traditions (Al-Otaibi, 2020). Nonetheless, education is free at all levels and both genders receive an equal quantity and quality of education despite segregation (Al-Johani, 2009).

The Saudi education system consists of three main levels: preschool (kindergarten and nursery), schools and universities/colleges. Public schooling is free, but there are also private schools which charge tuition fees. Preschool education has now begun to be introduced as important but not mandatory. Children start preschool at the age of 3 and remain up to 6 years. This is then followed by 6 years of elementary level school, 3 years at intermediate level and 3 years at secondary school, to about the age of 17 years old. This is normally followed by a minimum of 4 years of study at university or college. Medical students are required to study for 7 years. Students can choose their preferred majors or specialist areas, but enrolment is dependent on their grade point average (GPA). It should be noted that English language is a mandatory module at almost all levels, including university level.

1.2.2 Significance of education for the Saudi government

The government of Saudi Arabia has shown a strong commitment to improving education and it has recently become a core basis of its development strategy. Evidence of this is shown in various initiatives taken to enhance the quality of education through policy reforms and investments. During King Abdullah's era, a scholarship programme was established in 2005, offering citizens the chance to study abroad at various international universities (Alqahtani, 2015). The investment in education demonstrates the focus on developing the education system. There are now 25 public universities, 9 private universities and 34 private colleges in the country. Another example of this is that roughly 18% of total government spending is directed to the education sector, including developing the infrastructure to ensure the necessary resources are in place to perform effectively (Saudi Ministry of Finance, 2021). One reason for this is the aim of the Saudi Vision 2030 to improve the education system with a view to making Saudi Arabia a knowledge-based economy (Vision 2030, 2016). This includes enhancing educational outcomes and ensuring students are able to meet the needs of the labour market on graduation. There has also been curriculum reform, aiming to meet international standards and prepare graduate students for the modern economy through teaching problem-solving skills and critical thinking (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2020). This includes the integration of technology into the education sector to enhance learning outcomes.

1.2.3 English language teaching in Saudi Arabia

At the school level, English was formally introduced in education to accelerate the integration of Saudi Arabia with the world (Alshahrani, 2016). Although the exact date when English was introduced in Saudi education is not clear (Alshahrani, 2016), according to Elyas and Picard (2010) English as a school subject was introduced in 1924. However, it was long seen as a threat to the native language, religion and identity. Nonetheless, English language skills became a necessity with the foundation of the Saudi Arabian oil company, Aramco, in the 1930s, as the Saudi employees needed to communicate with foreign workers. The 1960s marked the introduction of English as a compulsory subject, reflecting the attitude of the Saudi government towards English language teaching (Alshahrani, 2016). Until the mid-1980s, English was taught for 90 minutes per week, and then was increased to 4 classes per week, 45 minutes per class (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). English language use has grown

in Saudi Arabia due to globalisation and modernisation, necessitating Saudi nationals to attain high levels of competence in English (Alshahrani, 2016).

Elyas and Picard (2010) maintain that the methodologies and materials utilised in the teaching of English long remained traditional, with a considerable focus on translation and grammar. Elyas and Badawood (2016) noted that until 2001, there were no specific goals or objectives for English language teaching; rather, it followed general guidelines that were centred on the religion of Islam, derived from Quran and Hadith, reporting the words and actions of prophet Mohammed. The only official guideline at that time was:

...to provide students with proficiency in English as a way of acquiring knowledge in the fields of sciences, arts and new inventions, and of transferring knowledge and the sciences to other communities, in an effort to contribute to the spread of the faith of Islam and service to humanity. (Ministry of Education, Policy of English, 2002, as cited in Elyas & Badawood, 2016, p. 74)

According to Elyas and Badawood (2016), English was only seen as means of acquiring knowledge and spreading Islam and thus played an instrumental role.

From 2001 onwards, the general objectives of teaching English in Saudi Arabia began to recognise the importance of English as a global language to promote intellectual, personal and professional abilities and to acquire the necessary skills to be able to communicate in English (Elyas & Badawood, 2016). This resulted in the reform of the English language teaching programme and the introduction of English teaching in primary schools for two classes per week (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015), the integration of technology and the development of teacher training programmes (Al-Seghayer, 2014). The goals have gradually evolved over the years in response to socio-economic developments and changes in strategic goals. While English was previously only taught in intermediate and secondary schools, in 2010, English began to be taught from elementary level, specifically from grade 4.

At university level, English was first introduced in 1949 at the College of Islamic Law, in Makkah. Later, several English departments were established, for example at the King Saud University in 1957, the College of Education in 1963 and the Women's College of Education in 1972. Al-Seghayer (2024) noted that 1970s marked a growing interest in the teaching of English within Saudi universities when it was offered as an elective subject for those

studying scientific subjects, such as medicine and engineering. Between the 1980s and 1990s, English classes became mandatory for many undergraduate courses to address diverse academic and professional goals, reflecting the perceived need for English proficiency in various disciplines (Al-Seghayer, 2024). ELT in higher education can be distinguished in three categories. First, English language departments typically teach students pursuing degrees in English literature, linguistics and translation. These courses normally comprise a four-year programme covering various modules, such as theoretical linguistics and translation, enabling students to become English teachers or translators. Second, students studying non-scientific subjects take a mandatory English for Academic Purposes as a general requirement (Alsuwayhiri, 2024). Third, students pursuing scientific subjects enter a PYP to ensure that they have an adequate level of English competence to meet their academic needs through English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) (Alsuwayhiri, 2024, Gaffas, 2016), as discussed in sections 1.3 and 2.3.3.

1.2.4 The current status of English language teaching and learning

The Saudi Vision 2030 has led to numerous changes in many areas – political, social, economic and so on – drawing the attention of foreign workers and media. Moreover, Al-Seghayer (2023) observed that it promotes education at all levels and stated that:

With the introduction of Saudi Vision 2030, Saudi Arabia has indicated its awareness of the need for a workforce with strong English-language skills if the country is to be globally competitive in the 21st century and enable its economy and citizens to thrive. (p. 83)

These recent changes and the recognition of English as a lingua franca in Saudi Arabia has highlighted its role in the future of Saudis' jobs, as well as the country's development (Al-Seghayer, 2023; Vision 2030, 2016). The demand for strong communication skills in English has led to a focus on developing English language teaching and learning.

English is now taught at all levels, starting from preschool, as one of the main steps towards equipping students with English language skills (Al-Seghayer, 2023). Moreover, the Ministry of Education has introduced new textbooks in all stages with a focus on communicative skills. The contact hours for English language teaching have also changed.

At elementary level, students are taught three classes per week, while at secondary level, students attend four classes a week and high school students are taught five classes per week. English language teaching at university level differs. Arabic is used the medium of instruction for non-science majors, but at many Saudi universities, English is a compulsory module in the foundation year for students majoring in scientific subjects as they are English medium instruction (EMI) courses, a point will be discussed later in this Chapter. These changes in the educational system demonstrate the importance of English language teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia.

Challenges in English language teaching

Despite the considerable investments made to enhance ELT, outcomes among school leavers remain inadequate. Students continue to perform below the expected levels of proficiency, especially those necessary to cope with the requirements of higher academic studies. To gain a full understanding of the circumstances facing ELT at university, it is necessary first to examine these foundational shortcomings at the school level, as they directly influence students' preparedness for EMI in higher education.

English language teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia has faced various obstacles preventing it from achieving the desired outcomes (Alrahaili, 2018). Despite sizable investments in infrastructure, the integration of technologies and introduction of advanced teaching methodologies, "the level of achievement in learning English as a foreign language is far below [the level required]" (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013, p. 114). There seem to be various issues related to teachers and students that impede the process of teaching and learning.

Teachers might play a role that has a detrimental impact on English language teaching outcomes. There are several challenges that determine the quality of English language teaching, including teaching methodologies and teacher training programmes (Fareh, 2010). Teachers implement different methods within their classes. Alseghayer (2014) asserts that they typically employ the Audiolingual Method and Grammar Translation Method, which focus on students memorising lists of vocabulary and grammatical structures and repetition. Perhaps one reason for this is that English language teachers in Saudi Arabia are aware of the difficulties associated with implementing CLT in their classes. These challenges include

low-level students and groupwork issues (Farooq, 2015). Alsharif and Shukri (2018) found that each teacher implements a specific approach, and they concluded that teachers might use inappropriate methods. It seems that a major characteristic of a typical English language classroom is that it is mostly teacher-centred, with grammar translation and L1 use prevalent (Fareh, 2010), leaving no space for students to use the L2 and become more motivated to develop effective learning techniques (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

Despite the investments in teacher training programmes (OECD, 2020), public school teachers are generally untrained. They begin their career with the minimum requirement, namely, holding a bachelor's degree in English language, and according to Alqahtani (2019), very few of them attend specialised teaching programmes. Hence, it has been noted that English language teachers lack appropriate training (Fareh, 2010; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). Part of the problem is that their undergraduate degrees do not provide professional training or real classroom experience. This is believed to have a major effect on the teaching-learning process, including the selection and implementation of appropriate methods and approaches in EFL classes. For example, Fareh (2010) suggested that the result of this can be seen in a fragmented approach, in which teachers encourage rote learning through focusing on teaching grammar independently of language skills. Teachers' excessive use of the GTM and L1 limits students' exposure to and use of the target language (Fareh, 2010). Alqahtani (2019) warns that teachers' practices might not be aligned with modern teaching methods, which can negatively affect students' knowledge and use of English. Teachers might use outdated methods over effective ones for various reasons, such as their past learning experience, and therefore need training to deal with low-level students (Melibari, 2015) and encourage them to use the target language.

It has also been noted that English language textbooks might be part of the problem (OECD, 2020). One issue, associated with the methods implemented, is that some teaching materials focus on sentence patterns and grammatical rules (Alsharif & Shukri, 2018). Moreover, textbooks have been criticised for failing to respond to students' needs (Rahman & Alhosaini, 2013). Although school textbooks have been developed by local authors, there continue to be issues, such as a lack of pre-identified competencies and outcomes, resulting in a rather aimless approach to teaching (Fareh, 2010). In addition, some of the topics do not interest students and therefore do not motivate them to learn or participate in the learning

process. This could be the reason for many of them being disengaged. Another source of demotivation is the level of the content (Fareh, 2010). It is noted that some of the teaching materials are beyond students' level, leading many of them to feel frustrated. Almathkuri (2022) documented similar issues, noting that the ESAP textbooks were considered rather uninteresting. Moreover, teachers are commonly required to teach a large amount of content in a short time (Alsuwayhiri, 2024). They are therefore unable to address any obstacles they might face due to students' lack of understanding. Thus, teachers have called for updated, contextualised materials (Alsharif & Shukri, 2018).

In terms of students, there are several interlinked factors that result in poor learning outcomes. First, there are cultural and social attitudes associated with the study of English that are viewed as barriers by many students. English is often regarded as a language that represents a culture in conflict with the cultural and traditional values of the students (Elyas & Picard, 2010). Scholars have criticised the content of textbooks on the basis that it could potentially undermine students' identity and faith (Alqahtani, 2018). Students themselves view English as a threat to their identity (Elyas, 2011), making them reluctant to learn the language. However, Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013) note that there has recently been a shift, with attitudes becoming more positive, as English is now being recognised as important for students' futures in terms of communication, business and employment. Nevertheless, there remains the belief that English is a foreign language that represents Western values and beliefs (Alqahtani, 2018). This view affects students' motivation for learning English and can lead to disengagement with the learning process. Moreover, in the eyes of the students, English is a boring subject that they must study as part of their timetable. They consider English to be irrelevant for their lives and futures and therefore they memorise vocabulary, grammatical rules and a few English written passages just to pass their examinations (Jan, 1984; Zaid, 1993, as cited in Al-Seghayer, 2014). Some teachers tell their students which units they will be tested on (Alqahtani, 2019) and therefore the students achieve high marks with little effort or knowledge (Siddiek, 2011). Thus, most students are extrinsically motivated. They tend to be treated as passive learners, responding to questions and instructions from the teacher, who is viewed as a knowledge provider (Al-Seghayer, 2014).

Moreover, the little exposure to English outside the classroom adds to the lack of motivation. Many students do not see the benefits of learning the language beyond the classroom as there

are no opportunities to practise or use it in a meaningful way. These challenges are said to persist and result in long-term consequences in the form of fear and the perception that it is impossible to learn English. The problem is that students tend to carry these negative experiences up to higher levels (Al-Seghayer, 2014), which can ultimately affect their learning of English at the university level. Al-Seghayer (2014) highlighted the gap between the government's objectives and the challenges and negative perceptions among students, which subsequently lead to poor outcomes. Thus, it is perhaps not surprising that many students leave secondary school with low proficiency in English (Alrabai, 2014) and unable to participate in even short conversations (Alqahtani, 2019).

The very poor levels of English students tend to leave school with are often inadequate for university-level studies. As noted by Alqahtani (2019), "there is widespread dissatisfaction with the level of English proficiency actually achieved by school leavers" (p. 252). Alshammari (2022) noted that several studies have concluded that Saudi students' proficiency level is below average. Students' success in high school examinations does not necessarily indicate proficiency, as the examinations are not validated in the same way as authenticated proficiency assessments, such as those aligned with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages ([CEFR]; Alqahtani, 2019). In comparison to many countries, Saudi students underperform in international English proficiency tests (e.g. TOEFL) despite having had over 600 contact hours, which should put them at B2 on the CEFR (Alqahtani, 2019). Despite the focus in English lessons on grammar and vocabulary, meaning students should have attained a vocabulary bank ranging between 3,000 and 5,000 word families before the end of high school, Alqahtani (2019) argued that they only attain this by the time they graduate from university. Similarly, Al-Faqih (2015) concluded that students graduate from high school with little knowledge. As a result, students are often unable to write or speak in English without making errors (Alqahtani, 2019) and are likely to have difficulties during their university studies (Alshammari, 2022). Due to the lack of satisfaction with the school tests and results, all Saudi universities require their students to take a General Aptitude Test (Qudrat) and an Achievement Test (Tahsili) (Siddiek, 2011). Students are accepted for enrolment based on a combination of their school grades (30%) and scores in the Qudrat and Tahsili (70%).

1.3 Research site: English Language Centre

The university where the study was conducted was officially established in the 1990s. It teaches various subjects, such as Islamic studies, Engineering and Science. The university not only offers undergraduate courses but also other qualifications, such as diplomas, master's degrees and PhDs in a wide range of specialisations. The university has an English Language Centre (ELC) to address needs such as offering English courses for to help them achieve adequate proficiency level prior to majoring in science subjects for whom English is the medium of instruction, a point will be discussed in the following paragraph. It also provides services to the community, offering courses in English for general and specific purposes to those who work in the military or during Hajj and Omrah. The ELC is considered a crucial part of the College of Social Science as it offers several professional services in English language teaching to the university colleges.

1.3.1 Preparatory Year Programme (PYP)

Since 2011, the ELC has provided courses as part of the university's PYP, which "plays a vital role in the academic and professional lives of students. It bridges the glaring gap between the school education and professional colleges' scheme of study" (Hussain et al., 2017, p. 38). All preparatory year students are required to pass several courses, such as chemistry, physics and English, with the aim of enriching their linguistic and academic skills so that they can succeed in their chosen colleges. In colleges such as Engineering, Medicine, Business and Science, the students are taught through EMI; the aim is to equip students with adequate proficiency in English for their studies and careers. The aim of this program with respect to the intensive English courses is improve students' overall proficiency in English, including basic study skills such as pre-reading and presentations, while also focusing on functional language and discipline-specific vocabulary to support communication in academic and professional contexts (Alghamdi & Deraney, 2018; Gaffas, 2016).

However, PYP students face significant challenges in understanding and engaging with subjects taught in EMI, such as chemistry, due to their limited English proficiency and the specialised terminology involved. Shamim et al, (2016) stated that "In the PYP, the prescribed textbooks for the science subjects and math are in English; however, they contain bilingual (English and Arabic) glossaries of scientific terms" (p. 40). Likewise, Gaffas (2016) indicated that PYP students often face comprehension issues in their non-English

courses, which include unfamiliar specialised terms. Students in Shamim et al. (2016) explained that they could easily understand math because it largely involved numbers, but they generally struggled with subjects such as physics or chemistry because they include specialised terminologies. Consequently, teachers and students in such classes tend to adopt various coping techniques to manage these difficulties, including the use of L1 for explanation and translation (Gaffas, 2016; Shamim et al., 2016). These were among the techniques used to cope with students' low proficiency in English although it was noted that teachers needed training in bilingual pedagogy or strategic L1 use (Shamim et al., 2016).

At the time of this study, the ELC employed a total of 65 instructors (45 male), 16 of whom were Saudi, with the others comprising a range of different nationalities. Each year, around 3,000 students are admitted to the PYP. The ELC offers English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction over the year-long programme. This programme provides two intensive compulsory courses. In the first semester, students are offered English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) to enhance their knowledge and skills in listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar. The textbooks taught in this semester are A1, A2 and B1 of the Oxford Milestones in English series, which are designed to suit the Middle Eastern and Turkish context and aim to assist students to succeed in higher education. PYP students are typically introduced to A1 and A2, both of which are General English textbooks and reflect the CEFR definition of basic uses of everyday language. B1 marks a transitional stage from General English to EGAP, as students start engaging with simplified academic tasks classified by the CEFR as being for independent users of the language. According to the publishers of the materials, the objective of the course in semester 1 is to help students attain intermediate level in preparation for ESAP studies in the second semester.

Upon successful completion of the first course, students attend the ESAP course over a period of 16 weeks, receiving 192 hours. This course aims to provide discipline-specific knowledge in three main areas, Scientific, Medical and Business, through the Oxford English for Careers series, specifically Technology 1 & 2, Nursing 1 & 2 and Commerce 1 & 2. The intended level of English proficiency that students are expected to achieve by the end of the course is not explicitly stated. Rather, the main goal of the ESAP course is to develop students' communication skills in their specialised fields. The ultimate goal of both courses

is to prepare students to work or study in an English-medium setting in their second year (see Section 2.3.3 for a more detailed discussion).

Before commencing their English courses, students typically take a classification/placement test to assess their proficiency so they can be enrolled in the appropriate class for their level. Students are then grouped according to their level: beginner, lower-intermediate, intermediate or advanced. This is to set appropriate contact hours to meet the students' needs and help them achieve an adequate level for the ESAP course in the second semester. Beginners receive 20 hours, while lower-intermediate students attend 16 hours, but both groups are taught A1, A2 and B1 Milestones in English over the first semester. Intermediate students are given 16 hours covering A2 and B1 Milestones in English. Advanced level students have only 8 hours a week and study B1 Milestones in English over the same period. Students who have taken internationally recognised tests, such as TOEFL and IELTS, and have attained a minimum score of 5.5, will be exempt from the EGAP programme.

The coronavirus pandemic had a considerable effect on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, including its education system. Following the lockdown and measures taken to limit the spread of COVID-19, it was difficult to undertake several procedures, especially under such unprecedented circumstances. In addition, some of these procedures were not resumed even after the government's announcement re-opening schools and universities with some precautions. These included the placement tests and thus students were placed in classes randomly and all received the same contact hours, 16 hours per week. This could have affected the teaching methods and use of the L1 as classes would include multi-level students. Moreover, teachers might be familiar with teaching such classes and consequently their acceptance and use of the L1 might be influenced.

1.3.2 Use of English in the Preparatory Year Programme: English for Specific Academic Purposes and English as the medium of instruction

This research explored the teaching and learning of ESAP in the PYP, which uses English to teach the content and to improve students' knowledge of English. This section aims to explain the various terms employed in this study to help understand the context. ESAP is a branch of ESP, defined as follows:

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is an approach to language teaching that targets the current and/or future academic or occupational needs of learners, focuses on the necessary language, genres, and skills to address these needs, and assists learners in meeting these needs through the use of general and/or discipline-specific teaching materials and methods. (Anthony, 2018, p. 1)

This field grew considerably after World War II because of changes in various fields, including economic and scientific, in which English became a lingua franca due to the economic power of the US (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). In addition, the growth in technology and commerce called for an international language tailored to the needs and demands of those wanting to move to oil-rich countries (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). This signified a new shift in goals, emphasising that context shapes the use of language and reflecting Hutchinson and Waters' point, "Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need" (1987, as cited in Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018, p. 3).

The first document on English for Science and Technology that explained the nature of scientific English was published by C. L. Barber in 1962. This was followed by several universities introducing ESP courses, such as English for Engineers and English for Advertising, which later expanded to cover new areas, such as EAP and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), each of which aimed to meet specific learners' needs (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). Thus, ESP is a broad field with several important branches, but EAP is considered the most influential as it focuses on teaching ESP in academic contexts, in which learners are required to develop the language skills necessary to complete their university studies (Anthony, 2018). EAP can be further divided into two main branches: EGAP and ESAP (Anthony, 2018).

EMI, put simply, is the use of English as the language of instruction to teach traditional content courses, in which the content is prioritised (Anthony, 2018). Anthony (2018) explains where EMI would fit if placed on a continuum of approaches concerning L1 use: "the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) is placed on the left side of the continuum, and CLT and CBI are placed toward the middle. This leaves EMI on the far right of the scale" (p. 20). The continuous spread of EMI has resulted in a shift from teaching EFL to English being integral to instruction (Kırkgöz & Dikilitaş, 2018). Linking EMI with ESP, the former refers to the language of instruction and the latter indicates the content. They share commonalities but also affect each other (Costa & Mastellotto, 2022). In this research

context, as noted earlier, English is used to teach ESAP courses for Medical and Engineering students with the aim of equipping them with the required linguistic competence and subject knowledge. A more detailed discussion of these terms and their interpretation within the Saudi context is provided in 2.3.3.

EMI programmes often face various challenges (Galloway & Sahan, 2021). Some of these are associated with teachers' and students' English proficiency. Teachers have been found to be unable to explain certain content in English, while students have also reported difficulties understanding content in English. Another issue is that students can be unclear whether to focus on understanding the content or improving their language skills. In Galloway and Sahan's (2021) study, the students preferred an English-only environment but also believed that limited L1 use would aid them in comprehending the content.

1.4 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters, which are structured as follows. Chapter 2 presents a comprehensive review of the relevant literature concerning the use of the L1 in relation to teaching methods and theories, followed by a discussion on opposition to its use and the recognition of its role. The chapter concludes by reviewing recent empirical research conducted to investigate teachers' and students' perceptions of L1 use and its actual use, addressing its inclusion and functions, as well as reasons for favouring and using the L1. Chapter 3 presents the design of the study and methodological approach taken to collect and analyse the data, providing the rationale for the choices made. Chapter 4 illustrates the qualitative and quantitative findings, supported by examples, discussing each point in relation to the literature. Chapter 5 draws conclusions and relates the key findings back to the research questions. It also presents the limitations of the study and finally provides recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The use of the student's first language (L1) in learning a second language (L2) has long been a matter of debate in the field of language teaching. Attitudes to discouraging and forbidding the L1 use have changed and developed over time (Hall & Cook, 2012). A number of factors have impacted perceptions and use of the L1 in teaching and learning the target language. As pointed out by Kharma and Hajjaj (1989), views concerning L1 use have been based on various theories of teaching and learning, with different approaches leading to it either being allowed or banned. The main goal in adopting these different approaches was neither to include nor abandon the use of the L1 per se, but to establish an effective teaching method based on relevant fields, such as linguistics and psychology, to meet the learning objectives (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). These changes in methods, theories and ideologies, reflected in the changes in learning objectives, have affected the role of the L1 in the teaching and learning process. The following sections explore the changing role of L1 use from a historical perspective. The chapter then discusses the current context and reasons for re-evaluating the role of the L1. This is followed by a discussion on the current forms and understanding of L1 use. The final section reviews the various studies conducted to investigate teachers' and students' attitudes towards L1 use, and functions and reasons for employing the L1, especially in the ESAP context.

2.2 Shifting perspectives on L1 use in language teaching and learning

2.2.1 The origins of translation and L1 use

The use of translation, dating back over 3,000 years, arose from the administrative needs of multilingual empires and was first employed in elementary schools before seen more suitable for adults. The use of translation along with a bilingual glossary continued in the Middle Ages and later became a basic teaching style in the form of "vulgar", considered a better way of learning during the Renaissance based on the belief that translating sentences from and into the L1, mirroring the grammatical structure, would develop an understanding of the natural order of Latin and consequently lead to language learning (Kelly, 1969). By the 18th and 19th centuries, this method was considered successful and thus influenced modern

language teaching. At that time, students were taught abstract grammar rules along with a list of vocabulary and sentences to be used for the purpose of translation, while speaking was limited to reading translated sentences aloud (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In addition, the sentences were not contextualised or relevant to real-life language use as they were merely a vehicle for demonstrating the grammatical system of the language being taught (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This approach was later known as the Grammar Translation Method ([GTM]; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

2.2.2 The Grammar Translation Method

Between the 1840s and 1940, the GTM, also known as the Prussian Method, dominated the language teaching field (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The theory of learning underpinning the GTM focused on the memorisation of a set of rules and vocabulary and little knowledge of morphology and syntax; thus, grammar rules were generally presented with examples, while vocabulary was generally presented with equivalents and practised in translation exercises (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The emphasis was on the translation of sentences, analysing grammatical rules and memorising vocabulary to read, with a view to appreciating the literature in the target language and achieving a high level of proficiency in translation, which was part of the examinations the students sat (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Tsegaye (2023) perceives this as an intellectual activity, such that the L1 is utilised as “the points of references” (p. 95) within the GTM.

L1 in this method is used as a medium of instruction to explain or translate L2 vocabulary, as well as drawing attention to the grammar in the texts (Ghobadi & Ghasemi, 2015) and comparing components of the L1 and L2 (Simensen, 2007), namely, teaching the new language by presenting equivalents. The use of the L1 here, according to Tsegaye (2023), eliminates communication issues, enabling students to feel relaxed, understand the instructions and grammatical concepts and respond to questions, consequently helping them focus on the texts. However, the use of L1 in textbooks and its widespread use by teachers and students in the classroom leaves little time for teaching and practising listening and speaking skills in the L2 (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). As a result, students develop the habit of depending on their own language and feel uncomfortable and unable to use the target language in real situations (Tsegaye, 2023).

The development of ELT methods has also been reflected in the Saudi context. Saudi Arabia has historically been responsive to global developments in English teaching, incorporating a succession of methodologies as they emerged and developed internationally. ELT was first introduced in Saudi Arabia in 1924 (Al-Seghayer, 2024) but only formally integrated into Saudi Arabia's national curriculum in 1944. Al-Seghayer (2024) noted that between 1928 and 1959, there was no widely implemented, standardised teaching method. Abahussain (2016) maintained that during the introductory phase of English instruction in 1944, the purpose of ELT was to read and appreciate literature in the foreign language and to develop students' intellectual abilities.

At that time, teachers implemented the GTM, as reading, grammar, writing and translation were the main aspects focused on in the textbooks (Abahussain, 2016). This period also reflected the broader global trend at the time, wherein the GTM was the predominant instructional approach in language education. Due to various factors, for example contextual (Assalahi, 2013), GTM has persisted in various Saudi settings, including PYPs (Khalil & Semono-Eke, 2020). However, similar to elsewhere, GTM was increasingly criticised due to its focus on accuracy and written language over fluency and oral skills, which negatively affected students' ability to communicate in the target language outside the classroom. This led to a shift in the focus of language teaching and learning towards developing oral skills at the end of the 1950s (Abahussain, 2016; Alseghayer, 2011). Students' inability to speak in the target language has continued to be considered a major disadvantage since forming the basis for the movement against this method.

2.2.3 The Reform Movement

Towards the mid and late 19th century, several factors led to questioning of the GTM, including the increased demand for oral proficiency among Europeans (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Due to the expansion of the transportation system, there was a shift in goals to acquire spoken skills. This attracted the attention of many publishers and language teaching specialists which in turn raised concerns that "the public education system was seen to be failing in its responsibilities" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 7). There were some attempts (e.g., in Germany) to model child language learning and emphasize meaning.

Reformers such as F. Gouin developed his method based on the children L1 acquisition and use believing that “using language to accomplish events consisting of a sequence of related actions” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 8). Later, L. Sauveur promoted “natural principles”, seeing similarities between children’s L1 learning and adults’ L1 learning and arguing that “a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner’s native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 11). These reforms supported direct use of the target language, with grammatical rules taught inductively rather than deductively explained, marking the first attempt to limit the use of the L1.

The need for oral proficiency began to be acknowledged and consequently supported by teachers and linguists in what became known as the Reform Movement (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). From 1888 onwards, the reformists’ efforts became widely accepted through the intellectual support of linguists like Henry Sweet and Paul Passy. Speech came to be considered the main form of linguistic expression following the foundation of phonetics, known as “the scientific analysis and description of the sound systems of languages” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 9).

Despite progress, there was no consensus regarding the use of L1 among reformers. The emphasis was on teaching new vocabulary through associating meanings within the L2 not with the L1 (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The Reform Movement were broadly in agreement when it came to the foundations of the new methods, for example based on the study of psychology and the scientific analysis of language, such as grading materials and prioritising what skill should be taught first, they often disagreed about the use of translation (Hall & Cook, 2012).

In fact, there were reformers who were aware of the importance of some use of the L1. For example, such as Henry Sweet did not only reject the condemnation of L1 use but also encouraged its use while others like considered the exclusion of the L1 impractical at certain times (Cook, 2010; Hall & Cook, 2012; Sweet, 1964). In general, though, reformers contended that translation should be avoided, except for explaining new vocabulary and checking comprehension of L2 components (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The focus on the principles of the learning process formed the basis for a scientific approach later termed the

Natural Approach, which led to the development of the Direct Method, at which point the argument against L1 use evolved.

2.2.4 The Direct Method

Emerging at the end of the 19th century, Direct Method, also known as the Natural Method, argued that a “foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner’s native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 11). In addition, the best way of learning a language was through active use to develop oral skills and to create direct association between forms and meaning in the L2 and the teaching of new words through familiar ones, along with other techniques, such as using pictures and mimes (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). These principles laid the foundations for the monolingual approach as it overtly called for the total avoidance of the L1 through requiring exclusive use of the L2 as the medium of instruction (Dodson, 1962; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). It began to be used in German and French public schools, as well as private schools in the US, where it was termed the Berlitz Method. Teachers were clearly instructed to “never translate” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 12). This approach was considered successful in private schools, where students were highly motivated to practise the target language in the presence of native-speaker teachers. A common basic principle underpinning these methods was the exclusion of the L1 to maximise the use of the L2 to acquire it efficiently and effectively, particularly as the classroom was often the only place for language input and use (Cook, 2001; Howatt & Widdowson, 2004; Turnbull, 2001).

However, these methods were criticised and deemed inappropriate for public schools for several reasons, such as being unrealistic and counterproductive (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). That is, they failed to address similarities and differences between L1 learning in a naturalistic setting (Kerr, 2016; Sarica, 2023). Moreover, for public school students, learning conversation skills was considered rather irrelevant. also, large classes, limited instructional time, and students’ low proficiency in addition to the lack of teachers with nativelike fluency made exclusive reliance on the L2 impractical.

Thus, while the literature might imply that the GTM was overtaken by subsequent methods, this was not reflected in classroom reality. In fact, many sources (e.g. Butzkamm, 2003; Hall, 2020) have continued to report that the GTM is in fact still used today in many contexts

around the word. Moreover, Hall and Cook's (2013) study surveyed over 2,500 teachers from over 100 different countries, including Saudi Arabia, and concluded that most teachers use the L1 for various purposes, including explaining vocabulary and grammar. In Saudi colleges and universities, for example, students' low level of proficiency, the seating arrangement and other external factors, including tests, lead teachers to use the L1 (Assalahi, 2013).

Additionally, it is argued that exclusive use of the L2 would result in spending too much time explaining the meanings of words and therefore, teachers believed that judicious use to explain vocabulary and phrases occasionally would be less harmful than leaving students struggling to understand (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004). Butzkamm (2003) also noted that students are eager to know the precise meaning of a word they encounter immediately to understand it fully and use it appropriately in context, rather than attempting to guess the meaning and potentially getting it wrong.

These criticisms resulted in the goal of foreign language teaching being reconsidered and foreign language courses in the US began to focus on reading. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), despite the widespread use of the Direct Method in Europe, it was not adopted with enthusiasm. Surprisingly, reformers such as Henry Sweet criticised it for a lack of clear methodological foundations. Such criticisms led to the re-evaluation of the principles of the Reform Movement, resulting in the development of subsequent methods, such as the Audiolingual Method in the US.

2.2.5 Behaviourism: The Audiolingual Method

The Reform Movement and the implications arising from its use influenced the methods that followed. As Howatt and Smith (2014) noted that the earlier emphasis on phonetics explains why theorists of the later “Scientific Period” (1920–70) sought to ground their ideas in linguistics and psychology. This scientific orientation became even more pronounced during the outbreak of World War II resulted in a different objective of language teaching, aimed at meeting the greater demand for oral proficiency. Therefore, use of the L1 was largely marginalised.

With US engagement in World War II and subsequently the Cold War era, military personnel and diplomats needed to achieve a high level of proficiency in the languages of allies and enemies within a very short time (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). This necessitated the development of new language programmes, giving rise to the Army Method or Army Specialised Training Program (ASTP). This method was later developed to due to the recognition of the US as a main international power and together with the great number of students who needed English to study at US universities, resulted in the emergence of American approach to teaching English as a second language and subsequently audiolingualism (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Between the 1940s and 1960s, the Audiolingual Method was built on a “combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures, and behaviorist psychology” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 53). Charles Fries opposed previous approaches (e.g. the Direct Method), which relied heavily on extensive exposure and use of the L2 language, so students would consequently learn grammatical patterns. Instead, he recognised that grammar was foundational element and therefore advocated basic sentence patterns be drilled orally along with a systematic focus on pronunciation. These ideas were later exported through textbooks for teaching English to speakers of other foreign languages, with the main principles in developing these books being based on “the general form”, which “began with work on pronunciation, morphology, and grammar, followed by drills and exercises” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 52).

It is worth noting that the ideas developed during the Second World War which prioritised speaking and pronunciation also influenced English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia.

Abahussain (2016) noted that changes were observed in 1958, which witnessed the start of a reformative phase in Saudi Arabia. The focus of ELT shifted towards oral proficiency and practical communication skills with the introduction of new textbooks, which were used for 20 years. At that time, the Audiolingual Method predominated. Interestingly, Khalil and Semono-Eke (2020) found that PYP teachers still employ this method in their classes.

Fries was the first to propose the idea that differences in the L1 and L2 cause problems in learning grammatical and phonological patterns which gave rise to contrastive analysis (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). By anticipating potential issues of interference, materials could be designed to address it. The hypothesis supported the exclusion of the L1, encouraging teaching and learning through the L2 only. In this regard, Hall and Cook (2012) noted that “Knowledge of learners’ own language and its relation to the new language was therefore present in the background of monolingual teaching, even when not allowed in the foreground” (p. 276). That is, at the level of preparation, contrastive analysis was used to compare patterns in the L1 and L2, whereas at the level of procedure, teaching and learning were considered to be best carried out monolingually, without any reference to the learners’ native language, reflecting the behaviourist view.

Behaviourism theory developed by Skinner exerted a strong influence in discouraging use of the L1. It claimed that acquiring a language is similar to acquiring a habit and can therefore be improved through practice, imitation and repetition (Brooks, 1964). Learners were provided with correct language patterns (stimulus) to imitate them (response). Thus, structure and patterns were learned through repetition and memorising everyday dialogue, such as greetings, with positive feedback given for correct responses and negative feedback given for errors to encourage learners to avoid making them (Sarica, 2023). This process was thought to develop accurate and automatic responses (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), as learning good habits in the target language would help form a new system distinct from the L1. While Richards and Rodgers (2001) noted that the use of translation was discouraged to prioritise memorisation, Hall (2020) maintained that there were no explicit guidelines either permitting or prohibiting the use of L1, but teachers were expected to use the L2 as the medium of instruction.

According to behaviourists, the L1 is viewed as a source of interference disrupting the learning of a new habit (L2). Hence, the new language can best be learned monolingually to avoid interference. Errors were treated immediately as they might form new habits. It was considered important to practise the basic patterns of the L2 intensively, particularly those differing from patterns in the L1. The general aim of this theory, according to Brooks (1964), was to create a sort of coordinate bilingualism in which the two languages are separated to overcome the issue of interference. This was based on two main principles, one being teaching patterns through repetition/habit formation and the other being avoidance of the L1 (Thornbury, 2017). However, Brooks (1964) maintained that the L1 was used at that time to compare L1 and L2 vocabulary.

Cook (2001) criticised this language compartmentalisation, contending that the notion of both languages existing in the mind of the learners as separate systems is unjustifiable and unsupported by SLA theories. These point to the interconnection between languages in learners' minds, for example in terms of vocabulary. When a student learns a new item in the L2, he/she relates it to an existing one. That is, the learning process does not build new blocks, but rather builds on prior knowledge. This can be seen in the use of code-switching, with switches between languages occurring, for example, based on the function of speech. This demonstrates that languages are connected in the mind as the L1 and L2 are used simultaneously.

Drawing on cognitive studies, Cummins (2007) stressed the need to build on students' existing knowledge to foster effective learning. He noted that prior knowledge of the L1 is an important element since students rely on it to decode the L2. Similarly, Brooks-Lewis (2009) concluded that the use of the L1 helps learners benefit from their existing knowledge in comprehending the L2. Cummins (2007) added that there is interdependence across languages, suggesting that skills and proficiency related to a language can aid the improvement of similar skills and knowledge in another. Thus, it is advisable for teaching to enable cross-lingual transfer to benefit from what Cook (2008) termed multi-competence.

Cummins (2007) noted that learners are highly dependent on their prior knowledge of the L1, contending that it helped them enhance their L2 learning as it assisted them with reading and writing in the L2. He further noted that their existing knowledge and cross-lingual

transfer improved their spelling and pronunciation in the L2. Learners commented on their use of translation, saying they thought it promoted their participation in the classroom and their understanding of L2 structures. Thus, it seems that prior knowledge and L1 use could be effective in increasing metalinguistic awareness and developing literacy skills. Drawing on various studies, Cummins (2007) concluded that:

...the central point here is that learning efficiencies can be achieved if teachers explicitly draw students' attention to similarities and differences between their languages and reinforce effective learning strategies in a coordinated way across languages. (p. 233)

Despite criticisms of these theories and advocacy for L1 use, some of these techniques have persisted in the Saudi context, along with the GTM, although their shortcomings in developing oral skills have clearly been noted. In addition, although many of these theories were challenged and discarded, as noted by Hall and Cook (2012), it seems that most teaching methods continued to be built on them and this has also influenced language policy around the world. Policies have remained deeply rooted in teaching methods that sought to exclude the L1 and focus only on using the L2 to build a new, separate language system (Cook, 2001). This view was also influenced and supported by the advocacy for communicative interaction and theories such as the comprehensible input hypothesis (Cummins, 2007), which will be discussed in section 2.7.

2.2.6 The re-emergence of L1 use in alternative methods

Richards and Rodgers (2001) called the period between the 1970s and 1980s the second phase, as it witnessed the rise of innovative methods outside mainstream language teaching, based on learning theories that drew on aspects of previous theories while also challenging others, bringing new perspectives concerning the value of the learners' own language.

The Silent Way methodology, developed by Caleb Gattegno in the 1970s, encouraged learner autonomy and discovery. The L1 played several roles such as providing feedback and drawing on prior knowledge to improve learners' pronunciation (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

From a humanistic perspective, Georgi Lozanov proposed a method known as Suggestopedia and later Desuggestopedia (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). It aimed to help students feel relaxed and comfortable to acquire the language. The L1 was used in the form of translations presented in handouts containing a dialogue in the L2 through which the meanings were made clear. Teachers also used the L1 when necessary, gradually decreasing it over time.

The New Concurrent Approach was developed between 1980s and 1990s based on the practice of code-switching (Faltis, 2019; for further detail, see 2.3.1). It rejected intrasentential code-switching, i.e. within sentences, but encouraged intersentential code-switching, which occurs between sentences to promote bilingualism (Faltis, 2019). Although it calls for avoiding direct translation, it encouraged optimal use of both languages, as opposed to total exclusion or over-reliance, to ensure effective language teaching and learning.

It employed a cue system to enhance understanding of both language and content and to build a bilingual community (Jacobson, 1976). The cues were based on four categories – pedagogical practices, content development, language development and community building – aiming to establish pedagogical code-switching. It allowed judicious use to provide feedback, explain key points, revise learning (Faltis, 2019), parse meaning or refocus learners (Cook, 2001). For the students, the L1 was used for functions such as enhancing discussion, scaffolding and reinforcing ideas (Faltis, 2019). Thus, it again opened the door for the L1 to be used concurrently with the L2 as it recognised the importance of learners' L1 identity and background knowledge.

2.2.7 Communicative Language Teaching and relevant theories

Returning to mainstream methods, criticisms of methods such as behaviourism resulted in the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) noted that in the 1970s, the goal was still to learn the target language to communicate, but there were questions about whether students could communicate genuinely outside the learning setting and use the language for certain social functions, such as making promises and invitations. This resulted in the view that learners needed to develop not only linguistic competence but also what Hymes (1972, as cited in Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011)

termed “communicative competence”. This approach focuses on meaning and the L2 is seen as “a vehicle for classroom communication, not just the object of the study” (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011, p. 160). It should be noted that this approach is not uniform but rather has weak and strong version (Ellis, 2003). The former assumes that elements of communicative competence can be identified and taught in a structured way whereas the latter refers to using and experiencing the language to learn it considering it a necessary and sufficient means for language learning. The strong version of CLT is known as task-based language teaching (Ellis, 2003).

Similarly in Saudi Arabia, the limitations of previous methods such as the GTM and Audiolingual Method in developing Saudi learners’ practical communication skills resulted in the adoption of CLT, which is considered “an attractive option” (Al-Seghayer, 2024, p. 39). The communicative phase in Saudi Arabia commenced in 1981, aligning with the global trend in moving towards the adoption of a learner-centred approach. Again, this phase began through the adoption of new textbooks, called “Saudi Arabian Schools English”, written in collaboration with Macmillan Press (Abahussain, 2016; Hussain et al., 2019). A series of locally developed textbooks were later introduced and new substitutions have all focused on functional language use in real-life situations based on meaningful activities, for example entailing group work. These offer the opportunity for learners to practise communication and demonstrate the continued dominance of CLT in the Saudi context (Al-Seghayer, 2024).

The position vis-à-vis L1 use varies within CLT, perhaps due to the different interpretations of principles in its strong and weak versions. Generally, the attitude towards the use of L1 has been unclear as the main aim of this method is communication (Cole, 1998; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989). Some have maintained that the method permits L1 use only when it could benefit the learners (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), while others call for minimising its use (Nunan, 1989, as cited in Cook, 2001) or forbidding it entirely (Howatt, 1984; Mitchell, 1988). In some cases, the use of the mother tongue is considered a problem because learners may use it to perform an activity or a task rather than practicing the L2 (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). It seems that there could be issues with the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom due to a mismatch between the goals of the method – building communicative competence – and what learners do while performing a task.

The Lexical Approach is generally associated with or integrated into CLT and Task-Based Learning ([TBL]; Thornbury, 2017). This approach focuses on students receiving and comprehending input but at a much higher rate than in other approaches, with considerable emphasis on collocations and lexical chunks (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). That is, teachers use only the L2 and students are not required to respond. However, Michael Lewis, the originator of this method, stressed that use of the L1 is inevitable in teaching and learning the target language (Lewis, 1997, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001). He stated that it could be employed when it was difficult to use the L2 to explain a point, but he argued that it should be used to translate chunk for chunk, rather than word for word. He believed that such use was an integral part of the approach, increasing students' awareness of lexical items and consequently helping them learn the L2.

Krashen's theories, despite being considered the underlying principles of the Natural Approach, could also be linked to other approaches and methods. In particular, the acquisition/learning and monitor hypotheses are considered compatible with the principles of CLT (Qasserras, 2023; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Krashen argued that learning a language is distinct from acquiring a language, suggesting that acquisition is a subconscious process, which mirrors that of children acquiring their L2, whereas language learning is a conscious process. Krashen claimed that when learners learn a language component consciously, this is not integrated subconsciously. According to the monitor hypothesis, learners engage in self-editing and this prevents them from becoming fluent. As a result, the L2 should be taught implicitly to promote subconscious knowledge.

This subsequently affected perceptions of the use of the L1 in teaching the L2. What was understood from these theories was that the L1 should not be used because it would raise the learner's consciousness while being exposed to the L2 (Krashen, 1981). Krashen's (1981) comprehensible input hypothesis consolidated the discouragement of L1. He argued that simply providing large amounts of input would not lead to language acquisition as input must be comprehensible to be acquired, specifically $i+1$, or just beyond the learners' present level. When speakers or teachers modify the input to make it comprehensible, learners can progress to the next level, acquiring the language with the assistance of contextual and extralinguistic clues. According to this hypothesis, the most effective way of attaining fluency in speaking is through exposure to comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981), which

implies only using the L2. The comprehensible input hypothesis was later regarded as insufficient for language learning, giving rise to other hypotheses.

There were some theories viewed as compatible with CLT as they encouraged communication for language learning (Qasserras, 2023). These were built on previous theories, including Krashen's concept of comprehensible input. For example, Long (1981, 1983) proposed the interaction hypothesis, arguing that two-way interaction is more beneficial than comprehensible input alone. Moreover, the interaction between native speaker and non-native speaker, which entails negotiation of meaning and repetition, is thought to promote comprehensibility, activating the internal learning mechanisms. That is, such a practice, which prevents communication breakdown, will make the input comprehensible and consequently enhance language acquisition. Parallel to Krashen's hypotheses, this hypothesis advocates the use of the target language. Swain (1985), in turn, posited the notion of comprehensible output, highlighting the importance of L2 production for language acquisition as well as input and/or an interlocutor. Using the target language enables learners to develop automaticity and fluency, notice the gap in their language usage and test their hypotheses. It is probable that these theories have indirectly influenced or led to the avoidance of the L1.

This review of methods and theories suggests several points. One main argument is that the L1 was not generally opposed but rather substituted by an emphasis on maximising the L2. Another major point is that even those who advocated communicative principles did not initially exclude L1 use. Indeed, it was seen as a practical necessity and at times effective. However, its importance diminished and the exclusion of the L1 was exercised, whether explicitly or implicitly, due to various factors.

2.2.8 The spread of the monolingual approach

Questions over the enduring presence of the monolingual approach have been increasing. The literature shows various changes in terms of theories, approaches and methods concerning how languages are taught and learned. The monolingual approach has persisted throughout these changes despite the rejection of some underlying theories and hypotheses supposedly supporting it (e.g. Behaviourism). Interestingly, the re-acceptance of the L1 in some alternative methods did not last long, with the emergence of CLT and subsequent

theories (e.g. Krashen's view of acquisition and learning), which implicitly, rather than explicitly, discouraged use of the L1. Hall and Cook (2012) take the view that "the fact that confidence in monolingual teaching has survived such changes suggests that its origins lie less in the theoretical than the practical sphere" (p. 274). Similarly, others, such as Baron (1990) and Auerbach (1993), contended that the monolingual assumption was not derived from any theoretical basis, but largely emerged as a response to historical and political issues. This requires revisiting some points and looking at them from a different perspective to highlight how the status of L1 use was affected.

Mass migration to the US with the advent of World War I was one of the main factors leading to the widespread adoption of the monolingual approach, as it gave rise to many political and economic issues (Baron, 1990). In response to these, the American Movement was developed. It was thought it could solve many problems by promoting immigrants' loyalty to the country and its economy. The American Movement required the use of English only as a means of instruction and communication. The presence of many immigrants from different countries and with different L1s gave rise to the belief that bilingual teaching was difficult (Hall & Cook, 2012). This movement, along with an emphasis on methods that focused on oral skills at the time, paved the way for the English-only approach to become the norm in ESL classes (Auerbach, 1993; Baron, 1990). By adhering to this policy, teachers would be able to hold the floor and maintain control and power.

The American Movement restricted immigrants' access to the economy and politics (Phillipson, 1992) and laws were passed ensuring only native speakers would be hired to teach English to immigrants, even though they had no training in teaching and learning methodologies (Baron, 1990). This stance gave rise to the idea that native-speaker teachers were best positioned to teach their language. It may be that the advocacy and the experience gained from teaching students with different mother tongues further strengthened the perceived "superiority" of these teachers and after some time had elapsed, they may have been the only ones available with recent and relevant experience.

The English-only policy was then marketed elsewhere through the spread of native-speaker teachers, who gained much attention at the time of colonial teaching (Phillipson, 1992). Since then, those native-speaker teachers have moved across the globe to teach English,

having a major impact on the exclusion of L1, since many teachers did not know their learners' L1 (Auerbach, 1993). Hall and Cook (2012) noted that despite the re-evaluation of the superiority of native speakers and the exclusion of the L1, other factors have continued to promote the English-only policy. They reasoned that:

...it was also in the interests of both publishers and language schools based in English-speaking nations to promote monolingual products which could be implemented by native-speaker experts, marketed worldwide without variation and did not need input from speakers of other languages. (p. 275)

Thus, several elements jointly led to the promotion of the English-only policy, both locally and worldwide, also helping to sustain economies and neo-colonial power (Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992). It is argued that the presence of the native speaker "privileges the interests of the dominant groups and reinforces inequalities" (Auerbach, 1993, p. 25). The re-evaluation of the English-only policy led to questioning of the native-speaker status.

The challenging of the dominance of native-speaker teachers (Auerbach, 1993; Hall & Cook, 2012; Phillipson, 1992) and the re-evaluation of L2-only instruction was also supported by empirical studies. While many native-speaker teachers may have advantages in being able to adjust input in the L2 and be good models of English, simply being a native speaker is not a sufficient qualification, nor is it necessary to teach a language, as teachers may undergo adequate teacher training (Auerbach, 1993; Phillipson, 1992). Indeed, D'Annunzio (1991, as cited in Auerbach, 1993) found that bilingual teachers could be more effective than native speakers, both in the classroom and as trainers on teacher training programmes, as the trainees could benefit from their learning experience. Phillipson (1992) pointed out that being unable to understand the learners' L1 is a problem for many native-speaker instructors of English, who are not bilingual, and this is believed to harm the quality of education and how language learning works (Auerbach, 1993). Teachers who know at least another language may be in a better position to overcome specific classroom issues as they have already acquired a foreign/second language. They can use their knowledge to tackle difficulties when teaching a new language item.

Árva and Medgyes (2000) contend that the capability of the native speaker teacher in English, non-native instructors could be better at catering to learners' needs. Moreover, they

would value the learners' L1 and make use of their prior knowledge. They can benefit from their learnt knowledge of grammar and the students' own language by conveying ideas more clearly. Not only this, but non-native teachers might also share the same cultural background and consequently be able to predict areas of difficulties that their learners may confront (Phillipson, 1992). Thus, those who have been through the language-learning process are perceived to be superior to monolingual native-speaker teachers as they will likely be aware of some of the difficulties in learning and L2 and know how to deal with them, having an understanding of their students' real needs and goals (Árva & Medgyes, 2000). Overall, Alsuhaibani (2015) found that students favour native-speaker teachers who can also speak their L1, which makes them feel secure and less threatened.

2.3 Change in context and recognition of L1 use

The monolingual approach is based on a wide range of theories and various principles. Arguments both for and against have historically been developed, each seeking a novel method to ensure successful language learning and surpass preceding methods. Each new approach has had a different perspective on language teaching and/or learning. However, as Hall (2020) noted, “since the 1990s...there has undoubtedly been a shift in the academic and socio-political climate surrounding TESOL that has challenged discourses that promote ‘English-only’ teaching” (p. 2).

He argued that changes in academic, social and political contexts, including the “social turn” have resulted in the recognition of the value of L1 use. Among these are criticisms of SLA approaches and theories focused on meaning, in addition to the development of *ecological* and *complexity* approaches and the acknowledgement of *diversity*, which have given rise to new perspectives on education, language(s), language learning and the classroom. Historically, theories have largely focused on how a target language can be acquired but have neglected the vital role that the L1 can play in this process. New approaches (*ecological* and *complexity*) view this as a failure to acknowledge the complex and dynamic nature of language and to consider the importance of the learners' experience and other surrounding factors, such as the environment (Hall, 2011).

Moreover, mass migration, globalisation (Hall, 2020; Hall & Cook, 2012) and the fact that the number of non-native speakers of English globally is now higher than that of native

speakers (Crystal, 2003; Hall, 2020) have played a role in the re-examination of the monolingual approach. As pointed out by Hall and Cook (2012), for many language learners, the goal now is to use the language as a *lingua franca* to communicate with other non-native speakers and therefore they will be using the new language to function in bi/multilinguistic contexts, switching between the L1 and L2 and maintaining their linguistic and cultural identities. It is believed that these factors have resulted in “an increased acknowledgement and re-evaluation of bi- and multilingualism in individual and societal language use” (Hall, 2020, p. 3).

The result of these changes and new perspectives can be seen in a shift in the status of the L1: it is being de-stigmatised and its use is starting to be advocated. The starting point, as Hall (2020) remarked, was criticism of the monolingual approach and the theories on which it was based (Cook, 2001), which informed methods from the Direct Method to TBL. These advocated coordinate bilingualism, i.e. learning the languages in distinct context, based on the claim that the L1 and L2 form separate systems, such that learning both together would impede progress in learning the L2. Cook and Singleton (2014) argued that these boundaries are artificial, noting that non-mainstream methods (e.g. the New Concurrent Method) advocated compound bilingualism, with teachers code-switching between languages, although García and Lin (2016) contended that these methods did not fully endorse bilingualism, but only used the L1 to teach an additional language. According to Cook and Singleton (2014), the relationship between languages has been viewed as existing on a continuum, with total separation at one end and total integration at the other; in practice, L2 users are normally placed somewhere between these poles, with the languages interconnecting to some extent. These theoretical arguments laid the foundation for practical changes in language teaching policies.

Examples of recent changes have been highlighted by several authors. For instance, Brooks-Lewis (2009) documented changes in the International Teacher Training Organization, which included suggestions on how some translation could be used to save time. Kerr (2016) noted changes in the MLA Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages report published in 2007 which indicated a clear shift in goals, from emulating native speakers to developing “educated speakers who have deep translingual and transcultural competence”, such that the learning of English involves learning functional language abilities and promoting “critical

language awareness, interpretation and translation [skills], historical and political consciousness, social sensibility, and aesthetic perception” (p. 521). These arguments have reopened the door to the use of translation, which also includes L1 use, although the committee only addressed at teaching at university level. Moreover, similar to Kerr (2016), Hall (2020) documented changes in the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001), which now supports plurilingualism as a desired outcome and thus views a language learner as a user who “does not keep...languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact” (p. 4). This, according to Hall (2020), signifies a clear break from the monolingual approach.

2.3.1 Current forms of L1 use

Different terms are employed to describe the use of the L1 in the target language classroom. To understand the current situation, it is important to differentiate between the traditional and the modern terms concerning L1 use, including the perspectives underpinning them. Traditionally, the terms “first language use” or “translation” have long referred to L1 use in the classroom. However, since the increasing shift towards bi/multilingualism, new forms and terms have been proposed. Each term represents a particular view concerning the use of L1 in the classroom. Cook (2010) argues that using a term entails accepting its unique view, including how languages are related. He further noted that this can result in confusion as authors sometimes question current terms and adopt a modern one that has been proposed while retaining their own worldview rather than embracing that of the new term. I thus believe it is important to define and discuss each term as they are relevant to the current study.

The term “translation” is often used and discussed without being defined and this has been the case throughout its history. Generally, translation concerns the process of transferring meaning from one language to another. According to Cook (2010), one cannot define or confine the term translation for a host of reasons. He suggested that it is difficult to separate translation from other types of communication due to its dynamic nature. He further argued that translation includes other form of communicative activities, such as reformulation, simplification and updating. Cook (2010) used the term “translation” as an umbrella term, encompassing any use of the L1, including “code-switching” and “translanguaging”, which

have been adopted and discussed more often in recent years (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Hall, 2020). However, he later employed “translation” only to describe oral or written translation activities (Hall & Cook, 2012, 2013).

Cook (2010) also used the terms “mother tongue”, “native language” and “first language” interchangeably. However, in his later publications (Hall & Cook, 2012, 2013), he noted that the term “first language” is problematic and proposed the term “own language”. This he used as an umbrella term for L1 use, arguing that the shared language in multilingual classrooms might not always be the students’ L1. Therefore, he favoured the use of “own language” to refer to the L1 and “new language” to refer to the L2.

It can be noted that those who advocate the use of translation still use it as a general term to cover all forms of L1 use. For example, Alsuwayhiri’s (2024) study, conducted in Saudi Arabia, investigated perceptions and actual use of the L1 but used the term translation to encompass other L1 uses. Equally, a great number of articles and studies have continued to use the terms first language and mother tongue (e.g. Littlewood & Yu, 2011; Swain & Lapkin, 2000) for different reasons, including maintaining consistency.

The interest in bi/multilingualism has promoted various terms to describe L1 use. Among these different terms are code-switching and translanguaging, which are most widely employed in studies concerning the use of the L1. To understand their relation to this study, the two terms are briefly discussed here. Generally, studies of bi/multilingualism have discussed use of the L1 using the term code-switching. According to MacSwan (2019), “Codeswitching is language mixing; it occurs intrasententially, or within sentences, and intersententially, or between sentences” (p. 3) Blom and Gumperz (1972, as cited in MacSwan, 2019) proposed two types of code-switching: situational, which occurs according to the topic or situation, and metaphorical, later termed conversational code-switching. This is defined as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” (Gumperz, 1982 p. 59). Polack (1980) added another type, emblematic or tag switching, which refers to using a phrase or a word within an utterance (e.g. “you know...” or “I mean...”). Code-switching is generally understood as means bilingual speakers use to cope with their linguistic gaps and it also entails viewing the languages as separate entities (MacSwan, 2019). This, according

to García and Lin (2016), is not an approach used to sustain bi/multilingualism, but only to teach the L2 as an additional language.

Translanguaging is a term increasingly used and is a translation of the Welsh word “Trawsieithu”, coined by Cen Williams in the 1980s. It originally referred to the pedagogical practice used in bilingual classrooms to describe the intentional switches in language utilised for input and output (Lewis et al., 2012). For example, information can be presented in the L1 to ensure maximum comprehension and students can then produce the information in another language, employing the L1 to support and develop the learning of the L2. This unique aspect of language integration differentiates translanguaging from code-switching (Lewis et al., 2012), although they share some overlapping features.

Early perspectives on the concept of translanguaging emphasised the integration of linguistic practices and they are reflected in the classroom. García (2011) first distinguished translanguaging from codeswitching and translation, stating:

Translanguaging includes code-switching, the shift between two languages in context, and it also includes translation; however, it differs from both of these simple practices in that it refers to the process by which bilingual students perform bilingually in the myriad ways of classrooms – reading, writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, etc. Translanguaging is not only a way to “scaffold” instruction, to make sense of learning and language; rather, translanguaging is part of the metadiscursive regimes that students in the twenty-first century must perform. (p. 147)

This understanding of translanguaging goes beyond translation, codeswitching and pedagogy to include “both the complex and fluid language practices of bilinguals, as well as the pedagogical approaches that leverage those practices” (García & Lin, 2016, p. 1). García and Lin (2016) refer to this approach as dynamic bilingualism to reflect bilingual practices where they draw fluidly on their full linguistic repertoires without being constrained by the boundaries of named languages. This definition represents languages as forming an integrated linguistic system used in various activities, such as writing and discussion. It reflects the natural integration and utilisation of languages, rather than translating or switching to deliver information. Moreover, translanguaging is not only concerned with the use of the L1 as a pedagogical tool but also as a means for students “to make meaning, shape their experiences, gain understanding and knowledge, and make sense of their bilingual

worlds” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 647). However, García (2009) noted that while teachers might plan purposeful use of the L1, students will naturally employ their full linguistic repertoire appropriately both in and outside the classroom. In addition, she recounted that teachers tend to:

...hide their natural translanguageing practices from administrators and others because they have been taught to believe that only monolingual ways of speaking are “good” and valuable. Yet, they know that to teach effectively in bilingual classrooms, they must translanguage. (García, 2009, p. 308)

These translanguageing practices, as described by Faltis (2019), incorporate translation and code-switching and both intersentential and intrasentential. They are employed as a means of aiding students’ understanding of new and specialised vocabulary and making sense of new content.

Recent perspectives on translanguageing and codeswitching demonstrate the debate over these terms, with some scholars viewing translanguageing as encompassing codeswitching, while others see them as fundamentally different constructs. Otheguy et al. (2015) take the latter position which view these terms as conceptually different. Codeswitching, on one hand, reflects an outsider or external view of language which assumes that bilingual speakers alternate between two separate, named languages, which are treated as fixed and real linguistic systems. This view, often referred to as traditional bilingualism, frames bilingualism as the alternation between two distinct systems which reinforce language boundaries and maintain the idea of cognitive separation. Translanguageing, on the other hand, reflects an insider or internal perspective where speakers draw from their full idiolect or repertoire. Otheguy et al. (2015) viewed translanguageing as “using one’s idiolect, that is, one’s linguistic repertoire, without regard for socially and politically defined language labels or boundaries” (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 297). These aspects further underpin the distinction between two the approaches to bilingualism. Consequently, it is now argued that “the two concepts were found to be epistemologically at odds” (Vogel & García, 2017, p. 6). This reflects a clear shift towards a broader change in how bilingual competence is conceptualised. That is, it shifted from switching between distinct codes to drawing flexibly from a unitary, integrated linguistic system from which speakers draw dynamically (Otheguy et al., 2015; Vogel & García, 2018). Hence, while code-switching may share some

similarities such as employing different languages simultaneously, they are fundamentally different in terms of how they perceive and interpret bilingual language practices.

According to Wei (2018), translanguaging challenges the idea that languages are cognitively separate systems while still acknowledging that named languages exist as social realities and that bilinguals can draw on features associated with them. He contended that the notion of code-switching fails to account for the dynamic and creative practices bi/multilinguals use language, specifically when their uses include not only named languages but also regional varieties and sociolects that may not necessarily follow standardized linguistic categories. In contrast, translanguaging offers a broader perspective as it redefines these practices. It views language as an integrated repertoire shaped by lived experience which allows bi/multilinguals to move dynamically and fluidly across language boundaries for various reasons including making meaning and expressing identity.

Goodman and Tastanbek (2021) discussed several similarities and differences between codeswitching and translanguaging. Codeswitching initially comprised language practices used in social settings and was later adopted in classroom settings to aid communication and target language learning. According to the authors, it reflects a monoglossic view of language, highlighting the separation of languages and reinforces the boundaries between them. In contrast, translanguaging originated as a pedagogical approach within classrooms and was later extended to include communication outside the classroom, reflecting a heteroglossic understanding of language practices which acknowledges the fluid boundaries between languages. While translanguaging is frequently considered as either spontaneous or pedagogical, codeswitching is normally utilised to facilitate communication and is strategically used to aid target language acquisition while maintaining distinctions between languages.

These discussions show how the concept of translanguaging continues to evolve and be interpreted in different way. Hall (2020) highlighted various descriptions of translanguaging, which include viewing it as a concept, a pedagogy and a continuum, some of which still implicitly acknowledge the existence of named languages. Additionally, Huang and Chalmers (2023) argued that translanguaging has both a strong form (calls for using all linguistic repertoires) and a weak form (recognising the role of L1 during the pre-task stage),

which can make it difficult for researchers and practitioners to understand and apply the concept.

Some have used these terms within a single study to distinguish between dynamic bilingualism and more traditional or restricted forms of bilingualism where L1 use is constrained by a number of factors such as pedagogical or social expectations. Hall (2020) considers that translanguaging can be used as a lens to capture the ways in which bi/multilingual speakers employ all their linguistic repertoires to achieve their goals. While this new term has increasingly been used in studies related to L1 use (e.g. Hall, 2020), others still refer to translation (i.e. Alsuwayhiri, 2024) and code-switching (e.g. Altun, 2019) as translanguaging practices. Some have used these terms within a single study to refer to different uses of L1. For example, Liu (2023) used translanguaging to refer to the dynamic use of the L1 but used code-switching to refer to restricted or necessity-driven use, such as addressing gaps in proficiency. Sato (2023) adopted both terms, code-switching and translanguaging, to describe language use in class; the former was used to discuss the uses of the L1 related to a lack of proficiency and addressing different preferences, whereas the latter was utilised to capture and describe the instances in which the speakers naturally used their full linguistic resources, such as for conveying meaning or sense-making. Many studies continue to use the traditional terms code-switching or first language use to refer to translanguaging for consistency and clarity.

Following this discussion on the similarities and differences between translanguaging and code-switching, I take the view that the concept of translanguaging offers an effective explanation of bilingual uses of the full linguistic repertoire (García, 2009). Accordingly, this study adopts such perspective as its main theoretical framework to understand how participants utilize their full linguistic repertoires, both intentionally and spontaneously, across different classroom situations. Within this broader lens, code-switching is considered as a useful tool for understanding how participants view their language, especially when referring to more restricted or proficiency-related uses of the L1. In this way, translanguaging is employed to capture or interpret the unplanned and fluid uses in which participants draw on their entire linguistic repertoire whereas codeswitching is utilized to describe how teachers and students explain or justify their L1 uses in relation to gaps in English proficiency or institutional expectations. Using both terms can be helpful in addressing the

gap between perceptions and practices in relation to the current literature on bi/multilingualism. Hence, similar to other studies, this study employs the term code-switching to refer to uses of the L1 related to a lack of proficiency or, as it is broadly used, to capture learners' and/or teachers' monoglossic view of language, but uses the term translanguaging to capture and describe instances in which the participants naturally used their full linguistic resources and experiences even when their own descriptions may not fully capture this complexity.

2.3.2 Current understandings of L1 use

The interest in bi/multilingualism has led to a re-examination of the effect of L1 use in relation to major L2 teaching and learning theories and approaches. This section discusses relevant theories concerning exclusive use of the L2 (e.g. the comprehensible input and output hypotheses) in light of the current perspective on L1 use, which recognises the L1 as facilitating L2 acquisition rather than hindering it.

The use of the L1 in SLA has long been the topic of debate. Several SLA theories support maximising the use of the target language in focusing on the role of input and output in L2 acquisition. This includes theories such as comprehensible input (Krashen, 1981), comprehensible output (Swain, 1983) and interaction theory (Long, 1993), which prioritise L2 exposure and practice. Empirical evidence supports these theories, highlighting the positive impact of increased exposure and output on the acquisition of the L2 (Ellis, 2005; Loschky, 1994).

However, recognising the vital role of L2 input and output does not necessarily mean that the L1 should be avoided. Lucas and Katz (1994) argued that discussions concerning L1 use should not address it in terms of it potentially taking over from the L2. Rather, there should be a more balanced view of L1 and L2 use, especially as the L1 can be effective in aiding learning meeting the learners' goals (Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012; Widdowson, 2003). Several studies have documented the effective role the L1 can play in L2 learning. For example, Cummins (2007) argued that empirical evidence equally points to the benefits of interaction and the use of the L1 as a cognitive tool for language learning. Swain and Lapkin (2000) contended that "to insist that no use be made of the L1 in carrying out tasks that are both linguistically and cognitively complex is to deny the use of an important cognitive tool"

(pp. 268–269). Thus, learners’ own language use is seen as an indispensable cognitive learning strategy.

Regarding input, the prevailing argument supports providing learners with rich input while also recognising that miming and gestures may not always be effective in making input more comprehensible (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Similarly, Littlewood and Yu (2011) noted that teachers might struggle to provide input solely in the L2. In Macaro’s (1996) study, “In general, teachers saw exclusive or near-exclusive use of [the target language] as being unattainable with all but the most motivated classes” (p. 6) and in many contexts it is impractical (Hall & Cook, 2012). Macaro (2000) further asserted that even when adhering to exclusive use of the L2, the classroom environment differs from exposure to the language in real life, as well as pointing out that the time available for teachers and students in class is very limited. Guest and Pachler (2001) echoed this, noting that teachers and students find it tiring to maintain interaction solely in the L2 and further suggesting it creates a sense of artificiality. In their view, exclusive use of the L2, including for side discussions, requires high levels of proficiency, which many students do not possess. They contended that achieving exclusive use of the L2 depends on several factors, such as the number of students in the class and their abilities, a point confirmed by Kang (2008).

Therefore, exclusive use of the L2 might not result in better outcomes (Phillipson, 1992), whereas using the L1 can help students digest the material covered, especially given the limited time in the classroom (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). Various studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Hall & Cook, 2013) have supported this view, highlighting the valuable role of the L1 in enhancing understanding of grammar and vocabulary. Thus, Littlewood and Yu (2011) stated that “students can progress more quickly to the more important stage of active use and internalization” (p. 71). Chirobocea-Tudor (2021) highlighted that the L1 can be useful in pinning down the exact meaning of the words taught, while others (e.g. Cook, 2001) have suggested that it can be used effectively for other purposes, such as explaining instructions. In relation to communicative goals, using the L1 could generate a wide range of topics that “can be more natural and can relate to situations outside the classroom” (Cook, 2008, p. 18).

In terms of output, theories such as *comprehensible output* and *negotiation for meaning* support the role of the L2 in promoting *noticing* and *maintenance*, which are essential processes in language acquisition (Long 1981, 1983; Swain 1985). It is claimed that permitting the L1 might lead students to rely on its use and miss opportunities to practise the L2 and promote their language learning (Polio & Duff 1994). However, L1 use can be seen as a useful tool for increasing learners' output. For example, when students lack understanding, especially those with limited L2 knowledge, they may remain silent and refrain from participating in class. This, in turn, makes it difficult for teachers to identify what students are struggling with. Shamash (1990) suggested that the L1 gives way to L2 learning by enabling learners to clearly express their needs. That is, the use of the L1 helps them express concerns over difficult or unclear points, facilitating immediate clarification. Understanding such points enables learners to practise and ultimately produce more output. Studies such as that undertaken by Alsuhaibani (2015) have documented the beneficial role of L1 in enabling students to request translation and clarification. Without using the L1, students might not be able to request clarification, understand and ultimately use the language being taught.

Vygotsky's sociocultural theory also encourages use of the L1, considering it a tool for scaffolding learning. This theory offers valuable insights into how languages are learned based on the idea that children learn things collaboratively before being able to do them independently (Silalahi, 2019). Vygotsky (1978) his theory the *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (p. 51). Thus, learners actively learn through the assistance of more competent individuals, such as teachers or peers, who scaffold learners' knowledge and skills, enabling them to reach their maximal level of development (Silalahi, 2019). Thus, learners can use the L1 as a "tool through which learning is scaffolded, whilst also helping them develop and maintain interpersonal collaboration and interaction, processes which are also seen as central to language development" (Hall, 2020, p. 13). Studies also support the view that the L1 can scaffold students' L2 linguist knowledge through interaction and problem-solving, engaging them in activities that are beyond their current level in the L2 and thus promoting their L2 acquisition (Anton & DiCamilla 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). Donato (1994) emphasised

that scaffolding can occur collectively between L2 novice learners. That is, scaffolding does not occur only through the guidance of more competent peers but also can take place between novice learners who can guide each other during problem solving.

Using L1 in activities has been found to be beneficial in several ways. These include discussing the task, asking peers to clarify instructions (Ma, 2019), explaining the requirements of the task and assigning roles to undertake the activity collaboratively, completing the task and meeting its objectives; these promote students' participation and understanding (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Bhooth et al., 2014). Pablo et al. (2011) noted that in such cases, learners tend to use the L1 to compensate for their limited L2, although Cook (2001) remarked that even advanced students might struggle to understand specific points. In this regard, Lucas and Katz (1994) believed that:

...for students with little or no proficiency in English, their native language is the only effective means for providing access to content area development. By discussing content in their native languages, students can interact more effectively about more sophisticated content and have greater access to their own knowledge and experience. (p. 539)

Brooks and Donato (1994) found the L1 to be useful in facilitating L2 output, while Swain and Lapkin (2000) concluded that its use enhanced L2 proficiency, believing that denying learners the opportunity to employ this learning tool might lead to them becoming anxious and demotivated.

L1 use can have a significant impact on the psychological aspects of learning, especially for students at lower levels. Krashen's (1982) affective filter hypothesis proposed that exposing learners to large amounts of comprehensible input would not help them acquire the language unless they were at ease. This "affect", which refers to negative aspects such as anxiety and attitudes, is said to act as a filter, a psychological barrier, that prevents input processing and language acquisition. That is, language acquisition might not take place due to factors such as anxiety, stress or boredom, causing the input to be filtered out (Lightbown & Spada, 2021). Reducing the level of difficulty of L2 input is believed to be a means of alleviating these negative aspects, which can result in frustration, demotivation and resistance to learning (Burden, 2000; Wang, 2022). The use of the L1 is thought to be effective in reducing these negative feelings associated with students' lack of comprehension (Rolin-Ianziti &

Varshney, 2008). Auerbach (1993) argued that L1 use could lower learners' anxiety, while Canagarajah (1999) argued that it could not only help learners relax but also form a less threatening environment. This would consequently enhance learners' motivation, which is vital for successful language acquisition (Ellis, 2005).

Excluding the L1 from the classroom can have negative consequences for learners in other ways (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Auerbach, 1993). For example, failing to acknowledge students' L1 can be viewed as a rejection of their identity, which would hinder their learning in a way that might not be as fast as when their L1 is incorporated (Auerbach, 1993). In addition, its rejection might prevent learners from acting naturally in the classroom, which might lead to reluctance to participate in the lesson (Chen, 2003). These views recognise the importance of the L1 for learners' identities, as well as affecting their motivation and anxiety levels, concluding that L1 use is not only effective but also necessary (Auerbach, 1993). Thus, teachers are encouraged to use the L1 as it helps promote a bicultural identity, protecting the learners' cultural and linguistic identity (Hall & Cook, 2012), providing a safe space (Arthur, 1996) and a sense of security (Shamash, 1990). It is believed that this can create the positive environment needed for language learning (Auerbach, 1993; Hall & Cook, 2012). Schweers' (1999) study supported this argument, finding that L1 use promotes positive attitudes towards learning the L2 and increases learners' motivation.

The re-examination of previous theories in relation to L1 use highlights its significance for the process of language acquisition. These views hold that the L1 can enhance input, output and other aspects affecting the process of teaching and learning. Hall and Cook's (2013) study, which involved 2,785 English language teachers from 111 countries, documented the acceptance of L1 use around the world. Thus, according to Kerr (2015), rather than questioning the value of L1 use, it is time to investigate when and how it should be used.

2.3.3 English language teaching (ELT) in higher education

In light of the growing diversity of perspectives on L1 use and the influence of broader sociolinguistic and educational shifts, it is important to examine how they are reflected in current ELT practices in Saudi higher education. Similar to the causes of the emergence of ESP discussed in Chapter 1, Saudi Arabia's rapid development in different areas, such as medicine and engineering, has required a shift to more targeted language instruction in the

higher education context (Al-Roomy, 2017). In particular, the increasing prevalence of EMI has shaped the structure and goals of English language programmes, resulting in increased demand for ESP provision, and ESAP in particular, a sub-branch of EAP and the focus of this enquiry (Al-Roomy, 2017; Galloway, 2020). To gain a better understanding of these concepts and how they operate in Saudi PYPs, the following paragraphs outline ESP, EAP and ESAP provision.

Origins of ESP

ESP is an approach to language teaching that emerged around the 1960s, driven by post-war global economic shifts prompted by the oil crisis in the Western world in the early 1970s and the oil boom in countries like Saudi Arabia (Al-Roomy, 2017). There are various definitions of ESP (see, e.g., Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hyland & Wong, 2019) but central to them is the focus on what learners must be able to do in their academic subjects or jobs (Ramirez, 2015). This particular focus on learners' needs distinguishes ESP from general English courses and mirrors its fundamental principle of learner-centredness. ESP course content and pedagogy are informed by the learners' specific goals, whether for academic study or professional purposes. Hence, ESP courses are more narrowly focused than general English courses, being based on systematic needs analysis to identify and address the genres, skills and language features most relevant to students in the target situation (Hyland, 2016).

Stages of development

According to Hutchinson and Waters (1987), ESP evolved through five distinct theoretical stages. It started with register analysis in the mid-1960s to early 1970s, influenced by scholars such as Halliday and Swales, who focused on identifying the grammatical and lexical features of specialised registers. However, it was later criticised for being unable to account for discourse-level features (Alousque, 2016; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Mayo, 1999). This led to interest in rhetorical and discourse analysis, focusing on how meaning is organised in stretches of text and how rhetorical functions operate in authentic communication, particularly in terms of the sharing of common communicative norms, values and ways of using language among people within a specific professional or academic community, hence giving rise to the concept of discourse communities (Alousque, 2016; Anthony, 2018; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). The focus on the functional and social dimensions of communication at this stage built the foundation for later developments in

genre analysis. Although the types of courses at this stage were based on functional/notional syllabus and demonstrated effective teaching, they generally neglected the systematic development of both specific language skills and broader study skills (e.g., note-taking), an aspect which influenced EAP (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). The subsequent study skills phase, which developed in parallel with the expansion of needs analysis and CLT shifted focus to the cognitive processes underlying language use. These emphasised transferable strategies, such as skimming, scanning and inferring meaning, which enable learners to process academic and professional discourse effectively (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Mayo, 1999).

The term ESP was first coined by Chambers (1980) and elaborated by Munby (1978), linking theory and practice through providing “a detailed profile of the learners’ needs in terms of communication purposes, communicative setting, the means of communication, language skills, functions, structures etc.” (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 12; Hyland, 2022). Hence, the emergence of needs analysis was a major development in ESP. It offered a systematic framework for relating language description and skills development directly to learners’ specific purposes, with target situation analysis (TSA) becoming the basis for course design (Bruce, 2011; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). ESP later expanded to distinguish between learning needs (what learners need to do in the target situation) and target needs (what learners must be able to do to function effectively in the target situation) encompassing *necessities* (what the learners should know to use English in the target situation), *lacks* (what the learners already know to guide the identification of necessities) and *wants* (the learners’ preferences and goals) (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). More recently, Bocanegra-Valle (2016) reconceptualised needs analysis as a broader and multifaceted process incorporating learner factors (e.g. personal goals), means analysis (the teaching context), discourse analysis (the target language nature) and task-based analysis (communicative tasks) with data triangulation for reliable and context-sensitive understanding of learners’ academic and disciplinary needs. This is particularly crucial for ESAP, as it requires more complex needs analysis, involving collaboration with discipline specialists, analysis of authentic disciplinary texts and genres and a deep understanding of professional settings beyond the academic context.

Hutchinson and Waters (1987), however, contended that ESP tended to focus too heavily on the end product identified through TSA, paying insufficient attention to the processes and skills learners needed to attain. This led to the formulation of a learning-centred approach in which learning is almost entirely determined by the learner, who is considered a key element, among other contextual factors (e.g., the materials); from this perspective, learning is viewed as a negotiated process between individuals and society (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Merine, 2019). It draws on learners' prior knowledge and develops their underlying competence by incorporating various strategies, including pair/group work and problem-solving, employing texts as vehicles for information rather than as linguistic objects (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

These in turn shaped various pedagogical approaches, with task-based language teaching (TBLT) emerging as a methodology that promotes learner-centredness and real-life communication by engaging students in meaningful and outcome-oriented activities (Anthony, 2018). These practices reflect real-life communicative demands in terms of language use and link what students do in class with what might be required from them outside the classroom, thus maintaining authenticity and fostering both the linguistic and communicative competencies essential for learners' future success (Anthony, 2018; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Also, building on previous stages, ESP incorporated developments from genre analysis and Swales' (1981 and 1990, as cited in Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) rhetorical moves theory, which offered a systematic framework to understand how texts work within specific discourse communities and moved to a deeper level of analysis examining how language functions strategically within specific professional and academic contexts (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). These ideas influenced the EAP context, particularly in academic writing courses, in which disciplinary discourse conventions were regarded as vital for students' success (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Transitioning from ESP to EAP and its various branches

The theoretical developments and pedagogical approaches outlined above shaped ESP and influenced EAP, widely considered a branch under the ESP umbrella (Jordan, 1997). Drawing on the key principles of ESP, namely that it is a needs-driven and learner-centred approach, EAP similarly employs systematic needs analysis to align course design with learners' target situations (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

However, EAP differs in that it “focuses on language aspects, genres and skills that are relevant for students’ academic studies at university” (Galloway, 2020, p. 6). In short, as Bruce (2011) puts it, “EAP...is the study of English for the purpose of participating in higher education” (p. 6). Thus, EAP focuses on developing students’ academic language skills, albeit, often prioritising academic writing and reading over speaking and listening and the social genres of the language (Yuan & Zeyang, 2021). This focus highlights that disciplinary variation in knowledge and practice inevitably leads to greater specificity (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Hyland, 2002), which is relevant to a discussion of the related branches of EGAP and ESAP.

EGAP, as a branch of EAP, typically “focuses on genres, skills and language aspects common in many academic contexts” (Galloway, 2020, p. 6). Thus, it is commonly known as a wide-angle approach as it entails selecting academic or non-subject-specific content that mirrors shared features across disciplinary boundaries, using materials such as general academic texts that characterise higher education broadly (Jordan, 1997). EGAP is grounded on the “common core hypothesis”, which assumes the existence of shared language features, such as grammatical structures and academic vocabulary, that characterise academic discourse across fields and that students can use in different contexts and to meet various needs (Hyland, 2012). EGAP courses include listening to lectures and reading articles (Hyland, 2012). With respect to reading, which is generally linked to writing, instruction addresses identifying the main ideas of texts, scanning to find specific information and properly citing previous work, which are important for students to succeed regardless of their subjects of study (Aleksandrak, 2018; Dudley-Evans & Swales, 1998; Jordan, 1997).

An important key aim of EGAP courses is to enable students to acquire transferable skills and use them across different contexts (Hyland, 2016). Such courses commonly employ TBLT, since the design of appropriate tasks can promote the transfer of acquired skills to ESAP courses (Koukouraki, 2018). It is believed that such courses can enhance students’ proficiency in English, enabling them to attain a level at which they can learn specialised language (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998; Sun, 2024). However, some have noted deficiencies in EGAP, namely that it neglects the fact that meaning differs from one context to another and there are genres, epistemologies and communication practices that are unique to particular fields (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2017).

ESAP, which forms the central context of this study, is recognised as a subject-specific approach within EAP (Anderson, 2017). It is defined as “the teaching of the features that distinguish one discipline from others” (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 41) and is focused on developing the discipline-specific genres and skills that students need to succeed in their particular academic subjects (Galloway, 2020). The needs of ESAP students are directly linked to academic progression. Therefore, these types of courses aim to help students acquire deeper knowledge of content and skills that address their specific needs (Armstrong, 2016), integrating “the skills work of EGAP with help for students in their actual subject tasks (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 41). For example, ESAP students may draw on their EGAP-acquired writing skills to produce a lab report in their particular discipline. Widdowson (1983, as cited in Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998) viewed EGAP as “education” in contrast to ESAP, viewed as “training”, which helps students transfer the acquired knowledge and skills to their future jobs (Hyland, 2016). This disciplinary specificity is often supported through the use of authentic materials (e.g. glossaries of technical terms), which play a central role in shaping the design and content of ESAP courses, helping students fulfil their academic and occupational needs (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

ESAP provision in PYPs serves to bridge general English proficiency with the specialised language and skills needed for success in English-medium instruction. While ESAP explicitly focuses on language development within discipline-specific contexts, EMI shifts the emphasis towards content mastery, with language learning being largely implicit. EMI refers to the use of English to teach academic content in contexts where English is a second, foreign or additional language for most of the learners (Galloway, 2020). That is, the primary objective of using English is content learning and students are expected to be sufficiently proficient in English to undertake their programmes. However, language learning is also an implicit objective in EMI programmes as they are expected to develop their language skills as well as their academic subject knowledge (Galloway, 2020).

In the Saudi context, EMI is implemented for various reasons such as enhancing students’ English proficiency and equipping them with the skills needed for future employment (Aljehani & Modiano; Al Zumor & Abdesslem, 2022). However, English language teaching and learning are not systematically integrated in EMI instruction and thus English

acquisition is an implicit and insufficiently supported objective (Al Zumor & Abdesslem, 2022). Perhaps for this reason, Muhammad and Abdul Raof (2019) note that Arabic is commonly used in EMI contexts, often for concept checking. Indeed, given the lack of an explicit focus on English language needs in EMI provision, teachers may tend to rely on the L1 due to students' low proficiency in English (Al Zumor & Abdesslem, 2022).

ESAP in Saudi Arabia: Current practices and challenges

In Saudi Arabia, ESAP courses are widely implemented, although some are referred to as ESP courses. This might be attributed to the fact that this term encompasses both EGAP and ESAP courses, as noted earlier. As Alsuwayhiri (2024) noted, ESAP typically forms part of the wider PYP. It aims to bridge the linguistic and academic gap between secondary education and English-medium university instruction. As students' proficiency in English is generally considered too low for university-level study in Saudi Arabia, despite students having studied the language for over nine years at school (Gaffas, 2016), the PYP serves as a foundational year to equip students with both general and academic English skills and study strategies to support their transition to specialised undergraduate programmes, for instance in engineering, medicine and business administration (Alfehaid, 2018).

The one-year English course – EGAP and then ESAP – generally commences with a placement test, comprising multiple-choice questions (Gaffas, 2016). It provides diagnostic information for the needs analysis process, specifically addressing lacks (i.e. present situation analysis [PSA]) by evaluating students' current language proficiency (e.g. grammar and vocabulary). These tests do not aim to evaluate students' future academic performance; rather, they offer supplementary information concerning the gap between the students' present language abilities and the future demands of their academic disciplines. Based on their results, students are offered between 8 and 20 contact hours. The course aims to help students attain intermediate level, which is the requirement to be able to enrol in ESAP classes. Thus, EGAP provision builds the linguistic and academic foundation needed for students to engage with more discipline-specific content in ESAP courses. At the end of the course, students take a post-course test to assess whether they have achieved the intended learning goals and help determine whether the results of the EGAP course correspond with TSA expectations; according to Alanazi and Alharbi (2020), this is used to evaluate whether the course has achieved its objectives.

There are increasing calls for disciplinary specificity in language instruction in the Saudi context. For example, Ahmad (2012) argued that EGAP courses are not adequate to develop students' proficiency in English at the level needed to pursue academic subjects and thus called for the integration of ESAP courses. Alanazi and Alharbi (2020) found that medical students support this view, favouring classes that focus more on medical issues and terminology. They also reported a need for English classes in parallel with their academic studies to help them learn and practise the language. Based on needs analysis, Alsamadani (2017) concluded that students prefer a balanced approach, feeling that they would benefit from courses that provide them with both academic skills and subject-specific skills. These studies indicate that while EGAP provides students with the necessary foundation for academic studies, sustained academic success in specialised fields requires ESAP courses closely aligned with students' disciplinary and professional needs.

In spite of their aims, ESAP courses in Saudi Arabia are not aligned with the key fundamentals of ESP. Most, if not all, courses rely on commercially published textbook (see, e.g. Ahmad, 2012; Muhammed & Abdul, 2019). In the context of this study, the ESAP course employs the *Oxford English for Careers* series. The description of the series states that it aligns with the key principles of ESP by integrating authentic career settings, reflecting real-world professional scenarios and using contextualised specialist terminology. It also states that it incorporates content-based and functional language approaches, applying task-based learning principles and supporting mixed-ability teaching. Moreover, it provides resources that can help non-specialist teachers access the specialised content. Bruzd-Olszewska et al. (2020) analysed *Oxford English for Careers for Nursing* and found that it included a wide-ranging repertoire of written, spoken and visual genres to help students recognise and produce communication typical of the nursing discourse community. It also provided balanced skills development and visual resources to enhance multimodal communicative competence. However, some activities tended not to involve learners in unstructured, problem-solving practices and thus would fail to prepare them for spontaneous professional interactions outside the classroom.

The reliance on such materials raises several issues. Muhammed and Abdul Raof (2019) documented the lack of systematic needs analysis in Saudi ESAP courses as a major problem undermining the alignment between course content and learners' actual academic and

professional demands. This leads to a disconnect between what is taught and what is required for successful academic performance. They stressed that even high-quality international materials can be overly generic and fail to address the cultural and educational contexts of specific learners, ultimately reducing the effectiveness of ESP instruction.

Likewise, Ahmad (2012) argued that the textbooks and teaching materials adopted do not account for Saudi cultural, social, or professional realities, as well as neglecting to take account of students' needs, for instance related to their proficiency and learning behaviours. He called for the development of new syllabi and books that are coherent and systematically designed based on the students' culture and needs. Alsamadani (2017) found that current ESAP courses are rather language-based, concentrating on grammar and vocabulary. He concluded that such courses would only provide students with "textbook" knowledge (p. 65) neglecting writing and speaking, which are needed in the academic and professional world.

The lack of systematic needs analysis also contributes to the issue of having mixed-ability classes, particularly with students at lower levels. Several studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Alsuwayhiri, 2024; Gaffas, 2016) have noted that ESAP classes tend to have students with low levels of English. Nazim and Hazarika (2017) reported that 70% of the teachers believed that their students were very weak. This could be a considerable obstacle to attaining the objectives of the course and influence classroom pedagogy. For example, Alsharif and Shukri (2018) found that students with low proficiency in English hindered the use of communicative teaching methods. Other studies have reported similar issues, with teachers using translanguaging as a coping strategy to address students' various needs, especially those at lower levels (Alsuhaibani, 2015; Alsuwayhiri, 2024). Nazim and Hazarika (2017) also argued that the need to develop student's English proficiency up to the levels for their subject areas, beyond the requirements of initial ESAP provision.

Another issue associated with ESAP classes is the teachers' pedagogical approaches. These are constantly described as authoritative and teacher-centred, often attributed to a reliance on traditional teaching methods, such as the GTM (Alanazi & Alharbi, 2020; Almathkuri, 2022). It has been noted that these methods limit task-based activities (e.g. pair- and group-work) and hence do not meet students' needs, whether in ESAP courses or later in their subject areas (Alanazi & Alharbi, 2020; Almathkuri, 2022). Alsharif and Shukri (2018)

attributed such practices to the focus of the textbooks being on vocabulary and grammar and a lack of effective ESP resources.

Researchers have thus called for student-centred approaches as learners can benefit from learning in groups (Alanazi & Alharbi, 2020). Similarly, Nazim and Hazarika (2017) concluded that students should be offered more communicative activities that reflect their target situations. This may indicate a need for further training in effective approaches for ESAP teachers. Any such approach should entail familiarisation with the key issues ESP teachers encounter within the Saudi context to determine how best to address them (Al-Roomy, 2017).

The various roles played by ESP practitioners outlined in the literature include those of teacher, course designer and material provider, researcher, evaluator and collaborator (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). However, the roles of Saudi teachers are relatively limited (Ahmad, 2012; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). One role not listed is subject specialist. Although Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) considered that teachers do not need to be knowledgeable in the subject matter, several studies in Saudi Arabia (e.g. Almathkuri, 2022) have highlighted that teachers' lack of specific subject knowledge is actually an issue. Alanazi and Alharbi (2020) reported that students had negative views of their teachers' knowledge of the subject-specific matter and reported that their classes tended to focus on general English. Alsuyahiri (2024) highlighted the need for appropriate training targeting ESAP context. While arguing the potential of ESP provision, Ahmad (2012) noted that effective implementation of such courses, including ESAP courses, requires practitioners to be aware of recent methodologies and have specific subject knowledge. He proposed that team teaching and collaboration between practitioners and content teachers might help scaffold knowledge of appropriate teaching methodology and content knowledge.

While there are various other issues that could negatively affect the implementation of ESAP courses, such as large classes, most studies conducted in the Saudi ESAP context have focused on the issue of adopting commercial materials and the neglect of students' needs. These have direct implications for various aspects, including classroom interaction and the role of Arabic in ESAP classrooms. Notably, little is known about how teachers and students perceive and use Arabic in ESAP classrooms. This provides the basis for the present enquiry,

which focuses on how teachers and students in Saudi ESAP classrooms view and enact the use of Arabic in practice.

2.4 Empirical studies of L1 use

In the long-standing debate concerning the inclusion or exclusion of the L1, much of the literature has been more concerned with theoretical perspectives on the role of the L1 and has tended to assume its use would negatively affect L2 learning. To understand more about the role of the L1 in teaching and learning, several studies (e.g. Schweers, 1999; Shimizu, 2006) explored teachers' and students' attitudes towards L1 use in their classrooms. This included examining their views on its inclusion, the amount of use and the purposes for which it should be used, as well as the reasons for their opinions. This section discusses empirical works examining teachers' and students' views of L1 use, as well as actual uses of L1 in the classroom and the factors motivating L1 use. In doing so, it necessarily draws on some of the same studies in different sections. Throughout, the discussion highlights similarities and differences between the studies' findings.

2.4.1 Teachers' beliefs about the inclusion and amount of L1

Teachers' beliefs have been a central focus of research for some time, with a major area of inquiry examining the conflict between beliefs and practice (Borg, 2003). Teachers' beliefs are influenced by various factors, such as policies and previous learning and teaching experiences, which affect what they do in the classroom. For instance, the literature shows that many teachers believe that the target language is best taught monolingually and therefore still adhere to the L2-only approach (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Many relatively recent studies have sought to examine the extent to which teachers' beliefs match their classroom practice, noting that they do not always coincide and that the relationship between them is complex (e.g. Borg, 2003). For example, teachers' practices, including their acceptance and use of the mother tongue in class, do not necessarily match their expressed beliefs about how the target language should be taught. Some studies (e.g. Copland & Neokleous, 2011; Lo, 2015) have found inconsistencies between teachers' beliefs and practice concerning L1 use and have painted a complex picture. As reported in Hall and Cook (2012), teachers have been found to under-report their use of the L1, whether consciously or unconsciously. Hence, one of the main goals of this study was to explore the

potential conflict between beliefs and practice and why it might arise in the study context. The findings will be of potential value for policymakers and educational institutions, informing policies, teacher-training programmes, the process of teaching and learning, and ultimately learning outcomes (Baeshin, 2016).

An example of a factor influencing teachers' beliefs and affecting their attitudes and classroom practices is past learning experience. This applies to native English speaker teachers, non-native English speaker teachers and those who are not native speakers of either the L1 or the L2. The relationship between these aspects and their influence on teachers' attitudes and practices have been touched upon (Hall & Cook, 2012). Subsequent studies have documented a range of factors affecting teachers' decisions and uses of the L1, such as their educational and cultural background and L1/L2 proficiency level (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Bukhari, 2017). For example, both native English speaker teachers and non-native English speaker teachers use the L1 for various functions, but non-native English speaker teachers tend to have a more positive attitudes towards its use. Native English speaker teachers' negative attitudes towards L1 use have been attributed to their limited L1 knowledge, although it has also been asserted that even those with lower proficiency in the L1 accept its use (Hall & Cook, 2012). Despite the fact that teachers' need for knowledge of the learners' L1 has been recognised in certain parts of the world (Harbord, 1992), native English speaker teachers offer some advantages, such as having a good command of the L2, the ability to manipulate the input to be more comprehensible and the capacity to act as a role model, especially with respect to pronunciation. Consequently, students can benefit from receiving and communicating in the L2. Equally though, non-native English speaker teachers, whether native speakers of the L1 or not, have been found to offer various advantages for their classroom and tend to be more preferred by students (Bukhari, 2017). A key aspect is that they have been through the L2 learning experience and thus can understand and deal with the obstacles and difficulties their students face, as well as being able to use the L1 to facilitate input and provide a comfortable learning atmosphere (Alseweed, 2012; Bukhari, 2017). Interestingly, non-native speaker teachers of both the L1 and L2 have been found to be motivated to use the L1 and recognise its benefits in building rapport and drawing attention (Bukhari, 2017). Hence, this study considers teachers' knowledge of the L1.

2.4.2 Empirical studies on the inclusion and amount of L1

Before exploring empirical studies, it is important to outline the three positions identified by Macaro (2001) that reflect the extent to which participants accept L1 use: virtual, maximal and optimal. The virtual position supports the exclusive use of the L2, thus entailing the total exclusion of the L1. In contrast, the maximal position, which is adopted by many teachers, advocates minimal use of the L2, regarding it as necessary but regrettable as it has no pedagogical benefit. The optimal position recognises the pedagogical value of the L1, believing that it can enhance comprehension.

Schweers (1999) used a questionnaire, interviews and observation to explore attitudes towards the use of the L1 among 19 professors and university-level Spanish-speaking students enrolled on an EFL course in Puerto Rico. The results showed that most of the students (88.7%) were in favour of using the L1, believing that it promoted understanding, helped them follow the lesson and reduced anxiety. However, 49.0% of them thought it should be limited, with 24% favouring L1 use up to 30% of class time. The results were surprising as all the professors favoured using the L1 in their classes, with half of them favouring its use “sometimes” and others preferring its use when it would aid comprehension. While they gave various reasons for using the L1, such as helping students understand a concept and develop their writing, they generally felt that “the L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners’ lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English” (p. 6).

In China, Tang (2002) employed interviews and observations to investigate the views and practices of 20 teachers and 100 intermediate-level students. It should be noted that although this study involved those studying or teaching English as a major, around 70% of the participants also showed a preference for the use of the mother tongue. This is lower than in Schweers’ (1999) study, although both advocated the optimal position. Most of the students (60%) favoured their teachers using the L1 “sometimes”. Both groups of participants believed the use of the L1 to be necessary but preferred more L2 as they recognised its importance to attain the greater levels of proficiency and optimise employment opportunities.

In Japan, Shimizu (2006) used a questionnaire to investigate the attitudes of 25 teachers and 98 students in their fourth year of studies, 60 studying English as a major and the other 38 studying ESAP (engineering), providing an opportunity to explore whether the students' majors affected their attitudes to and uses of the L1. Most instructors (68%) favoured the use of the L1 as it aided comprehension and saved time, while 76% of them favoured using it only when necessary. However, 44% reported using it "sometimes", which raises questions concerning why they used it and what they thought about their actual uses of the L1 (see also section 2.12.3). On the other hand, most of the English majors (66%) and ESAP students (89%) supported L1 use as it aided their understanding, although most of the students in the two groups (65%) considered it should be used only when necessary. While the students valued L2 exposure, they found the English-only environment discouraging and anxiety-provoking, resulting in a loss of interest in learning. Although use of the L1 was reported to lessen as students progressed to higher levels, the study concluded that low-intermediate to intermediate students leaned more towards the exclusive use of English, whereas advanced English major students preferred more L1 so that they could learn from their teachers' translation techniques as they were aiming for careers as translators and interpreters. These results contrast with Tang's (2002) finding that student majors tended to favour more L2 use but are in line with Schweers' (1999) finding that non-major students generally tended to favour L1 use more. Together, the findings suggest that students' level, objectives and majors play a role in their attitudes concerning the inclusion of the L1 and the studies concluded that teachers and students should decide together on the policy regarding L1 use in their classes.

In Croatia, Kovačić and Kirinić (2011) adapted questionnaires used in earlier studies to investigate the use of L1 by 20 ESAP teachers and 171 intermediate-level undergraduate students (121 male and 48 female), majoring in organisation and informatics. Similar to this study, the students had been learning English for nine years and were enrolled in an ESAP course. The L1 was favoured by most teachers (80%) and students (68.4%), although compared to previous studies, the students showed less tendency to accept L1 use. This might be attributed to various reasons, such as the students being at intermediate level or the inclusion of female students in the sample. Although students' results were fairly similar to those of the studies previously mentioned, especially in terms of L1 use lowering students' affective filter, they viewed the L1 use as natural and expected due to the practicality of

employing it in such context. However, unlike the participants in previous studies, who favoured using the L1 only when necessary, most students (56.1%) and teachers (45%) thought it should be used sometimes, as it could facilitate comprehension and make students feel less lost. Rather more than half of the teachers (65%) reported using the L1 sometimes. While these results might indicate that L1 is used to a greater extent in ESAP classrooms, they also demonstrate a tension between preference and practice, an issue this study aims to address by including observation and not relying on self-report data.

In Albania, Xhemaili (2013) conducted a study aimed at exploring the perceptions of teachers and 150 ESAP students majoring in law and public administration. Surprisingly, more than 50% of the teachers opposed use of the L1, whereas 75% of students thought that the L1 should be used in their L2 classes for 10–30% of class time. This is higher than in Kovačić and Kirinić's (2011) study, but less than in other previous studies. A notable limitation of this study was that it did not employ interviews or observation to explore the participants' reasons or practices.

In a similar context to this study, Alsuhaibani (2015) undertook research involving 18 teachers and 178 Saudi students, 48 of whom were enrolled in a PYP and the rest in the English department. The results were surprising, as a slight majority of the participants (50.3%), both teachers and students, were against the use of the L1; most teachers (72.2%) preferred the use of the L1 only rarely and most students (37.6%) chose sometimes. While English major students showed more positive attitudes towards the use of the L1, as found in previous studies, the author attributed PYP students' rejection of the L1 to the fact that they needed to achieve high marks to be able to enrol in their chosen future subject.

2.4.3 Attitudes to and actual use of the L1

L1 use serves various functions in the classroom for both teachers and students. These include explaining vocabulary, giving instructions, and managing students and classroom activities. Pennington (1995) classified these functions by differentiating between strategic functions, such as any pedagogical uses, and compensatory uses, such as solving problems. Kim and Elder (2005) distinguished between core goals, such as teaching the L2, and framework goals, for example managing the class. The goal of this research is to investigate teachers' and students' attitudes towards L1 use and their actual use, potentially identifying

other categories of use. This section thus reviews several studies conducted to explore teachers and students' attitudes and actual uses of the L1.

Since using the L1 for explaining vocabulary, particularly specialised vocabulary, is considered a major function of L1 use in the ESAP context, it is important to gloss the different types of vocabulary. According to Nation (2022), teaching and learning vocabulary depend to some extent on understanding the types of vocabulary and their occurrences. General vocabulary consists of roughly the first 2,000–3,000 word families, representing high-frequency words (e.g. “for”, “the”, “government”, “forest”). These are commonly used, for example in texts which students need to master before learning other types of vocabulary, such as academic and technical words (Nation, 2022; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2012). Although academic vocabulary is generally viewed as falling under the category of mid-frequency words (e.g. “indigenous”), which includes 3,000–9,000 word families, this type might also incorporate high-frequency words (Nation, 2022; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2012). Low-frequency vocabulary comprises word families above the 9,000 frequency level, which includes technical terms used in certain subject areas (Nation, 2022; Schmitt & Schmitt, 2012).

Vocabulary learning requires receiving and producing words in context to consolidate understanding (Donesch-Jezo & Pachonska-Wolowska, 2014; Nation, 2022). Relying solely on the L2 to convey the meaning of vocabulary might lead to misunderstanding for various reasons, such as the students' proficiency level and teachers having difficulty simplifying their explanations (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009; Latsanyphone & Bouangeune, 2009). As noted by Chirobocea-Tudor (2021), in the ESAP context:

...the exact meaning of words, phrases or collocations is of great importance as professionals in various fields of work, be it law, finance, science and technology or medicine, need accuracy above all. (p. 79)

Thus, use of the L1 is considered inescapable and more effective than relying solely on the L2 (e.g. Harbord, 19992), especially in ESAP contexts (Xhemaili, 2013).

Schweers' (1999) questionnaire showed that while 6.4% of students favoured the use of the L1 for introducing new materials, none of the teachers agreed. Most teachers (22%) and students (86.2%) were found to favour the use of the L1 when explaining difficult concepts.

Fewer students (22.7%) thought it should be used to explain new vocabulary and 20% of students and 10% of teachers favoured its use when checking comprehension. These preferences indicate that participants favour the use of the L1 for explaining and understanding the meaning of the items being taught. Most students (68.3%) reasoned that the L1 helped them follow the lesson, while fewer of them (18.3%) reported that it reduced their tension. Most favoured use of the L1 “sometimes” (28.8%), for example, to make suggestions on how to learn effectively or give complex instructions to students at basic levels. The study found some students (12.9%) felt the L1 helped them feel more comfortable and confident. Very few (5.0%) mentioned joking in the L1, with 15% of teachers agreeing with the statement “I like to joke around in the class, and one really cannot do that in English when not all students understand it” (p. 9). While this might suggest that comprehension matters even when the talk is irrelevant to the content, the L1 is valued for promoting understanding and for creating a positive environment.

In Tang’s (2002) study, the questionnaire showed that 44% of teachers favoured using the L1 to explain complex concepts, with a couple of teachers also saying they would use it to make suggestions on how to learn the L2 effectively. Students, on the other hand, favoured using the L1 to explain difficult grammatical items (72%) and new words (69%). Tang attributed the discrepancy between the results of his study and those of Schweers (1999) when it came to students to the fact that his students were at a higher level and therefore needed the L1 less. Thus, it was important to address such aspects in this study. Interestingly, observation of three teachers revealed that they used the L1 largely not to explain grammar but to explain vocabulary, mostly abstract or culturally specific terms, in addition to giving instructions. During the interviews, they revealed that they would use the L1 to explain grammar, discuss complex and abstract vocabulary and clarify lengthy and complicated sentences. Moreover, one teacher noted that maintaining discipline through the L1 was more effective than using the L2. It is important to note that the teachers’ uses of the L1 differed; for example, Teacher 3 was more inclined to use it to maintain order. Moreover, the teachers’ perceptions of their L1 use differed from their actual use, as they reported they would use it to aid comprehension but also used it to maintain discipline. However, the study did not explain why these differences between teachers’ attitudes and their practices arose. Furthermore, it did not investigate the specific uses of the L1 in class to understand its use at a particular moment.

Alsuhaibani (2015) found that most students accepted limited uses of the L1 and therefore, favoured English to explain difficult vocabulary (41.8%) and give instructions about exercises or homework (37.9%), believing that maximising L2 use would develop their vocabulary and grammar and L1 use would hinder the development of L2 fluency. In addition, most students were in favour of joking in English (“always”, 36.5%) but not for motivating them (“rarely” and “never”, around 20%). Moreover, about 30% of them favoured its use for explaining difficult concepts, new vocabulary and grammar, as well as to save time (27.1%) and give suggestions on how to learn effectively. Teachers also showed a higher preference for use of the L2, especially to explain grammar (55.6%), but favoured using the L1 to explain difficult concepts (44.4%) and new vocabulary (38.9%); many of them (38.9%) believed that it saved time to explain (difficult) vocabulary. About 30% of the teachers thought either the L1 or L2 could be used to help their students feel comfortable but disagreed with its use to tell jokes (44.4%). Similar to the students, most teachers (38.9%) agreed with using the L1 to give instructions about homework and exercises, but the observation revealed otherwise, as the teachers used the L1 more to maintain discipline, translate and engage in one-to-one talk, stating that it was effective when used as a last resort, such as when students failed to understand a point and to avoid wasting time in the initial stages of lessons. In contrast, they used the L1 for social purposes, to build rapport with the students and motivate them to participate, especially with beginners. Surprisingly, the teachers reported feeling less guilt about using the L1, a discrepancy that will be addressed in this study.

2.4.4 Functions of L1 use in ESAP contexts

While the studies reviewed above were comprehensive in seeking to understand the preferred functions and actual use of the L1, they did not explore the purposes of L1 use in ESAP contexts. This sub-section aims to explore the purposes of the L1 use specifically in ESAP classrooms.

Shimizu (2006) found that most teachers (64%), English major students (90%) and ESAP students (88%) favoured using the L1 to explain difficult grammatical points. Although fewer teachers (24%), English major students (45%) and ESAP students (39%) chose explaining new words through the L1, about 70% of the participants were in favour of using the L1 to explain challenging concepts, indicating a preference for its use when facing

difficulties. Fewer ESAP students (39%) and teachers (28%) favoured using the L1 when giving instructions. Using the L1 to joke around was the option least chosen by both groups of students (10%), but it was higher among teachers (16%). About 40% of students favoured their teachers using the L1 to give suggestions on how to learn effectively, whereas 20% of teachers thought this was a good use of the L1. While some teachers reported using the L1 to provide cultural explanations, clarify instructions and maintain discipline, the students focused on its value in giving instructions related to examinations and homework.

Kovačić and Kirinić (2011) found that using the L1 to explain grammar was the most preferred function among students (87.7%), while only half of the teachers thought this useful. Most teachers (75%) and many students (71.9%) favoured using the L1 to explain difficult concepts, which seems to be a common preferred function in ESAP contexts. About half of the participants were in favour of using the L1 to define new vocabulary items. The authors attributed these preferences to the fact that the L1 promotes intake through enabling students to mediate higher-thinking processes. That is, the L1 not only enables learners to recall specialised vocabulary but also to fully understand terms, including how they are used; this might not be achieved through use of the L2 only. About 30–40% of students and 30–15% of teachers favoured using the L1 to provide feedback, help students feel more comfortable and confident and give instructions for activities in/outside the classroom. Fewer participants agreed with using it for joking around and to give students advice on effective ways of studying in the L1. A rather surprising result was that only 20% of teachers and 11.7% of students thought it should be used to check comprehension. This might mean that participants only favour using the L1 during the presentation stage and then prefer to receive and practise the input in the L2.

In Xhemaili's (2013) study, most students (82%) and teachers (65%) favoured using the L1 for explaining difficult concepts, while 67% of students preferred its use to gloss unknown and difficult words. The students also thought its use would aid in defining new vocabulary, checking comprehension and helping them feel comfortable. In the interviews, the teachers highlighted the importance of the L1 in aiding comprehension of ESAP content, stating that the "L1 enables students to understand new professional concepts that are first created in English and as such they need exclusive explanation in Albanian" (p. 193). Xhemaili also stressed that using the L1 made it easier to explain difficult concepts and words that were

difficult and unfamiliar to students, especially those that could not be elicited or guessed from the context.

2.4.5 Functions of L1 use by students

Very few studies have been conducted to explore students' uses of the L1. Hence, little is known about these uses and the reasons for them, especially in ESAP contexts. While there are well-known studies on L1, the selection of studies discussed in this section was based on various reasons, including their specific focus on the functions and reasons motivating students to use the L1 and the use of relatively similar methods.

In Alsuhaibani's (2015) study, the students reported using the L1 for various purposes, such as asking questions to understand instructions, grammar and vocabulary. They used their own language to ask and answer questions during pair/group work and when talking to their teachers, as well as between themselves. In addition, they used the L1 to ask for explanations and answer teachers' questions, for example about the meaning of words, although this was less common due to the teachers' teaching styles and their insistence on using the L2. The students used their L1 in different situations, such as to address exercise-related issues or everyday matters. That is, they might use their L1 to ask about a word or for a candy, which might be viewed as natural use. The researcher documented the students' reliance on their L1 as generally being associated with their level of proficiency and motivation for learning the L2. In other words, the lower the level of proficiency and motivation the higher the use of the L1.

Yaghobian et al. (2017) investigated 11 grade 9 students' use of their L1 in an Iranian high school in Malaysia using transcripts of classroom communications and interviews. The students were found to use their L1 for different purposes. One of the most frequent functions was to discuss the L2. That is, much of the students' talk in the L1 was to discuss meaning, vocabulary and spelling. The use of the L1 was seen in the form of requesting help from or providing it to other classmates, such as requests for confirmation, clarification, or repetition, as well as for help with pronunciation and L2 equivalents. They also used their L1 to respond to questions and provide clarification and correction. In other situations, the students were found to discuss or argue points concerning exercises. Moreover, they used the L1 during tasks to manage, clarify and resolve exercise problems, as well as discussing the

requirements of the task and the transition from one point to another within the task. They also used their L1 for personal/social purposes, such as off-task talk, joking, praising or complaining about the performance of other peers. One notable finding was that the students used the L1 to complain when their peers were less proficient, recounting that they found this demotivating. The student interviews were important in uncovering the main motives for their use of the L1. One reason for L1 use was that it made content more accessible for the learners and at other times, students reported being unable to maintain the interaction in the L2. The study also found that more proficient students would use the L1 to scaffold less proficient students. Additionally, students' own language was found to promote their L2 learning during their individual and group work activities.

In the Serbian context, Glusac et al. (2023) utilised two instruments in their study, namely questionnaires and interviews. They aimed at examining undergraduate ESAP students' functions of the L1 in addition to investigating their perceptions concerning the teachers' use of the L1. The study involved 146 students majoring in technical, science and social studies. The participants revealed utilising their language "always" and "sometimes" and preferred their teachers to utilise it occasionally. The survey's responses showed that students utilise their own language to avoid losing face and to express themselves clearly. They also reported using it to translate texts and take notes, believing that this approach would promote comprehension and retention. The L1 was preferred for interaction between students as a quicker and more accurate means of delivering a message.

2.4.6 Factors influencing L1 use

One of the main arguments for the monolingual approach is that learners should receive as much L2 input as possible to learn the language (Cook, 2001). It is claimed that the use of the L1 prevents learners from becoming immersed in an L2 environment. What consolidates this view is that teachers have reported using the L1 for different purposes, as seen above. Research in this area reports various reasons for teachers' attitudes to and actual use of the L1. That is, the L1 is not used randomly, or for translating every new word or grammatical point the learners encounter. Several factors influence the use of the L1 and can be categorised into three main groups: teacher-related factors, student-related factors, and external factors. These can have a detrimental impact on various aspects, such as the learning process and the frequency and function of L1 use in the L2 classroom, including ESAP classrooms.

External factors have been found to affect language choice in the classroom. Among these are institutional policies, whether explicit or implicit (Pablo et al., 2011). As noted by Pablo et al. (2011), implicit policy affects teachers' use of the L1 and according to Rolin-Ianziti and Varshney (2008), its effect can also extend to students' use of the L1. As noted earlier, teachers' beliefs play a significant role in how they view language and how it should be taught and learned, as do their L2 learning experience, teaching experience and training, policies and the views of supervisors and colleagues (McMillan & Rivers, 2011, 2011). Turnbull and Dailey-O'Cain (2009) cited a teacher, who stated:

...it is perhaps unavoidable that many second and foreign-language educators and researchers have developed strong beliefs about the most effective way to master a language – beliefs that are not always grounded in theory or research. In some cases, official policies in certain language learning contexts that officially ban first language use by teachers and students may be the source of some of these strongly held beliefs. (p. 2)

The same authors also concluded that teachers' use of the L1 is influenced by their learning styles, personalities and self-approach goals, which are shaped by their experience and include making continuous adjustments to identify best practices in L1 use while maximising use of the L2. Other studies have found that the L1 is affected by teaching experience (Hall & Cook, 2013), learning experience (Franklin, 1990), knowledge of the L2 (Kang, 2013), laziness (Edstrom, 2006) and gender (AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019).

Student-related factors tend to be more influential than teacher-related factors. Dickson (1996) identified various factors related to students, such as class size, mixed-ability classes, levels of motivation and L2 proficiency. Other studies have also identified the effect of proficiency in the L2 (e.g. Macaro, 2001) and motivation (i.e. Atkinson, 1993) on language choice, while yet others have found that disruption by learners (Edstrom, 2006), especially younger students (Tzagari & Diakou, 2015), affects the use of the L1.

Franklin (1990) conducted a study of 267 teachers (male and female) of French at 65 secondary schools in Strathclyde, Scotland. The teachers reported some obstacles preventing them from maximising their use of the L2, including mixed ability classes, large classes, lack of fluency, tiredness, departmental policy and type of examination. It was noted that these factors, such as mixed-ability classes or low-ability students, did not affect all teachers,

although 88% of teachers over 40 regarded mixed-ability classes as an issue, whereas this seemed unimportant to less experienced instructors. One explanation for this discrepancy the researcher gave was that experience of teaching and learning could affect teachers' views of what low-level students could accomplish. Moreover, while the number of students was reported as an important factor leading to use of the L1, the main issue seemed to be related to the classroom dimensions and the way the seating was organised, for example fixed seating which could not be reconfigured to suit communicative tasks and forced students to work alone. In addition, groupwork tended to include some use of the L1, leading to the teacher also resorting to the L1 to maintain discipline, which is argued to be much harder in foreign language classrooms. The reason for this was not given and is an issue this study aimed to explore.

Edstorm (2006) concluded that there are times when the L1 cannot be avoided. He noted that it is just as important for teachers to consider emotions and build rapport as it is to teach the L2. The author also argued that when students attend L2 classes solely to fulfil academic requirements, L1 use becomes obligatory as otherwise they will not be open to learning the L2. That is, learners' objectives are a factor influencing language choice. However, Edstorm (2006) found that there were some situations in which use of the L1 was not necessary but it was used because the teacher was tired and wanted to save time.

De La Campa and Nassaji (2009) conducted a study in two sections of the same second-year German as a foreign language course at a university in western Canada. The researchers used video and audio recordings of the German classes, interviews and stimulated recall sessions immediately following the class recordings. They concluded that while both teachers – one experienced and one novice – referred to the learners' level as an influential factor for using the L1, they had different views on why this played an important role in use of the mother tongue. While the more experienced teacher indicated that using an L2-only approach would make the class a difficult environment for learners at low levels, the novice teacher thought that total immersion in L2 could not be applied with beginners for two reasons: (i) it would be difficult to simplify or find a synonym each time he needed to explain vocabulary; (ii) even with such modifications, the learners would have difficulty understanding the teacher because they were at a very low level. Another major reason for using the L1 was the density of the material, namely that there was a great deal to be covered within a short time, leading

teachers to use the L1 to speed up the flow of the lessons. The L1 was also used to meet learners' different objectives in learning the target language as some learners were only interested in fulfilling the requirements of the programme rather than learning the L2 per se. One teacher also stated she used the L1 due to her students' difficulty in hearing her because of the classroom layout and her quick rate of speaking.

Pablo et al. (2011) examined the views of 8 teachers and 112 university-level students regarding the reasons for their use of the L1. The study found that the L1 was used when students asked for clarification because additional explanation in L2 would take too long. It was also used when the teachers thought a language component would be too difficult for the students if explained in the L2 or when they assumed their students would not be able to answer their questions in the L2. This means the L1 was used based on the teachers' evaluation of the students' proficiency level. The researchers warn that in such situations, teachers might unconsciously overuse the L1, leading students to become accustomed to its use. While these factors affected the teachers' choice of language, self-approach goals also played an important role in their evaluation and attempts to balance the quantity of the L1 with the learners' level. Teachers also resorted to the L1 when it was difficult to provide explanations in the L2 or due to being tired. The students, in contrast, used the L1 due to a lack of comprehension or confidence in using the L2 accurately, or when feeling stressed. One student reported using it in order not to interrupt the flow of the lesson. Moreover, the students would chat in the L1 while waiting for other groups to finish a task they had already completed. While teachers thought the L1 could be used to socialise with the learners, the students stated that they used it to socialise only with each other.

Kalanzadeh et al. (2013) conducted a study with two teachers teaching two third-grade high school classes using observation and interviews. There were 25 students in class A and 28 in class B, all male. Use of the L1 was affected by various factors, such as examinations, time constraints, learners' level and expectations. However, the study revealed that both high- and low-level students were bored and demotivated in classes when their L1 was used and favoured classes that employed the L2, especially communicative activities in the L2. Nonetheless, the teacher of class A used the L1 70% of class time. This was based on what he perceived to be best practice but led to negative attitudes among his students towards the L2 classroom.

Hall and Cook (2013) investigated teachers' use of the L1 and the reasons for their choices. They concluded that three factors affected teachers' choice of language in the classroom. The L1 was found to be used in state schools by more experienced teachers, especially with low-level learners. Within the classroom, other factors also led to teachers resorting to the L1 and these were not written or drawn from a specific rule but were rather in response to learners' needs. The teachers reported using the L1 in various situations, such as when it appeared from the students' faces that they did not understand, when they struggled with meaning, and when they seemed to be *out of mood*. Also, when something was explained but the students got it wrong, the teachers tended to respond quickly by providing clarification in the L1 for weak students, ensuring they were following the lesson.

In Saudi Arabia, Alshehri (2017) conducted a study of 104 EFL teachers in the preparatory year at a state university, 50% of whom were native speakers of Arabic, to understand how and how frequently they used the L1. In interviews, the teachers noted that they utilised the L1 as a teaching tool when necessary. They also reported that they specifically used it for adjectives and abstract words. One teacher attributed his use of the L1 to the students being very weak. While those who spoke Arabic tended to use it directly after utterances in the L2, the non-native speakers of Arabic tended to ask students to explain to their peers, especially to translate for their classmates. This indicates that native English speaker teachers also accept the use of the L1. The teachers maintained that using the L1 helped build bonds and a good relationship with the students and create a good atmosphere. A high number of teachers (83.8%) thought L1 use lowered students' anxiety, 52.4% of them believed it saved time, 82.8% considered it more appropriate with beginners, and one native speaker of Arabic expressed the view that using the L1 in the classroom was natural. Fewer than half of the teachers (36.18%) thought that larger classes influenced their use of the L1 and a little over half (52.38%) felt guilty when using any language other than the L2 in class. Moreover, one teacher stated her support for using the L2, reasoning that it would lead to better outcomes and saying that the students were attending class to learn English.

In a study conducted in China, Lu and Fehring (2015) investigated the reasons for using the L1 among 147 teachers at 2 universities. They concluded that their use of the L1 was affected by their own linguistic competence, limited classroom time and the level of the students. One important factor was the level of engagement from the students. Three out of four

teachers interviewed stated that dealing with administrative matters in the L1 was more efficient to save time. The second most significant factor that affected teachers' choice was their proficiency level in the L2. Lacking adequate confidence to maintain communication in the target language was also among the reported factors. Thus, when facing unfamiliar content or feeling unable to explain the word or the expression appropriately in the target language, they resort to students' own language.

Copland and Neokleous (2011) carried out their research on a private English language school involving four female teachers teaching intermediate level students. The results showed that the teachers' own language use was mainly influenced by their self-approach. Therefore, they utilised it as little as possible. Despite viewing the L1 as a tool for saving time, providing quick clarification, they were conflicted about using it, feeling guilty both when they did and did not use it. They did not find contrastive analysis a useful tool for teaching or learning the L2. Rather, they regarded it as a risky practice, which would result in complicating the process of learning. The researchers noted that this view is not supported by theory, as research has found that making direct comparisons between the L1 and the L2 can help learners notice differences and understand how to use structures accurately. In addition, this perception goes against the argument that despite teachers' best efforts, learners will mentally relate the target language to their L1.

AlTarawneh and AlMithqal (2019) investigated L1 use among 92 ESAP students and 10 teachers at an applied medical college in Saudi Arabia. The students were registered in Level 1 and Level 2 on the English for Medical Purposes course in the first semester. Seven of the teachers were Arabic-English bilinguals and the other three instructors did not speak Arabic. The results of a questionnaire revealed that the teachers and students in both branches had negative attitudes towards use of the L1. The teachers viewed the L1 as a hindrance to learning the L2 and felt it would not enhance learning of medical-related content and therefore advocated a virtual position in Macaro's (2001) terms. However, in interviews, the teachers stated that use of the L1 was unavoidable when teaching unfamiliar medical or abstract vocabulary, especially with beginners. They reported situations in which the L1 was essential, such as when students could not grasp the meaning or the grammatical point. Thus, they used the L1 to move the lesson on smoothly. In both the questionnaire and interviews, female students showed more disagreement with use of the L1. The teachers also believed

that the female students preferred an L2-only policy because they were eager to learn the target language and were keenly aware of its importance. While students at neither level expressed a preference for use of the L1, the teachers acknowledged differences in the learners' level as a factor, with low-level students needing some use of the L1. However, the teachers interviewed stated that regardless of the level or the course, whether general or ESP, learners' L1 should not be used.

Al Balushi (2020) undertook a study with 1 teacher and 44 students exploring use of the mother tongue through two instruments: observation and interviews. The teacher noted that the students' level and the difficulty of the topic being discussed affected her use of the L2, namely when she could not deliver her lesson without resorting to the L1. The observation revealed that the teacher did not use the L1 whenever the students asked for clarification of meaning but only when it appeared that they could not understand what she said. She also tended to translate if the students failed to understand the explanation in the L2 and used the L1 to explain grammar immediately after explaining it in the L2. Her choice was motivated by the complexity of the topic being discussed, which was grammar at that period in the class. Although using the L1 to manage classes is favoured by many teachers, including the teacher in this study, it was noted that overuse of the L1 in this case would diminish its effect on the students. The students agreed with the teacher that the L1 should be used when teaching a new grammatical point, especially when they struggled to understand and asked for an explanation. The students seemed to admire those teachers who used their language because it helped them understand, exchange information easily and participate in the lesson.

Despite a growing body of literature having investigated the use of the L1 in English language classrooms, much of the empirical research has predominantly centred on teachers' beliefs and practices. Moreover, the vast majority of such studies have relied on self-report instruments, meaning they likely do not reflect teachers' actual uses of the L1. In addition, students' roles, experiences and attitudes regarding L1 use, particularly in relation to their actual practices have largely been neglected, despite their potential influence on teachers' attitudes and uses. While some studies have included students' attitudes, they have often been underexplored or only superficially addressed, and there has especially been a lack of focus on their actual use of the L1.

The use of the L1 in Saudi ESAP classroom presents a compelling and under-researched area for investigation. Very little research has investigated students' use of L1 in the Saudi ESAP context. An exception is Alsawayhiri's (2024) study, but although this included observation in addition to a questionnaire and interviews, it did not capture the complex moment-to-moment decisions made by teachers and students in the classroom. These are decisions that instruments such as stimulated recall interviews (as used by De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009) are uniquely able to reveal. Hence, little is known about teachers' and students' attitudes and actual practices, let alone the underlying reasons for these aspects of L1 use. Thus, this study makes a significant contribution by investigating teachers' and students' L1 use in the Saudi ESAP context in terms of its inclusion, its functions and the situations in which it is employed. It also addresses teachers' and students' attitudes and the reasons they give for their perceptions and actual usage. By focusing on the Saudi context, the study addresses the call for context-specific studies that consider local needs and institutional expectations.

2.5 Summary

The literature demonstrates that the status of the L1 has fluctuated throughout history. This is due to several reasons, including changes in the objectives and theories of teaching and learning. The review shows that the L1 tended to be used excessively in the classroom when the main objective was to enable students to translate and read literature in the target language, but then discouraged with attempts to mirror a child's L1 acquisition and when oral proficiency became the new goal of learning. The different positions were then consolidated with the emergence of behaviourism, contrastive analysis and other theories (e.g. comprehensible input and output), leading to its role becoming somewhat unclear. Recent changes in contexts and the re-evaluation of L1 use have led to its recognition as a crucial tool for language teaching and learning, resulting in considerable interest in understanding views and uses concerning the L1.

Previous empirical studies have found a general tendency towards the use of the L1. However, there are some differences in terms of attitudes and the underlying factors governing its use. Participants might be broadly in favour of using the L1 but their acceptance may be influenced by certain factors or limited to some specific situations. In addition, the findings demonstrate discrepancies between participants' attitudes and their

actual use of the L1 in the classroom. These aspects inspired the present study to use different instruments to address the limitations in previous studies.

Chapter 3. Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter begins by outlining different research paradigms and discusses the paradigm adopted in this study. This is followed by the definition of mixed-methods research, its strengths and designs, leading to a justification for the methodological choices made. Then, it presents the aim of the study and research questions. It also outlines the context, population and sampling procedure. There follows a discussion of the data collection methods, the rationale for selecting these methods and the order they followed. It then discusses ethical issues, including consent, anonymity and confidentiality.

3.2 Research paradigm

A research paradigm in educational research refers to the researchers' worldview which is defined as "the perspective, or thinking, or school of thought, or set of shared beliefs, that informs the meaning or interpretation of research data" (Khatri, 2020, p, 1435). These also refer to philosophical assumptions which guide the researchers' steps throughout their studies. These include the choice of problem, the formulation of the research question which consequently influence the researchers' ontological and epistemological positions (Khatri, 2020). Ontology is defined as the nature of reality whereas epistemology is concerned with the nature of knowledge and the means of acquiring it which both need to be clearly stated before selecting the methodology (Khatri, 2020). Thus, it is important to discuss the adopted paradigm.

This study adopted the pragmatic paradigm. Kaushik and Walsh (2019) noted that this worldview rejects the debate over the nature of reality. Rather, it accepts that reality can be singular or multiple. It is as viewed a paradigm which provides practical solution to answer the research problem (Cohen et al., 2018). Pragmatism draws on both positivist and interpretivist paradigms to study a phenomenon (Morgan, 2014, as cited in Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). While positivists view reality as objective and able to be tested, interpretivists contend that humans can have multiple interpretations of a given phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2018). The former advocates a quantitative deductive approach, whereas the latter encourages a qualitative inductive approach; each assumes its respective approach is

superior to the other, resulting in a paradigm war that many researchers have tried to avoid by mixing the two approaches, qualitative and quantitative (Maarouf, 2019).

Pragmatism advocates an “intersubjective approach”, recognising that “in a pragmatic approach, there is no problem with asserting both that there is a single ‘realworld’ and that all individuals have their own unique interpretations of that world” (Morgan, 2007, p. 72). That is, there is a reality which exists independently from human experience but this reality can only be accessed through human experience (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). In this paradigm, all knowledge of the world is viewed as being socially constructed and some versions of that knowledge could match the experience of one person more than others (Morgan, 2014). Kaushik and Walsh (2019) explain that the choice between versions of reality should be based on how effectively the chosen version can yield expected or desired outcomes.

Pragmatism acknowledges the complexity of phenomena, which requires the mixing and synthesis of methods to gain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study (Cohen et al., 2018). This enables researchers to be open to different types of research design and methodologies as the optimal way of answering the research questions (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019). Although pragmatists can opt to use single, multiple or mixed-methods in a way that best helps them approach the research questions (Kaushik & Walsh, 2019), the paradigm favours the application of mixed methods, viewing this approach as advantageous in addressing crucial research questions (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

3.3 Methodology: Mixed-methods approach

This study employed mixed-methods research, which is defined as “the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17). It is not a new methodology, but rather results from using knowledge about the methodology available and is now referred to as a third movement (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17), one that does not constrain the researcher based on certain ontological or epistemological assumptions (Creswell, 2003). This movement does not regard quantitative and qualitative methodologies as two distinct approaches, but as two ends of a continuum; the mixed-methods approach is in the centre and can exploit a mix of quantitative and qualitative methods in a single research study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie,

2004). It is argued that this will result in a greater understanding of the phenomenon being studied than when adopting a single approach (Cohen et al., 2018). However, this does not mean a random selection of the type of data or method, but careful selection of *what works* to answer the research questions (Cohen et al, 2018). The emphasis here is on the research questions being the main focus in determining what sorts of data and types of analysis are *fit for the purpose* of the research and can best answer the research questions (Cohen et al., 2018).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) have argued that this approach most fully answers research questions. This is because employing one method may lead to incomplete answers, but this can be resolved by using mixed methods, which exploits “complementary strengths” (Maarouf, 2019, p. 3). Using mixed methods in this research sought to make use of the strengths of each approach so that they would support each other. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) believed that such advantage could be considered a good justification for choosing such a methodology. For example, this approach can be used to collect and analyse large amounts of quantitative data within a short period but can overcome the inability of quantitative data to explain complex issues by using qualitative data. In addition, the different types of data collection and methods of analysis not only enhance and consolidate the findings of the topic studied but can also be used to confirm the results of one another (Maarouf, 2019). Hence, I believed the study would benefit from the different types of data collection and analysis in gaining a deeper understanding of L1 use and consequently providing robust conclusions.

Despite these positive aspects, it is also important to acknowledge that mixed-methods research has its disadvantages. One of its main drawbacks is that it is often associated with the issue of incompatibility (Bryman, 2016; Cohen et al., 2018; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004), that is, the inability to incorporate qualitative and quantitative approaches in a study because each approach has its own underlying beliefs regarding the nature of reality and how it is discovered and therefore, they cannot be combined in single research. In response to this argument, different points have been raised. One view urges purists to consider the similarities between approaches rather than focusing on the incompatibility issue (Bryman, 2016; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). These advocates of mixed methods stress that there are misconceptions about the quantitative and qualitative approaches, highlighting that in

fact they share similar characteristics, such as the aim to investigate what humans do and how they think, even though their means of investigations are different (Bryman, 2016). Moreover, they can both be used to form theories, as in the case of testing *a priori* hypotheses, and both can include sets of data from the other approach (Bryman, 2016). Furthermore, Bryman (2016) questioned the lines drawn to separate the two approaches as they are not completely in contrast to each other. He identified several cases in which the findings of one approach support the other and asserted that employing different types of data and analysis offers the research different tools to examine the phenomenon from various angles, consequently resulting in greater understanding (Bryman, 2016; Cohen et al., 2018). However, Maarouf (2019) notes that huge effort is needed to conduct research using this approach. Also, it requires qualified and experienced researchers who understand both approaches and can integrate them in a single research study. Thus, Cohen et al. (2018) argued that researchers should not be involved in the paradigm debate but to focus on having adequate knowledge to conduct mixed-methods research. He also suggested that the issue of incompatibility will not be settled and this does not mean that researchers should not move beyond this argument and conduct mixed-methods research.

Having considered these advantages and drawbacks, I took the view that mixed-methods research offered several benefits for this study. The strengths of the mixed-methods approach outweighed the weaknesses, particularly since this research sought to address different types of questions, which could best be answered by a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches. The quantitative data could further be examined through exploration of the qualitative data. Moreover, employing both approaches and a range of methods in collecting and analysing the data was considered invaluable as a means of enriching the findings of the research. To achieve this goal, it was important to select the most appropriate design to best answer the research questions.

There are several variants of mixed-methods design, such as the triangulated design, the embedded design and the explanatory design (Creswell, 2003). The embedded design is defined as “a mixed methods design in which one data set provides a supportive, secondary role in a study based primarily on the other data type” (Creswell, 2007, p. 67). The triangulated design refers to the process of gathering distinct but complementary data to obtain deeper understanding of the phenomenon being studied. The sequential explanatory

design refers to one in which quantitative data are clarified through qualitative data (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

The sequential explanatory design was deemed most appropriate for this study to address the research questions, aiming to study attitudes towards and use of the L1. The study, in part, followed a sequential approach, in that the questions in the follow-up interviews were informed by the survey results. Thus, appropriate questions could be developed to best understand trends that might appear in the survey data. At the same time, qualitative methods – classroom observation, stimulated recall interviews and follow-up interviews – were also employed to gain additional, valuable insights into the use of L1 in practice (observations), and the reasons for its uses (stimulated recall interviews). I should note that I began the process of data collection by observing classes and conducting stimulated recall interviews. These were then be followed by administering the questionnaires. After that, follow-up interviews were conducted as the last stage of data collection to understand the reasons for the questionnaire responses. The rationale for this order (see Figure 3.1) was to avoid influencing the participants by informing them of the questionnaire statements related to using the L1 to motivate students (for further detail, see 3.7.1).

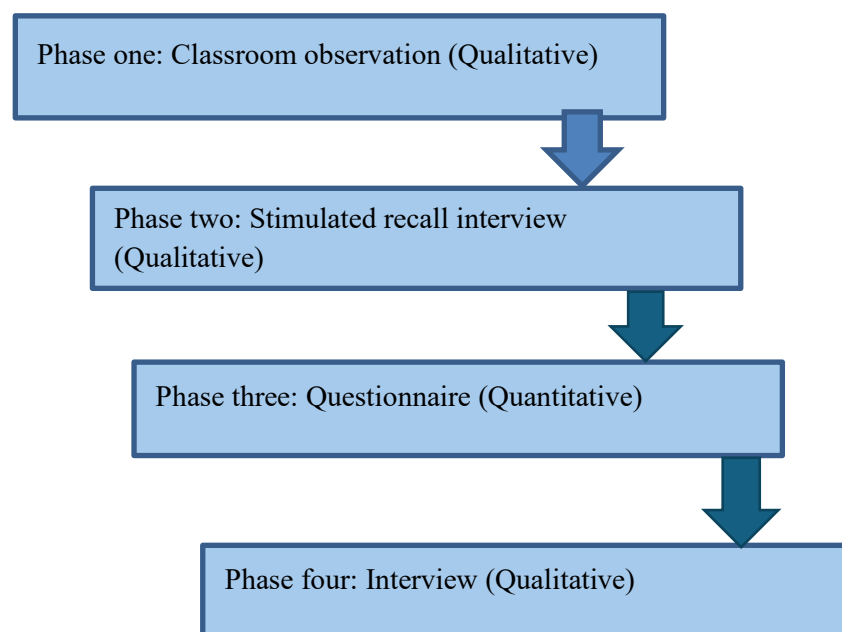


Figure 3.1. Research design.

3.4 Aim of the study

The main goal of this research was to explore the use of the L1 in teaching and learning the L2. This research particularly aimed to investigate teachers' and learners' preferences and actual use of the L1, Arabic, in classes teaching English for medical and technical purposes. This also included exploring the frequency and functions of L1 use and the reasons for teachers' and students' preferences, as well as actual use. The implications of this research could be important in guiding debates for or against L1 use and consequently help inform policymakers and teacher training programmes. In the context of Saudi Arabia, it could provide insights into the use of L1 and possibly enhance understanding of the challenges teachers and students face with regard to ESAP courses that need to be addressed.

3.5 Research questions

The research questions guiding this study evolved as the literature review and contextual understanding deepened. Initially, the questions were broad and exploratory, aiming to examine teachers' attitudes and actual use of the L1 in ESAP. For example, the initial set of questions did not include any that specifically sought to investigate the underlying reasons for teachers' actual L1 practices. However, as the review progressed it was evident that many previous studies had neglected the impact of students-related factors such as their preferences, behaviours and the level of proficiency and motivation on teachers' attitudes and practices concerning the L1 use. Equally important, the under-estimation of L1 use and the tension between attitudes and actual practices necessitated the refinement of the research questions and instruments to address such issue.

Hence, to fulfil the research aims, this study sought to answer the following main research questions and their associated sub-questions using a range of methods as summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Research questions and instruments

No.	Research questions	Instrument
1.	How and why do teachers and students use Arabic in class?	
	(a) In which situations do teachers and students use Arabic?	Semi-structured observation with audio-recording (Qualitative)
	(b) Why do teachers and students use Arabic in class?	Stimulated recall with audio-recoding (Qualitative)
2.	What are teachers' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses for Medical/Technical purposes?	
	(a) What are teachers' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses in terms of the frequency and functions of use, the factors driving its use and the situations in which it is used?	
	(b) What are students' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses in terms of the frequency and functions of use, the factors driving its use and the situations in which it is used?	Semi-structured questionnaire (Quantitative)
	(c) What factors affect teachers' and students' perceptions of the use of Arabic in class?	
3.	What are the reasons behind teachers and students' perceptions regarding their preferred frequency and functions of use and their motives for using the L1?	Semi-structured interview (Qualitative)

3.6 Research context and participants

This research was conducted at a university in Saudi Arabia and recruited teachers and students in the PYP. Part of this programme includes teaching/learning English for General Purposes in the first semester and English for Specific Purposes in the second semester. These courses are provided by the English Language Centre (ELC), which has over 60 teachers, who are of mixed nationality: native speakers of Arabic, native speakers of English and native speakers of other languages, including Urdu and French. They hold at least a Master's degree in fields relevant to English language teaching. ELC teachers receive training only from the textbook publishers concerning how to use the materials and teach them to the students.

Each year, around 3,000 students are enrolled in the PYP, which offers different compulsory modules taught in English, such as mathematics and physics. These must be passed for the students to progress to their chosen colleges: Medicine, Applied Sciences, and Business Administration. The ELC provides ESAP classes in the second semester to prepare the students for their future subjects. For example, students aiming to study medicine will be taught English for Medical purposes and those whose goal is to specialise in Applied Science will be taught English for Technical Purposes. This research was limited to those teaching and studying English for Medical and Technical Purposes. This choice was made for various reasons, including the time allocated for this study, the various instruments to be employed, and the aim of gaining in-depth understanding of the role of the L1 in this context. That is, the intention was to focus on a relatively small number of participants, while maintaining the intended aim of obtaining rich data, rather than involving a greater number, which could distract from the focus of the research.

The study used purposive sampling to ensure the selection of participants who were directly involved in ESAP teaching and learning and could provide relevant insights concerning L1 use in this context. The technique was deemed suitable for this research as it allowed the targeting of a group of participants with the particular knowledge and experience needed to address the research questions (Cohen et al., 2018). It is important to note that all participants were provided with information sheets and consent forms, and approval was obtained before commencing each phase. The ELC played a key role in facilitating participants' recruitment for this study through initiating contact with the coordinators via WhatsApp. The

coordinators then spread the word among staff that participants were needed for a study focused on the medical and technical domains.

Although 10 teachers showed interest in participating in the research, only 8 were ultimately recruited as the other 2 taught shared groups. The eight teachers were also informed of the second phase of the research, the stimulated recall interviews, and expressed their interest in participating in this stage as well. Classrooms were then visited to invite students to participate in the observation phase and gain their consents. After observing each group, participants were informed about the main purposes of the study and were invited to participate in the following phases: stimulated recall interviews, questionnaires and follow-up interviews. Participants were happy to share their contact details. I approached those seated near the recording devices to ask whether they would be willing to participate in stimulated recall interviews. The coordinators then facilitated the distribution of the questionnaires and participants were invited to share their details for potential follow-up interviews. Following the completion of the questionnaire phase and gaining an insight into the participants view, I contact those who had provided their contact details to conduct the follow-up interviews. The participants remained cooperative throughout the data collection process, and no one withdrew from the study at any point.

There were 30 medical groups and 26 technical groups. Each group usually includes 25 to 30 students and is taught by one teacher. In all, 8 groups, 4 from each domain, were observed. Only 3 lessons for each group were observed. This choice was made for a number of reasons, as noted previously, such as the constraints of the PhD programme and to allow time for employing the other instruments. For the stimulated recall interviews, the aim was to recruit 1 teacher and at least 3 students from each group. Table 3.2 sets out the instruments, sampling procedures and the intended number of participants in the original plan.

Table 3.2. Research instruments and participants.

Instruments	Type of data	Sampling	No. of teachers	No. of students
Observation	Qualitative	Purposive	8 teachers, 4 from each group, 1 teacher from each class	From 25 to 30 in each group
Stimulated recall interviews	Qualitative	Purposive and convenience	3 students from each class	3 students from each class
Questionnaire	Quantitative	Purposive	–	–
In-depth interviews	Qualitative	Purposive	–	–

3.7 Research instruments

3.7.1 Observation

Observation is referred to as the process of examining participants' behaviours in natural settings (Creswell, 2003). It is a useful instrument for investigating behaviours that cannot be captured using other instruments (Foster, 1996). This was a particular advantage in this research since, as noted by Hall and Cook (2013), some teachers may be unaware of or under-report their use of L1. Hence, it is regarded as a useful instrument and offered the opportunity to compare naturally occurring data with the quantitative data collected via the questionnaires (see section 7.3), aiming to understand the participants' attitudes concerning how the L1 should be used. Thus, the two could supplement each other, providing a broad but also detailed picture of L1 use.

However, the use of observation can have several drawbacks, which can affect the results of the research. Among these disadvantages is that the participants may change their behaviour due to the presence of the researcher, a phenomenon referred to as the Hawthorne effect (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 126), which would distort the findings. However, there are some solutions that could help minimise the effect of the observer on the participants. One is that the researcher can increase his presence in the context of the study and build rapport with the participants, so his/her presence becomes a normal part of the everyday classroom (Cohen et al., 2018). Another suggested strategy is to avoid disclosing the purpose of the observation (Thieberger, 2012) which would involve informing them about the general focus of the study, in this case, classroom interaction within ESAP classrooms. This approach is also suggested by British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2006). For this reason, the observation was conducted in the first stage while the questionnaire and the interview

were employed at later stages. Another reason for conducting the observation in the initial phase was to avoid the participants being informed by the questions and/or the statements in the questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2018).

Types of observation

Cohen et al. (2018) noted that observation can be divided into three types. The first is structured observation, where the observation is focused on specific predetermined criteria. This includes having clear categories for recording the participants' behaviours using observation schedules. In contrast, in unstructured observation, the investigator does not utilise an observation schedule because of the difficulty of predicting what exactly will be observed (Cohen et al., 2018). Semi-structured observation falls between these two approaches in that it has clear explicit criteria but is not completely structured and therefore allows some flexibility (Cohen et al., 2018).

This research employed semi-structured observation because it responded to the objectives of the research, which aimed to explore the actual use of L1 during the lesson. Planning the purpose of the observation would facilitate and guide collection of the targeted information and the flexibility of this form allowed the addition of notes on the uses of L1 which could be valuable for the study. Hence, this type of observation was considered useful as the data collected would help gain a better picture of the L1 used by the participants (Cohen et al., 2018).

The schedule was adapted from Murga et al. (2018). This includes checklists of functions of L1 use and has a space for field notes to add comments on these uses. Specifically, it has four columns (see Appendix A). The first contains a list of functions of L1 use, such as using the L1 to explain grammar. The second and third columns indicate whether it is the teacher or students using the L1, respectively. The final column is used for noting down comments about the uses of L1, such as noticeable behaviours that could result in the use of L1 and some examples relevant to the use of L1. In addition, two sections were added to be used for additional comments, to summarise the lesson or to comment in relation to the uses of L1 by the teacher or the students. Further, it could be used to note the time or the students who used the L1.

My role was non-participatory, unlike in participant observation, in which the researcher is noticeable in the observation setting and interacts with the participants (Cowie, 2009). As previously noted, it was important to reduce the Hawthorne effect, which could lead to participants avoiding the use of L1. Therefore, I aimed to observe 3 lessons for each group so that they would become familiar with my presence and I would build rapport with the participants. Finally, to mitigate the potential for the observation to influence behaviour as much as possible, I clearly informed them that their contributions would be anonymised.

Use of audio-recording with observation

In addition to using the observation schedule, the sessions were audio-recorded rather than video-recorded. While video-recording is valuable in observing participants' behaviours or reactions to the use of L1, for example, it was not used in this study for several reasons. First, Cohen et al. (2018) argued that the use of video-recording is associated with surveillance which could negatively affect participation. Further, the use of L1 is considered a sensitive issue for many teachers and is associated with feelings of guilt (Hall & Cook, 2012), embarrassment, shame and stress, especially when they are video-recorded (Macaro, 1998; Neil, 1997). In addition, the use of L1 is linked with negative aspects, such as being less creative (Macaro, 2000). That is, teachers may rely on the L1 to compensate for a lack in their L2 knowledge (Hall & Cook, 2021).

I acknowledge the limitations associated with audio-recording, such as the inability to capture the participants' facial expressions and to read their lips when their voices were unclear. However, audio-recording suited the purpose in this particular context. It helped me focus on the process of observation during the lesson and captured other contributions which also could be useful (Cohen et al., 2018), as audio-recording can help retrieve any lost or unnoticed events that might occur during the process of writing notes (Dörnyei, 2007). Moreover, it is less subject to the negative effects associated with the video-recording. For example, participants may feel more relaxed when they are being audio-recorded rather than video-recorded as their voices are less likely to be recognised. Furthermore, as an insider who knows the context and the culture, I can state that teachers in the KSA are not accustomed to the use of the camera in class and I believe that this might have resulted in a feeling of discomfort that could have negatively affected the data. Therefore, this research considered the use of audio-recording an appropriate choice rather than video.

3.7.2 Stimulated recall interviews

Stimulated recall is a data collection technique in which participants are provided with a stimulus, often in the form of a recording (audio or video) of themselves performing a task and asked to recall their thoughts at that moment (Bowles, 2019). This method is most commonly associated with studies that aim to investigate decision-making processes (Dempsey, 2010). It is noted that stimulated recall is effective in investigating oral interaction (Bowles, 2019), which in this study concerned the use of L1 or reaction to its use by the teachers and the students.

There are several benefits to using stimulated recall. Among these, it is especially effective when the research aims to collect participants' thoughts and feelings in specific situations, particularly those that cannot be noted by observation or other instruments (Dempsey, 2010). In this case, it was of value as I would not be interpreting the reasons for using the L1 directly myself but would ask the participants to comment on their uses of Arabic in class, which it was hoped would reduce any potential bias in interpreting the participants' behaviours.

This method, however, has some drawbacks. These include the effect of social desirability bias on data collection (Dempsey, 2010). This means that participants may report socially desirable behaviours and avoid reporting undesirable ones. Hence, it might be necessary to employ techniques to reduce social desirability bias, including building rapport with the participants and stress that no judgment will be made (Cohen et al., 2018). Another disadvantage of using this method is that it necessitates the careful construction of questions or prompts to reduce any additional reflection that would jeopardise the validity of the research. Therefore, prompts were written in past tense and using past expressions to emphasise that the questions were about the specific moment that took place in the past (Dempsey, 2010). An example of such a prompt would be: "Why did you use Arabic when you explained this word yesterday?" Furthermore, it is recommended that stimulated recall interviews should be conducted within 48 hours of the stimulus (observation) so that participants can still retrieve their thoughts at that time (Dempsey, 2010). As a result, I intended to complete the stimulated recalls within the timeframe specified.

Stimulated recall was deemed an appropriate choice for this study as one of its primary goals was to discover what factors motivated the participants to use the L1 in terms of frequency

and functions. The observation could be useful in noticing the use of L1 or perhaps the visible factors influencing its use, such as reacting to students, but there might be other factors that could motivate teachers and/or students to use the L1. In this study, participants were given roughly 20 examples of their utterances that clearly reflected their use of L1 use or reactions to its use and then they were asked to comment on these examples and give their reasons for using or avoiding the L1. From those selected examples, the participants could choose some examples of their use of L1 and/or L2 and comment on them. Its use can reduce the researcher's level of inference. In my opinion, this could also help participants select what they remembered, thus leading to more reliable results. The selected excerpts aimed to include a mixture of L1 functions, such as using the L1 to explain vocabulary and grammar. In addition to providing examples in the form of audio-recordings, at this stage, I transcribed just those examples and offered the participants the scripts to help them retrieve their thoughts. They were free to choose whether to conduct the interviews in English or Arabic to help put them at ease and ensure the validity and reliability of the data.

3.7.3 Questionnaire

The questionnaire is a popular data collection instrument in second language research (Dörnyei, 2003). In questionnaires, participants are usually offered a set of written questions or statements and are asked to respond by writing answers and/or choosing from predetermined options (Brown, 2001, as cited in Dörnyei, 2003). There are two main types of questionnaires: structured and unstructured (Cohen et al., 2018). While structured questionnaires generally require the participants to choose from or tick responses to sets of questions or statements, unstructured questionnaires consist of open-ended questions, which require participants to write answers in their own words.

Questionnaires have several advantages, such as offering participants a safe space to respond, which would consequently motivate them to provide truthful and accurate answers (Cohen et al., 2018). Second, they are effective in eliciting perceptions and attitudes that are relatively difficult to observe (Cohen et al., 2018). That is, the participants may wish to use the L1 in specific situations, but they might not be allowed to or utilise it for certain reasons. Therefore, using questionnaires could help the participants express their preferences. In addition, they are commonly employed by applied linguists because of their efficiency in terms of time and money (Cohen et al., 2018). Within a relatively short time, researchers can

gather large amount of data. Furthermore, the issue of bias associated with other instruments such as interviews can be lessened through the use of the questionnaires which would consequently promote the reliability of the findings (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010).

Likert scales is considered one type of the questionnaires which typically include “a range of responses to a given question or statement” (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 480). Such type is commonly employed by researchers as it provides a number of benefits, summarised by Cohen et al. (2018). Such type is commonly employed by researchers as it provides a number of benefits, summarised by Cohen et al. (2018). One of the main advantages of this format is its usefulness in gathering data on participants’ attitudes and opinions. Additionally, it is useful in generating numbers while maintaining the answers’ sensitivity and differentiation. Moreover, participants can easily respond to such format.

However, this form of questionnaire also has several drawbacks. It might not be as effective as interviews in terms of generating in-depth responses concerning the participants’ attitudes and opinions. In addition, respondents tend to avoid the extremes – strongly agree and strongly disagree – although some answers could reflect their true feelings (Cohen et al., 2018). They could also be affected by the layout of the scale, leaning toward the left-hand/right-hand side or the centre, or be influenced by previous questions; thus, items must be constructed and worded carefully and the questionnaire should be anonymous (Cohen et al., 2018).

To respond to RQ2, this study employed web-based semi-structured questionnaires, including Likert-scale items and closed questions for both teachers and students (see Appendix B and Appendix C, respectively). The aim of the instruments was to obtain data on participants’ preferences regarding the use of the L1 in terms of frequency, uses and motives, and situations in which it should be used. To meet this objective, while I adapted a questionnaire from Hall and Cook (2013) and Tang (2002), including the layout and some statements such as using the L1 to “Give feedback on written work”, I also developed the questionnaire following various suggestions and to suit the purposes of the study. For example, it is advised that the initial section of the questionnaire should be interesting and relatively simple and focus on salient aspects (Dörnyei, 2003). Hence, the first section included closed questions in the form of yes/no questions about the inclusion or exclusion

of L1 use, followed by a question about the preferred frequency of L1 use. The following section, on the preferred uses of L1, comprised 5-point Likert-scale items, with the options “all the time”, “often”, “sometimes”, “rarely” and “never”. Similarly, the other two questions comprised 5-point Likert-scale items but with responses ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”.

All three Likert-scale questions were followed by open-ended questions at the end of each section, allowing the participants to add any aspects of functions, motivations and situations not addressed in the statements. This would allow them to express their preferences in their own words or terms (Cohen et al., 2018). The reason for allowing participants to add information in this way is that many previous studies (e.g. Schweers, 1999) found that only including listed items meant that information was missed on information that was important to the participants. The final section will aim to gather factual information about the teachers and students that will be useful for data analysis (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010), for example about their domain of study/teaching and any teaching/learning experience that would allow the identification of significant regularities or patterns (Cohen et al., 2018). Some studies (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013) have found that more experienced teachers advocate the use of the L1. Hence, such questions could be helpful in identifying what factors influence the participants’ decisions regarding whether to use or avoid the L1.

Two questionnaires were developed, one for teachers (Appendix B) and the other for students (Appendix C). The teachers’ questionnaire enquired about their preferred frequency of L1 use, its functions, and what motivated them to use it. The students’ questionnaire aimed to elicit their preferences concerning the frequency and functions of L1 use and situations in which it might be used that they wished their teachers to follow. It is important to note that teachers’ questionnaire was written in English whereas the students’ version was translated into Arabic. This choice of language in both versions was to cater to non-Arabic participants who might not have knowledge of Arabic and to ensure that students can fully comprehend the questions and statements and consequently respond to them with ease.

3.7.4 Interviews

Interviews are flexible and powerful tool commonly used for collecting data (Cohen et al., 2018). Researchers typically use interviews to ask participants questions in order to collect

spontaneous and rich responses on complex issues. Interviews are deemed as an effective instrument for gathering data to find out participants' thoughts concerning a particular point in their own words (Cohen et al., 2018). One of the main advantages of the interviews is that it enables the participants to discuss how they interpret the world and their behaviours. Therefore, this valuable tool would offer this study the opportunity to gain an in-depth understanding from both teachers and students about the role of own language use at university level.

While interview has different types which range from structured to unstructured interviews. The use of each form can affect the nature of questions asked and answers obtained (Cohen et al., 2018). In structured interviews, participants are restricted to responding to pre-planned questions asked in a specific order (Bryman, 2016), whereas in unstructured interviews, although the research questions provide a frame for the interview questions, they tend not to be in a prescribed order and do not follow specific patterns (Cohen et al., 2018). In semi-structured interviews, the researcher plans the interview questions to guide the interview with the use of prompts and probes to obtain rich data about the phenomenon being studied (Cohen et al., 2018). In the field of applied linguistics, this form of interview is the type most commonly used (Dörnyei, 2007).

However, Adams (2015) points out that interviews can have several drawbacks. First, they can be time-consuming for both the interviewer and interviewee. He also noted that not only do interviews take a considerable amount of time to conduct, but there is also the process of preparing the interview, which includes the planning, the formation of the questions and arranging an appropriate time and place. Cohen et al., (2018) adds that they require certain skills to build rapport and trust with the interviewees and to conduct and prompt the conversation with the aim of helping them respond freely. The same author also emphasised that the interviewees could be influenced by the situation itself and the interviewer, such as his/her origin and position.

Adams (2015) advised using the semi-structured form when a study adopts a mixed-methods approach because it can help answer some aspects that emerge after conducting a questionnaire. Hence, the semi-structured interviews were implemented in the final stage. I believed this instrument could supplement the data obtained from the questionnaire while

compensating for its weakness in potentially gathering superficial responses. That is, the use of the interviews would provide a different lens to investigate participants' views regarding how the L1 should be used from another angle, enriching the data obtained from predominantly quantitative means (Cohen et al., 2018). In this stage, the participants were asked about their views concerning the inclusion of the L1 and their preferred functions and situations of L1 use and they were also asked to elaborate on their responses. In addition, the interviews sought to understand the reasons for any discrepancies between how they thought the L1 should be used and how they actually used it in class. Moreover, in the case of advocating the prohibition of L1 use in class, the use of this tool could help elicit the reasons and explore the alternatives they followed to explain or understand in the L2 without resorting to the L1. (For the interview protocol, see Appendix D.)

Overall, I acknowledge the value of the mixed-methods approach in conducting studies such as this, which aimed to answer different types of questions. I also believe in the superiority of qualitative methods over quantitative methods in investigating participants' views. However, I am of the view that quantitative methods can help capture the general views of participants regarding own language use and how it should be used. In addition, taking into consideration other factors, such as the time available for conducting the study, employing only qualitative methods would likely have meant having only a few participants and would not have revealed the general attitudes of teachers and students more broadly concerning L1 use. Thus, I believe utilising the mixed-methods approach was the most effective means of achieving the goals of this research.

3.8 Data collection procedures

3.8.1 Piloting

The pilot study is considered an important step before conducting the main study as it is necessary to test the research instruments Cohen et al., (2018). As noted by Dörnyei (2007), this helps validate the research tools and promotes the validity and reliability of the study. Cohen et al. (2018) add that it could also be used to check the practicality of the research. Piloting for this research included pre-testing the observation checklists, the stimulated recall interviews, the questionnaire and the in-depth interview questions to avoid any potential issues which could negatively affect the study.

Changes to the plan

The plan was to carry out the pilot study over a period of nearly a month during the beginning of the second semester in mid-January and then conduct the main study in the middle of the semester from March to the end of May. The main reason for conducting the study during the middle of the semester was that teachers might overly rely on or avoid the use of the L1 in the first few weeks. Hence, the goal was to give them time to adopt the appropriate techniques for teaching their students and explore them in depth. As I had only three months to conduct this research and four data collection methods to implement, I planned to observe eight groups, allotting a week for each, from March to the end of April. The intention was then to administer the questionnaire and conduct the interviews in May (see Figure 3.2).

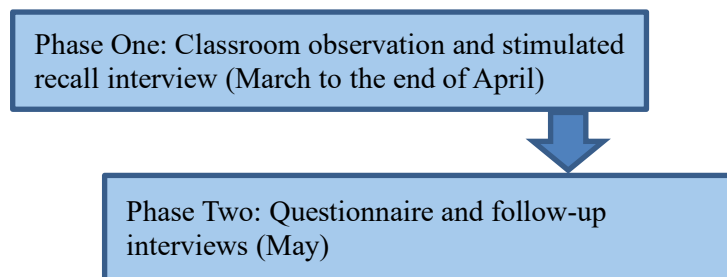


Figure 3.2. Planned data collection stages.

Although approval to conduct the study was obtained from the Ethics Committee at the University of Glasgow, it took longer than the ELC director and I anticipated to gain approval from the research site as the study had to be approved by several departments through a new procedure. Approval was finally received in the middle of April, during the month of Ramadan (see Appendix E). Hence, there were some changes to the original plan, which also affected the pilot study.

The pilot study

Given the changes in circumstances, the pilot study was carried out between the middle of April and the beginning of May. The first step was to gain approval from those who would participate in the pilot study to observe one class to determine actual uses of the L1. Taking a non-participant observer role, I observed a group comprising a single teacher and 27 students from the technical stream, who shared similar characteristics to those participating

in the main study. This group was observed for two lessons to pre-test the research instruments and to practise applying them. During this time, I pre-tested the observation checklists and practised note-taking and the use of stimulated recall, including piloting the questionnaire and interview questions. Each instrument will be discussed in further detail below. It was an excellent opportunity not only to evaluate the research tools, but also to establish the best spots to place the three recording devices.

Based on the lesson observations, I modified the observation checklists (see Appendix F) as I noticed that the seating arrangement could affect how much the students spoke and used the L1. That is, they would speak at round tables (either in L1 or L2), whereas they would almost never talk to each other when seated in rows because there was around a metre's space between each student. Hence, three sections were added to the checklist to allow me to note the time of instances of L1 use, the seating arrangement and the number of students so that I could assess the use of L1 in the observed classes. I also noticed that the teacher used L1 to talk to latecomers or drowsy students and thought of adding this function to the checklist. However, I considered this function could be omitted as there was already a box for comments on the teachers' use of L1 at the bottom of the form. In terms of the three recording devices, they worked effectively when placed at round tables, but it was difficult to hear the students when seated in rows despite all efforts to place the devices in the optimal positions to record. Although, at times, it was difficult to hear the other students, I used the observation sheet to add and comment on the other students' uses.

For the stimulated recall interviews, used to identify why teachers and students used the L1 in class, I pre-tested to the procedure and the questions. I presented all instances of L1 use to both teachers and students to understand the reasons for their uses. A few changes were made to the questions, primarily to use past tense to help the interviewees focus on specific instances and answer accordingly. In addition, I noticed that the teacher sometimes used the L1 to respond to a student but at other times the L2, and on other occasions initiated the use of L1. Hence, I added questions to ask not only about instances of L1 use during the lessons but also to understand the reason for initiating the use of the L1 or replying/not replying in the L1. That is, after the participants provided reasons for their uses, they were asked why they used the L1 not the L2, which could help explore the reasons from another angle.

Moreover, I considered that the teacher did not use the L1 to explain grammar rules, for example, because the lesson did not involve grammar points. Therefore, I added a few questions about whether there were other uses, factors and situations influencing the teachers to tend to use/avoid the use of L1. Furthermore, an additional question (e.g. Do you always use the L1 in the same way it was used in this lesson?) was included to address whether the teacher used the L1 in the same way he used it in the observed class throughout the semester. The reason for adding this question was due to the unexpected delay in conducting the pilot study and the main study because there could be uses of L1 that teachers would not employ at the end of the semester.

Finally, the interviews made me aware of the opportunity to add a question asking the teacher and the students their views on whether L1 should be used in their classes and this could allow comparisons to be made between the teachers' and students' views and their actual use. Moreover, the teachers' interview questions were initially prepared in English but the teacher preferred to conduct the interview in Arabic. This made me aware of the need to prepare a version translated into Arabic for the teachers too. The student interviews also helped me realise the importance of redirecting the conversation towards answering the research questions as they tended to talk about irrelevant points.

For the questionnaires, two forms, one for the teachers and another for the students (see Appendices B and C), were designed in Microsoft Forms, seeking understanding of the teachers' and students' views of how the L1 should be used by the teachers. A link to the teachers' questionnaire was sent to teachers in the medical and technical streams and another link to the students' questionnaire was sent to two groups, the one I observed and another studying medicine. The questionnaire links were sent to teachers and students who would not participate in the main study to pre-test them. The aim was to collect feedback and make the necessary changes before conducting the main study, dealing with any potential issues (Cohen et al., 2011). In all, 15 teachers and 38 students answered the questionnaire and had no difficulty understanding the questions or the item statements and therefore no changes were made.

Follow-up interviews were conducted with the aim of gaining an in-depth understanding of the reasons for the answers provided in the questionnaire regarding the teachers' and

students' views about the use of L1 in class. In addition to asking why they thought Arabic should be used in their classes, there were questions about major trends in the responses to the questionnaire. The interview protocol was piloted to check the clarity of the questions, mitigate potential bias and improve the reliability and the interview procedure. In addition, pre-testing the follow-up interview made me aware of the length of the interview, which could last far longer than expected (75 min), although it depended on the participants' answers.

Overall, although I had experience of conducting questionnaires and interviews, piloting the four instruments made me aware of the challenges and how to overcome them, particularly in view of the safety procedures needed due to COVID-19. In addition, it gave me the opportunity not only to test the instruments and procedures but also to understand the participants and gain their trust and build rapport with them. This was especially important with the students because it greatly helped me in recruiting them. Moreover, it made me aware of the areas that need to be modified or improved.

3.8.2 The main study

Observation

The plan was initially to conduct the main study in March and May, during the second academic semester of 2022, for two reasons. The first was to conduct semi-structured observation over the first two months, in the middle of the semester, to avoid the possibility that the L1 would be used more at the beginning of the course or, as others have found, towards the end of the semester (Edstrom, 2006). The plan included observing eight ESAP groups over eight weeks (one week each), and up to six lessons for each group. It also included conducting the semi-structured stimulated recall interviews as soon as possible after each class with the teacher and at least three students from each group.

Unfortunately, this plan had to be changed due to the delayed receipt of approval from the ELC in the middle of April, which reduced the three months allocated for the pilot and main studies to about six weeks, two for the piloting phase and four for the main observations, ensuring the observation phase was completed before the start of final examinations (see Figure 3.3). Consequently, due to having only four weeks for the main study, I had to make changes, such as observing two groups for two lessons per week, which allowed me to

observe all the eight groups, as planned. I considered this to be more appropriate than reducing the number of groups to be observed further because I was welcomed in both the pilot study and the first lessons of the main study and found the teachers and students used the L1, although I was also aware that their uses might have been reduced. Hence, I thought that observed uses provided an insight into how the L1 was used in class and therefore there was no need to observe more classes to reduce the Hawthorne effect and make the participants more comfortable with my presence. In addition, this gave me a chance to observe more groups to see whether they might use or avoid using the L1 and the reasons for their decisions.

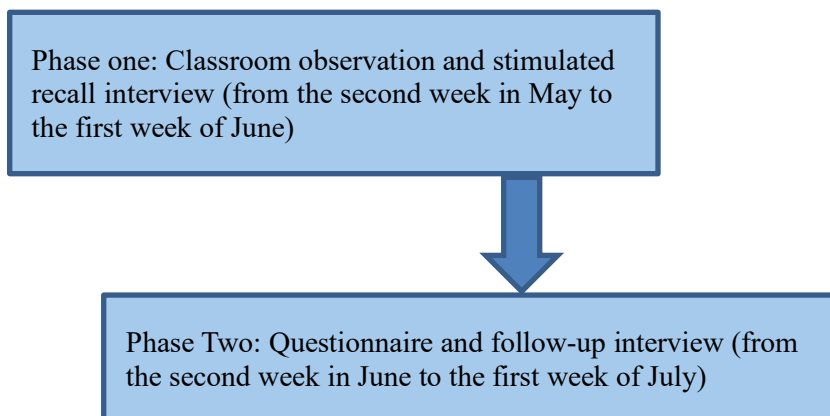


Figure 3.3 Revised data collection procedure.

A total of 8 teachers (see Table 3.3) and 224 students were observed and audio-recorded over 2 lessons to understand how the L1 was actually used in English classes for medical and technical purposes. (For a sample observation transcript, see Appendix G.)

Table 3.3. Demographic information of observed teachers.

Teacher	Nationality	L1	ESAP domain	No. of observations
T1	Saudi	Arabic	Medical	2
T2	Saudi	Arabic	Technical	2
T3	Saudi	Arabic	Technical	2
T4	Saudi	Arabic	Medical	2
T5	Pakistani	Urdu	Technical	2
T6	Saudi	Arabic	Technical	2
T7	Pakistani	Urdu	Medical	1
T8	Pakistani	Urdu	Medical	2

In total, 8 groups, 4 from the Medical group and 4 from the Technical group, were observed, each group being taught by 1 teacher and comprising around 26 students. All participants were adult and male as it is illegal for males to enter female buildings for religious and cultural reasons. They were teaching/studying English for medical and technical purposes, allowing comparisons to be made between the two streams in relation to how L1 is used in class. The length of the lessons varied: some lasted only 40 minutes, whereas others lasted about 130 minutes and thus there were more data from some classes than others. The reason for observing the lessons from the beginning to the end was to see if use of the L1 might differ or be affected by the duration of the lesson and to see if it was used, for example, for taking attendance or assigning homework at the end of the lesson.

Ten teachers expressed interest in participating in the study, but two of them were excluded because their groups were also taught by other teachers. Before the observations, the eight teachers were contacted to arrange a suitable time to visit their classes and meet the students. The students were told that I would observe up to six lessons, but I eventually only observed two for each group due to time constraints. I also thought explaining that other groups would be observed could put them at their ease, signalling that they would not be the sole focus of my research. I assured them that their participation would be fully anonymous, aiming to protect their identities. All these steps helped me build trust and a friendly atmosphere with the participants, potentially reducing the Hawthorne effect (see section 7.1). I then provided them with the consent form and gave them time to read and sign it before returning to collect the completed forms and arrange a suitable time for observing the classes if they agreed to participate.

All lessons presented use of the L1 by both teachers and students. The teachers used the L1 for various reasons, but their uses differed in terms of frequency. Although the focus of the research was not to quantify L1 use, it was clear that teachers who were native speakers of Arabic used it more, which consequently affected the uses of the L1. The teachers tended either to stay at their desk in the front of the class or move around to check on the students when they were undertaking tasks. With the distribution of the three recording devices, all teachers' use of L1 could be recorded, whereas only students close to a device could be heard; however, as noted earlier, this could be dealt with via the field notes. While the students used the L1 among themselves (e.g. asking for translation) and with the teachers (e.g. asking for clarification) in all the classes observed, the students in two groups did not use the L1 among themselves as much as the students in other groups. This was due to the teacher-centred approach, which followed the initiation, response, feedback (IRF) pattern. Some students tended to lower their voices when using the L1, which might be because they were generally shy or due to my presence in their classes.

After completing the observations of each group, the participants were made aware of the main focus of the study, i.e. examining L1 use in ESAP classes, as advised by British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2006). I also explained that they could withdraw and have their data destroyed at any time before the data analysis commenced in November. None of the participants objected and therefore I proceeded to the next phase.

Stimulated recall interviews

The stimulated recall interviews aimed to gain an understanding of the reasons underpinning the use of L1 by both teachers and students. They were supposed to take place within 48 hours after the lesson observation. All the teachers were interviewed (the same identifiers were used), six within the proposed time. Two were not available in this window due to their involvement in preparation for the examinations scheduled for 1–2 weeks after their classes ended.

The students had begun sitting their final examinations in other courses and so were busy, but they promised to do the interviews as soon as they could. Only a few students were available within 48 hours and the rest were interviewed 2–3 weeks later when their examinations ended. After each lesson, I asked those who were close to the recording devices

if they would be willing to participate in an interview. They were very amenable and provided their contact details, which I wrote down and put with the recording device that had been close to them in an envelope. I could later extract the L1 uses and interview the students based on the recordings of their own use. The extracts were then given to the students to confirm the utterances had been correctly attributed (or not). I also noted those who remained in silence or tended to lower their voices to ask them about the reasons for this and asked them if they wished to participate in an interview to understand whether they were influenced by my presence or other factors, but only one agreed to participate. Although the goal was to recruit at least 3 students from each group for the stimulated recall stage, only 11 students participated in total. This was due to several factors. They had started their final examinations in other modules and these were followed by their final English examination, after which the semester ended. Despite having their contact details and undertaking to participate, they did not do so. I think their interest faded after they finished their examinations and due to the long period between the classroom observation and the end of examinations, which were factors outside my control.

All lessons were reviewed immediately after they had ended and all instances of L1 use (initiation or reply) were extracted as audio files and printed copies, recording the time and date of the recording. The rationale for providing printed copies of L1 use was to give participants the option to choose whether to read or listen to their L1 instances. The extracts contained not only instances of their L1 use, but also the date and time during the lesson, as well as the preceding and following utterances, to help the participants recall when these instances took place and what exactly motivated them use the L1. They were also used to emphasise that the interview was about an action that happened in the past. Participants were made aware that there were hard copies and audio extracts of their L1 use and they were free to choose which they preferred to be used in the interviews. All participants read and confirmed the instances of L1 use had been attributed correctly. They preferred the use of the written form rather than the recordings, even though the recording device was on the table and ready to be played. Some participants said that they did not like listening to their own voices in the recording.

The interviews began with several procedures adapted from the literature (i.e. Mackey and Gass, 2000). In this study, these included reminding the participants of the goal of the

interview, both written and spoken, to understand their reasoning for their use of the L1 at a specific time and that they were being recorded and had the option to object or withdraw. In addition, they were asked whether they would rather the interview be conducted in English or Arabic. They could skip or refuse to answer any question and/or comment on any of their uses of L1. If they had difficulty in recalling their thoughts, they could ask to have the exact instance played or move on to the next instance to avoid giving an unrelated reason.

I should note that the stimulated recall interviews leaned towards being semi-structured and informal, rather than a formal meeting with predetermined questions. There were additional questions allowing the participants to elaborate on their answers, particularly asking why the students had used Arabic not English following their comments on the instances of their L1 use because there could be more than one reason for using the L1. For example, a student might have responded in Arabic when asked a question in Arabic, feeling it more natural to respond in the same language or to avoid making mistakes in English. Furthermore, a few questions were asked about other unobserved uses of L1 or occasions when they tended to avoid using the L1. The interviews lasted up to 45 minutes. Some participants, especially teachers, showed interest in the research topic and requested a copy of the findings. (For a sample transcript of a stimulated recall interview, see Appendix H.)

Questionnaires

Questionnaires are considered an effective tool for eliciting perceptions and attitudes that are relatively difficult to observe (Cohen et al., 2018). The second phase and the distribution of the questionnaire started at the end of May, following completion of the classroom observations and most of the stimulated recall interviews. The rationale for not conducting the questionnaire earlier, despite potentially receiving more responses, was to avoid disclosing the main goal of the study. In addition, the questionnaire included some statements about how and when the L1 might be used and identifying these before the observation and stimulated recall could have influenced the participants' behaviour and/or responses (Cohen et al., 2018).

With the assistance of the ELC administration, the coordinators who supervised the medical and technical streams and teachers, the links to the two questionnaires, one for the teachers and the other for the students, were sent to the intended groups. Both questionnaires aimed

to explore the participants' views regarding the inclusion of L1 in class, its frequency and purposes, and factors and situations influencing its use in ESAP lessons. The teachers' questionnaire was in English and the students' version was in Arabic. It was important to ensure the students understood the questions and statements given that they were in the first year (PYP), otherwise the reliability of the data could be impaired. Out of 55 teachers and 1,268 students, 21 teachers and 134 students completed the questionnaire (see Tables 3.4 and 3.5).

The questionnaires (see Appendices B and C) contained an introductory section, followed by a closed question that asked whether teachers should use Arabic in ESAP classes. Those who responded *yes* went on to complete the survey, whereas those who responded *no* were automatically directed to the final section, which aimed to collect information on aspects such as the stream in which they taught/studied (medical or technical) and their contact details should they wish to participate further.

The participants who went on to complete the main part of the questionnaire were then asked a multiple-choice question about how often they thought Arabic should be used. This was followed by a multiple-choice question containing statements about the purposes of L1 use (e.g. to explain vocabulary), with participants asked to respond how often L1 should be used for these purposes in ESAP classes based on a five-point Likert-type scale (*always, often, sometimes, rarely, never*). The following two questions addressed factors motivating the use of L1 (e.g. teaching large numbers of students) and situations in which L1 would be used (e.g. when feeling tired), both with responses indicating the extent of agreement given on a five-point Likert scale (*strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree*). A great number of teachers and students responded with a resounding "yes" to the use of Arabic, especially for explaining vocabulary, and thought Arabic should be used in particular with low-level students. It is important to note that the participants were given chances to add unstated uses, factors and/or situations which they considered important. This was really helpful as I found interesting answers, discussed in Chapter 4.

- *Teachers*

Twenty-one participants responded to the questionnaire and their demographic characteristics are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Demographic information of teachers interviewed.

		No. of teachers	%
ESAP Domain	Medical	18	85.7
	Technical	3	14.3
	Total	21	100
Proficiency in Arabic	Native speaker	11	52.4
	Advanced	1	4.8
	Upper-intermediate	2	9.5
	Intermediate	3	14.3
	Elementary	4	19.0
	Total	21	100
Proficiency in English	Native speaker	3	3
	Advanced	13	13
	Upper-intermediate	1	4.8
	Intermediate	3	3
	Elementary	1	1
	Total	21	100
Proficiency in Urdu	Native speaker	5	23.8
	Advanced	1	4.8
	Beginner	1	4.8
	Not applicable	14	66.7
	Total	21	100
Proficiency in other languages	Beginner	3	14.3
	Elementary	1	4.8
	Native speaker	5	23.8
	Not applicable	12	57.1
	Total	21	100
Highest qualification relevant to ELT	Undergraduate degree	4	19.0
	Master's degree	9	42.9
	MPhil	2	9.5
	PhD	6	28.6
	Total	21	100
Years of experience as a language teacher	0–4	4	19.0
	5–9	3	14.3
	10–14	2	9.5
	15–19	2	9.5
	20–24	6	28.6
	25+	4	19.0
	Total	21	100

As can be seen from the table 3.4, the majority of participants (85.7%) taught in the medical field. In addition, most participants (52.4%) were native Arabic speakers but 61.9%

identified themselves as having advanced English-speaking skills. Moreover, most teachers (43%) hold a master's degree related to English language teaching and 29% of the participants have 20-24 years of teaching experiences.

- *Students*

A total of 134 students responded to the questionnaire. Of these participants, most (75%) were studying in the medical field and the remaining 59% were in the technical field. Table 3.5 shows the distribution of students in each field.

Table 3.5. Student questionnaire respondents' fields of study

ESAP domain	No. of students	%
Medical	75	56
Scientific	59	44
Total	134	100

Follow-up interviews

Cohen et al. (2018) regard interviews as an effective tool for collecting data to discover participants' thoughts and feelings regarding specific matters or instances in their own words. Follow-up interviews were undertaken to gain a deeper understanding of the responses provided in the questionnaire and to explore any unexpected and interesting trends in the questionnaire data. Thus, the interviews not only aimed to verify the questionnaire responses but also to understand the reasons for the responses concerning the statements the participants most agreed or disagreed with. Moreover, the interviews could explore some aspects difficult to address in the questionnaires, including examples of how the L1 should be used in ESAP classes.

The interviews began as soon as the questionnaires were completed and the trends emerged. Accordingly, I started to construct questions in addition to those pre-arranged in the interview protocol based on responses that were of particular interest, such as the choices most and least selected. This was the reason for leaving the interviews to the final stage. After preparing the questions, contact was made with those who had showed interest in participating in the interviews and had provided their details during the stimulated recall process.

Overall, 7 teachers (see Table 3.5) and 15 students (see Table 3.6) participated in the follow-up interviews at a time of mutual convenience. The students' interviews took place on campus and were undertaken in Arabic to help put them at their ease and ensure they could answer fully. The teachers preferred their interviews be conducted off campus. One teacher expressed a preference to conduct the interview via Zoom, whereas the others chose the phone. The decision of whether to speak in Arabic or English was left to the teachers; all participants opted for Arabic except non-native speakers of Arabic favoured English. The interviews leaned towards being informal conversations rather than formal, aiming to create a friendly atmosphere and enable the participants to speak comfortably.

Table 3.6. Demographic characteristics of interviewed teachers

Teacher identifiers	Nationality	Qualification
T9	American	Master's degree
T10	Canadian	Master's degree
T11	Saudi	PhD
T12	Saudi	Master's degree
T13	Saudi	Master's degree
T14	Saudi	Master's degree
T15	Saudi	Master's degree

Table 3.7. Student interviewees' ESAP domains

Student identifiers	ESAP domain
S12	Medical
S13	Medical
S14	Medical
S15	Medical
S16	Medical
S17	Medical
S18	Medical
S19	Medical
S20	Technical
S21	Technical
S22	Technical
S23	Technical
S24	Technical
S25	Technical
S26	Technical

The interview procedure was similar to the stimulated recall interviews to some extent, for example in reminding the participants of their rights and that the interview would be recorded. However, these interviews did not include stimuli as the focus and the emphasis

was on exploring in depth the reasons for the participants' views rather than understanding reasons for the use of L1. The interviews were semi-structured, with predetermined questions and follow-up questions, to gain greater insight into the participants' views as expressed in response to the questionnaires. (For a sample of an interview transcript, see Appendix I).

Those who answered "yes" to the use of L1 were asked about the reasons for their answers, regarding why, how much, and what factors or situations would motivate the use of Arabic and why. They were also asked questions about the major trends found in the questionnaire responses. Those who responded "no" were asked questions about why and what alternatives they used to Arabic.

3.9 Data analysis

3.9.3 Qualitative data analysis

This study employed thematic analysis to analyse the qualitative data gathered through the stimulated recall interviews and the observation, seeking to understand the functions of L1 use and the reasons for teachers' and students' use of Arabic in ESAP classes. This involved identifying, analysing and reporting patterns/themes within the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Although qualitative content analysis was considered, it was deemed inappropriate because it requires developing categories and a coding scheme before the main analysis begins to act as a filter to include all content relevant to the research questions and exclude irrelevant content (Zhang & Wildemuth, 2005). Thematic analysis, in contrast, offers flexibility (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and can provide rich, detailed and complex accounts to gain a sense of the data. Moreover, it enables researchers to use both deductive and inductive reasoning throughout the process of analysis. While deductive reasoning refers to the use of predetermined knowledge or a list of codes from previous research (e.g. L1 use to explain grammar), inductive reasoning refers to bottom-up analysis of the data to generate new information and interesting results. Both inductive and deductive reasoning were used in analysing the data.

Braun and Clarke (2006) proposed six stages of thematic analysis: familiarisation and transcription, coding, generating themes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes and reporting the analysis. The first phase involved several steps to gain familiarity with the data,

including reviewing the notes, listening to the recordings, transcribing and, when needed, translating the data. As advised by Braun and Clarke (2006) the transcription followed a specific convention to ensure important information was retained. Moreover, I adapted certain symbols from the Jefferson system to provide adequate contextual information to help during the analysis, such as short pauses to attract attention. This phase also included re-reading, adding coding notes and reflecting on the data with aim of addressing the research questions.

I then started building on the initial notes to produce codes, which were grouped into relevant themes in the third stage. In the fourth stage, I reviewed the data extracts, re-read the data to check if I had missed interesting codes and finally checked whether the codes fit the emergent themes. This was followed by a critical phase in which I reflected on the themes, ensuring each theme was distinct but relevant to the full picture and could contribute to answering the research questions (see Appendix J), otherwise they were refined. The final phase of this analysis entailed producing the report, presenting the meaning of each theme in relation to the overall story.

The process of coding and theme development drew equally on deductive and inductive methods (Braun & Clarke, 2006). That is, the analysis was partially informed by categories in the questionnaires and the classroom observation schedule but also allowed themes and codes to emerge inductively from the analysis. The pre-established categories in the questionnaires and the classroom observation checklist were drawn from the literature and commonly reported uses of L1 (e.g. using the L1 for giving instructions) and served as deductive starting point for identifying patterns. As the interviews and the observation field notes were analysed, additional codes and themes emerged inductively (i.e. religious/culturally specific purposes), which were not explicitly present in the pre-established codes and categories but were evidenced in the participants' behaviours and responses. The combination of deductive and inductive approaches ensured that the final themes would reflect both expected and emergent aspects of L1 use in the ESAP classroom.

As this study involved interviews, observation and questionnaires, the data from each method were analysed separately before being integrated with the other datasets. Although this study started with the use of observation to examine how the participants used Arabic in

their ESAP classes, followed by the stimulated recall interviews to allow them to explain why they used the L1 in specific situations, I started with the analysis of the stimulated recall interviews because several teachers talked about how they used the L1 before they explained why they used it in those specific situations. Hence, those interviews, including the discussions about the purposes and reasons for the use of Arabic, were considered helpful later when analysing the observations. However, although starting with the stimulated recall was beneficial to understand both the motives for and some functions of L1 use, starting with the observation might also have been useful, especially in terms of informing the analysis of the stimulated recall interviews. Overall, despite the need to go back and forth during the analysis, the approach taken was beneficial as the stimulated recall interviews, as anticipated, helped understand not only the motives for L1 use but also the functions – primary and at times secondary – of L1 use.

3.9.4 Quantitative data analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative data obtained through the online questionnaires. Descriptive statistics were first used to analyse the questionnaire responses and explore whether there were statistically significant differences with regard to the participants' variables (ESAP domain and years of experience). The demographic information was included in the final part of the questionnaires to understand the participants' background.

Internal consistency was measured using Cronbach's alpha (α) for 33 items related to the preferred factors and situations in which instructors believed they should use Arabic. This statistic "provides a coefficient of inter- item correlations by calculating the average of all possible split-half reliability coefficients. It is a measure of the internal consistency among the items (not the people/cases) and is used for multi-item scales" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 274), thus determining how closely interrelated a set of survey items are and whether removing any of the items would improve reliability. While Dörnyei (2007) considers an alpha score of 0.60+ in second language studies an acceptable level of reliability, Cohen et al., (2018) regard values in the range 0.80– 0.90 to be highly reliable and >0.90 to be a very highly reliable score. The scale showed very good internal consistency for both the teachers' questionnaire ($\alpha = 0.921$) and the students' questionnaire ($\alpha = 0.885$). Part of the questionnaires sought to understand the relationship between the participants' attitudes and

some variables (e.g., ESAP domain). In addition, Chi-square test is generally used to test the independence of two categorical data (Mehta & Patel, 2012). In cases such as in this study cell sizes are small, this type of test is considered unreliable. Therefore, as suggested by Mehta and Patel (2012), Fisher's exact test results are reported. All analyses were completed in IBM SPSS, Version 29.

3.10 Quality of the study

3.10.1 Reliability and validity

The reliability and validity of research is reflected in the careful decisions made in designing and conducting a study using quantitative methods, underpinned by the rationale for each step. Reliability refers to the ability of the research methods to attain stable and consistent results (Cohen et al., 2018). In this study, this was assured by following a number of procedures, such as carefully structuring the questionnaire and the observation schedule, as well as surveying, observing and interviewing different classes and participants.

Validity concerns the extent to which the research methods measure what they aim to measure (Cohen et al., 2018). There are two types of validity: internal and external. Internal validity is defined as how successful a study is answering the research questions, whereas external validity refers to the extent to which the findings of the study can be generalised to different contexts and populations. This research did not seek to attain generalisability but employed three methods, which complemented each other and aided in conferring internal validity, as well as undertaking a pilot study.

3.10.2 Trustworthiness

Qualitative researchers consider the tests and measures used in quantitative research to confer reliability and validity inapplicable for qualitative data. Instead, they aim to achieve trustworthiness in their findings (Rose & Johnson, 2020). Trustworthiness refers to “the systematic rigor of the research design, the credibility of the researcher, the believability of the findings, and applicability of the research methods” (Rose & Johnson, 2020, p. 434). To achieve this, Guba (1981) suggested four criteria for evaluating qualitative studies: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. These are alternatives for the quantitative criteria of reliability and validity.

Credibility, equivalent to internal validity, refers to how close the results of the study to the reality (Shenton, 2004). This criterion is considered a crucial aspect for establishing trustworthiness and can be achieved through a number of ways, including the processes of triangulation, the use of debriefing sessions, recruiting appropriate participants and giving them the right to refuse to participate (Shenton, 2004). This study aimed to address these aspects, for example by involving those who were teaching/learning ESAP and the use of multiple sources to collect and analyse the data, such as an observation checklist, field notes, audio-recording and stimulated recall interviews. These decisions have an impact on the following aspect of trustworthiness: transferability.

The second criterion is transferability, which corresponds to external validity or generalisability (Shenton, 2004). While it is difficult to generalise the results of qualitative research to other contexts, providing a rich description of the phenomenon being studied allows other researchers to determine the transferability of the results to their settings. This study provided the basis for transferability by employing various data collection and analysis methods and offering a thick description, setting out the boundaries of the study, such as the timing and the number and types of participants, particularly in relation to the exploration of the teachers' and students' attitudes and actual use of the L1. Thus, I consider the thesis enables readers to make their own decisions concerning the transferability of the results to their own contexts.

The third factor is dependability, which corresponds to reliability and is concerned with the replicability of the research results (Shenton, 2004). Guba (1981) noted that where the stability of data is concerned, it is crucial to "make allowance for apparent instabilities arising either because different realities are being tapped or because of instrumental shifts stemming from developing insights on the part of the investigator-as-instrument" (p. 86) and this can be achieved through "overlapping methods". Dependability is closely related to credibility and therefore can be fostered by using different methods in tandem (Guba, 1981; Shenton, 2004). Shenton (2004) advised that issues related to dependability can be addressed through explaining and describing all processes and decisions made from the beginning of the study, including the implementation of the research design and the data collection process to (1) help those who aim to repeat the study and (2) enable readers to evaluate the practices and the soundness of the methods.

The fourth criterion is confirmability, namely whether the results of the research are a true reflection of participants' experiences and ideas (Shenton, 2004). Similar to the previous criteria, triangulation plays a major role in ensuring confirmability by reducing the researcher's bias (Shenton, 2004). This can be addressed in several ways, such as collecting data from different angles by using different methods and sources (Guba, 1981). In this study, the qualitative data were recorded and the classroom observation were verified through the use of stimulated recall interviews, such that the results obtained by one instrument could be confirmed by those based on data collected through other methods. Consequently, the quality of the findings can be confirmed.

3.10.3 Reflexivity

Following the explanation provided in section 1.2 concerning the reasons for my interest in the topic, this section addresses the issue of reflexivity, which is defined as “the process of a continual internal dialogue and critical self-evaluation of researcher's positionality as well as active acknowledgement and explicit recognition that this position may affect the research process and outcome” (Berger, 2015, p, 220). My background, experience and the beliefs I have about education within the Saudi context were valuable for understanding the issue at hand. However, these could have affected the recruitment of the participants, the questions asked and the lens applied, which might result in potential biases when analysing and interpreting the data and drawing the conclusion. For example, my knowledge of the topic might have influenced how I approached the issue. To mitigate such issues, I maintained transparency concerning the decisions and rationale for each step throughout the research. In addition, I actively explored different perspectives, recruiting a good number of teachers, both Saudi and non-Saudi, and students. Moreover, the participants were constantly given chances to express their views, add comments or elaborate on their answers to avoid guiding the responses. Finally, I utilised triangulation to cross-verify the results and avoid bias (Berger, 2015).

In addition, I was also aware of the fact of being an insider and that having “shared experience” might impose issues such as biases and the risk of “blurring boundaries” (Berger, 2015), while also granting a number of advantages, such as knowing the research context and facilitating the process of gaining permission to conduct the research (Cohen et al., 2018). Being an insider gave me the advantage of knowing the research site, classroom

context and the teachers, which consequently helped me build rapport with both the teachers and students. The teachers introduced me to the students as a colleague and as a PhD student in my final year, doing what they would be doing at the end of their bachelor's degrees before graduation, as most would have to do graduation projects. I then took the chance to explain the purpose of my visit, also assuring them that I would not be judging their language levels or intervening in their lessons, being a non-participant observer.

3.11 Ethical considerations

Ethical approval for this study was obtained from the College of Arts Research Ethics Committee, the Saudi Cultural Bureau and the ECL. All measures were taken to follow the University of Glasgow Code of Practice, the College of Arts Research Ethics and Integrity Policy and the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2006) *Recommendations on Good Practice in Applied Linguistics*.

3.11.1 Consent, confidentiality and anonymity

This study acknowledges that research is not only about obtaining site permission (Holliday, 2010). Therefore, this study addressed a number of ethical considerations. For example, all participants were given an information sheet to read and an informed consent form to read and sign, indicating their voluntary participation. The information sheet explained the aim and nature of the research, including the methodology and how the data would be stored and used and for how long it would be retained. It explicitly set out what their participation would involve and what kind of information would be gathered and how. The students were given forms with a translated (Arabic) version to ensure they fully understood all the information. Moreover, there were different forms for the observations, stimulated recall interviews, questionnaire and interviews (see Appendices K and L for the forms in English and Arabic, respectively).

Thus, the participants were made aware that the interviews would be audio-recorded and the recordings would later be transcribed and translated into English. They would be stored in an encrypted pseudonymised folder on a personal computer and later uploaded to the University of Glasgow OneDrive. Moreover, the participants were informed that anonymised transcripts of the recorded data might be accessed by the supervisor and/or the examiner. Throughout the research process, every effort was made to ensure the participants'

full anonymity and confidentiality. Each participant was assigned pseudonyms to protect their identities throughout the transcription process and the data were treated with strict confidentiality. They were aware of their right to ask any questions regarding the study or procedures before, during and after the research has taken place. They were informed of their right to refuse to answer any question or withdraw at any time without providing any explanation.

3.11.2 Potential harm to participants

A core principle of research ethics is to ensure that participation in the study will not result in harm to the participants, whether mentally or physically (Dörnyei, 2007). This research was undertaken during the COVID-19 pandemic. Thus, all measures were taken to ensure the safety of the participants throughout the study. They were also informed that they would not be judged or harmed by the results of this study. During the research process, they were reminded of their right to refuse to be observed and/or interviewed and that they could withdraw at any time or skip any questions they felt uncomfortable answering.

In addition, it is vital in research to prioritise the safety of participants. According to the World Health Organization (WHO, 2021), COVID-19 could be transmitted by touching surfaces contaminated by the virus and then touching part of the face, such as the eyes or mouth, before washing one's hands. As a result, for the sake of the participants' safety, I refrained from distributing questionnaires in hard copy and instead used Microsoft Forms. In addition, all measures were taken to ensure both the participants' safety and mine. Thus, social distancing was maintained in the observations and interviews.

3.12 Summary

This chapter has discussed the research paradigm, namely pragmatism. This was followed by a detailed explanation of the nature of the mixed-methods approach and its strengths and weaknesses, as well as setting out the choice of design in this study. The chapter then articulated the aim of the study and research questions. It identified the instruments used for data collection (observation, stimulated recall interviews, questionnaires, follow-up interviews) and methods of data analysis. The final section addressed important steps taken to ensure the safety of the participants and the researcher.

Chapter 4. Analysis and Discussion of Teachers' Attitudes and Actual use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents and integrates the qualitative and the quantitative findings concerning teachers' attitudes towards and actual use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms. The findings concerning the students' attitudes and use of the L1 are presented and discussed separately in the following chapter. As outlined in Chapter 3, the data were collected through classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, questionnaires and follow-up interviews. The classroom observations aimed to understand how the teachers used the L1 and the stimulated recall interviews were used to explore the reasons for their uses of the L1. The questionnaire was developed to understand participants views on how the L1 should be used by teachers and the follow-up interviews were employed to identify the reasons underlying their views.

The first two phases of this study entailed observing eight ESAP groups in the technical and medical streams to answer the research question concerning how teachers use Arabic in class. One teacher was observed only once because he was teaching his final lesson, whereas all the others were observed twice. Among the eight teachers, five were native speakers of Arabic and the other three were native speakers of Urdu (see Table 3.6 in the previous chapter). This was followed by stimulated recall interviews, in which 8 teachers were asked about the underlying reasons behind the use of the L1 in particular instances.

In the final two phases, this study employed a survey conducted through MS Forms and then follow-up interviews to investigate the participants' perceptions concerning how the L1 should be used and the reasons underlying their views. While the survey aimed to understand the participants' general views concerning use of the L1 in terms of its inclusion, purposes and situations in which it should be used, the goal of the follow-up interviews was to gain a more in-depth understanding of their responses. Out of 55 teachers, 21 teachers completed the questionnaire and 7 participated in the follow-up interviews. The first section aimed to explore perceptions regarding the inclusion of Arabic in ESAP classes. This was then followed by a question about the preferred frequency of L1 use. The third question asked about how and how often participants thought the L1 should be used. The fourth and fifth

sections aimed to explore the participants' views of the factors and situations which should influence the use of the L1. The final section aimed to gain more information about the participants, such as their domain of ESAP.

I would note that although data collection for the study commenced with the observation and stimulated recall interviews, the findings concerning teachers' attitudes towards L1 use are presented first. This aims to provide a clear understanding of their views and beliefs before examining the extent to which these align with or differ from their actual L1 practices. Hence, this chapter begins by presenting and discussing the teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of L1 use (see 4.2) and its frequency (see 4.3). This is followed by analysing and discussing teachers' actual practices, together with the relevant responses obtained from the questionnaires and the follow-up interviews concerning views of how the L1 should be used (see 4.4). The remaining responses to the questionnaires and the follow-up interviews are then addressed separately in 4.5. The findings are presented for each theme (e.g. pedagogical-related purposes) and code (e.g. general vocabulary, academic vocabulary and ESAP vocabulary). For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

The most frequently observed purposes for L1 use were related to clarifying vocabulary and thus a key analytic decision was made to categorise the types of vocabulary encountered in classroom discourse. To understand the distinction between these L1 uses for explaining vocabulary, the classification of vocabulary discussed in the literature review is revisited (see 2.3.3) in terms of the difference between general, academic and specialised or technical terms (Nation, 2022). In the academic context, vocabulary can be classified into general, academic and discipline-specific vocabulary based on the frequency, range and degree of specialisation (Dang, 2018). General vocabulary includes the most frequent 1,000–2,000-word families, whereas academic vocabulary includes high frequency words which can be found in academic texts but fall outside the first category. ESAP vocabulary refers to specialised terms which are central to a specific discipline.

Whether these categories should be treated as strictly separate or as points along a continuum is debated. Hyland (2016, as cited in Dang, 2018) suggested that specific and general vocabulary use should be viewed on a continuum rather than as dichotomous categories. It has been argued that drawing distinctions for pedagogical purposes is more practical but

there is clear and significant overlap between different categories of vocabulary, especially as discipline-specific discourse draws greatly on general academic vocabulary (Dang, 2018). While this study acknowledges the blurred boundaries, it draws a practical distinction between general, academic and specialised vocabulary for the purpose of data analysis. I therefore, consulted EAPFoundation.com (<https://www.eapfoundation.com/vocab/>), a recognised educational resource, to support the categorisation of vocabulary and ensure an informed and transparent approach.

This framing provides essential context for understanding the interpretation of the findings. Although the categorisation of vocabulary is not always discrete, it is deemed analytically helpful for identifying clear patterns in L1 use. This contributed to one of the main findings, namely that the L1 can be seen as a valuable resource for supporting both mastery of disciplinary content and second language development in ESAP classrooms. With this contextual framing in place, teachers' actual classroom practices and the pedagogical purposes for L1 use are set out in Section 4.4.

4.2 Teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of L1 use

This section addresses RQ2 and RQ3, addressing teachers' attitudes towards L1 use and the underlying reasons for their views. It draws on data obtained from the questionnaire, which explored teachers' attitudes, and the follow-up interviews, which examined the reasons underpinning their perceptions. Together, these findings offer valuable insights into teachers' attitudes and underlying beliefs before exploring the extent to whether these align with their actual practices in using the L1 (see 4.4).

The results of the questionnaire demonstrated that teachers generally advocated for L1 use but the follow-up interviews revealed that they supported the English-only policy and would resort to the L1 only when needed. As shown in Figure 4.1, only 6 teachers opposed the use of the of L1, while most (N = 15, 71%) believed that Arabic should be used in their classes. This result is in line with various studies presented in the literature, such as that of Tang (2002), who found that 72% of teachers thought the L1 should be used in the classroom.

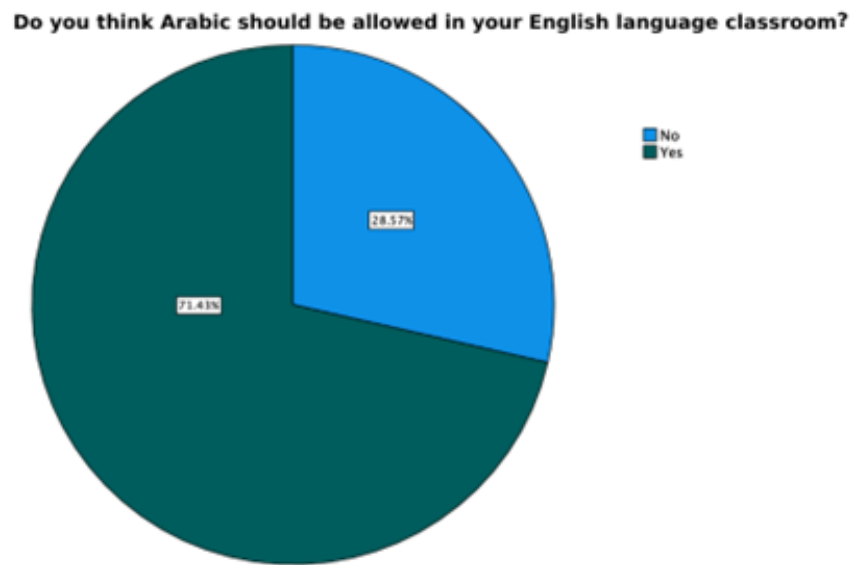


Figure 4.1. Teachers' responses to the inclusion of Arabic in class.

The follow-up interviews were effective in gaining deeper insights into the rationale for their views. In terms of the attitudes of those who did not favour the use of the L1, two of those interviewed were native speakers of English. They preferred the English-only policy, believing that the best way to teach English was through immersing the students in an English environment, although both admitted to using the L1 as a last resort. As T9 said:

“I do not favour the use of L1 because the main purpose of language teaching or anybody learning the language is that he basically wants to learn the English language so ideally I prefer as much as possible that I don't translate anything for them and try to get them to understand everything in English.”

T10-I reported:

“I always tell my students, especially at the beginning of the semester or the first three weeks when we're getting to know each other that I always tell them, listen, you've already got your native language, you got your mother tongue in your pocket, on your right pocket, so why not get.. if you're spending all these hours in the classroom, why not take the opportunity to.. I know you're not going to become fluent in a short period of time but at least try to imitate or try to become fluent and enjoy it while you're doing it. So, you've already got your L1, your first language, so the more you give yourself opportunity to speak and try to use the language and it's much better for you, for your career and for you later on.”

These responses illustrate the range of teachers' responses in terms of attitudes towards L1 use. Although both teachers stressed the importance of maximising the target language, the

former was stricter in his avoidance of the L1 while the latter seemed more concerned with encouraging the students to maximise their use of the L2. One shared aspect between the two teachers was that both attempted to avoid or advised against using the L1 rather than totally rejecting its use. That is, they adhered to the “maximal position” (Macaro, 2001). The teachers seemed to hold a monoglossic view of language, emphasising the separation between languages and advocating the maximisation of the target language. However, they felt they were sometimes forced to use/allow L1 use only for translation to define or confirm the meaning of words, otherwise their students would remain puzzled. Whether this was due to being accustomed to receiving translation or to the difficulty of terms, for example, particularly ESAP vocabulary, it seems the teachers accepted students’ own language use only in relation to vocabulary.

Although most teachers expressed their preference for using the L1 in the questionnaire, the interviews revealed a more complex stance. Some seemed to adopt the monolingual approach but still acknowledged that multilingual practices were unavoidable. T11 stated, “I guess I am from those who do not lean towards using Arabic in teaching English so both teachers and students benefit from it [English]”. He added that he preferred to use the L1 for “the terminologies which are difficult to explain through the definitions, drawings and other techniques which force me to use Arabic”. Similarly, T12 said, “I do not prefer to use [Arabic], but sometimes to explain grammar and difficult vocabulary when students do not understand”. He reasoned his use of L1 was because “most exam questions are about the vocabulary and grammar”. T13 was of the same opinion, stating “I do not prefer to use Arabic, but there are some situations where I have to use it”. These responses highlight the view shared among the teachers that use of the L1 was not preferable, describing it as a necessary measure only when English-based strategies failed, particularly for explaining grammar and ESAP vocabulary that their students struggled to grasp. I argue that these views reflect a monoglossic stance, treating the L1 as a fallback rather than as a valued resource. They seemed to permit L1 use pragmatically rather than embracing a multilingual ideology. Thus, although they might countenance translanguaging, the teachers’ beliefs remained situated in a monolingual framework, one on which the L1 is not perceived as part of an integrated linguistic repertoire (García & Lin, 2016).

These responses highlight an important contradiction. While most teachers wished to avoid the L1, they found it difficult to completely abandon its use. It seemed that despite the teachers' beliefs concerning the benefits of avoiding the L1, it always found a way to creep back in (Cook, 2001), leading them to accept its use for limited purposes. These findings are in line with those of other studies, for instance Hall and Cook (2013) and Alsuhaibani (2015), who concluded that teachers often perceive the L1 as a practical necessity rather than a full linguistic recourse that can be deployed to promote teaching and learning. That is, they seemed to be forced to use it to help their students understand (see also Baeshin, 2016; Lucas & Katz, 1994). Hence, as noted in the literature, L1 use was generally considered a practical necessity by many teachers, particularly when all other means of helping students understand specific items failed. Yet, its use depended on various factors and situations that influenced how much and when the L1 should be used, points which are taken up in the following sections.

Overall, it is worth noting that even those who opposed the use of the L1 did not think that they could totally exclude it from the ESAP classroom. Rather, they preferred to limit its use or resort to it in specific situations. I consider that these statements suggest agreement with García (2009), who highlighted that teachers tend to present their teaching techniques as monolingual while concealing their translanguaging practices, despite being aware of the need for its use and its effectiveness (see 4.4 for a detailed discussion).

4.3 Teachers' attitudes towards the frequency of L1 use

This section addresses RQ2a, exploring teachers' preferences concerning the frequency of L1 use. The actual frequency of L1 words used was not calculated as part of the observations. However, as shown in Figure 4.2, most teachers' preferences were for using the L1 "sometimes" or "rarely". Specifically, 10 teachers (66%) thought Arabic should be used "sometimes". This supports the views recounted in the previous section, namely that the teachers seemed to be influenced by certain factors or situations, such as the difficulty of the point being taught. Similarly, Kovačić and Kirinić (2011) found most teachers (45%) favoured using the L1 "sometimes".

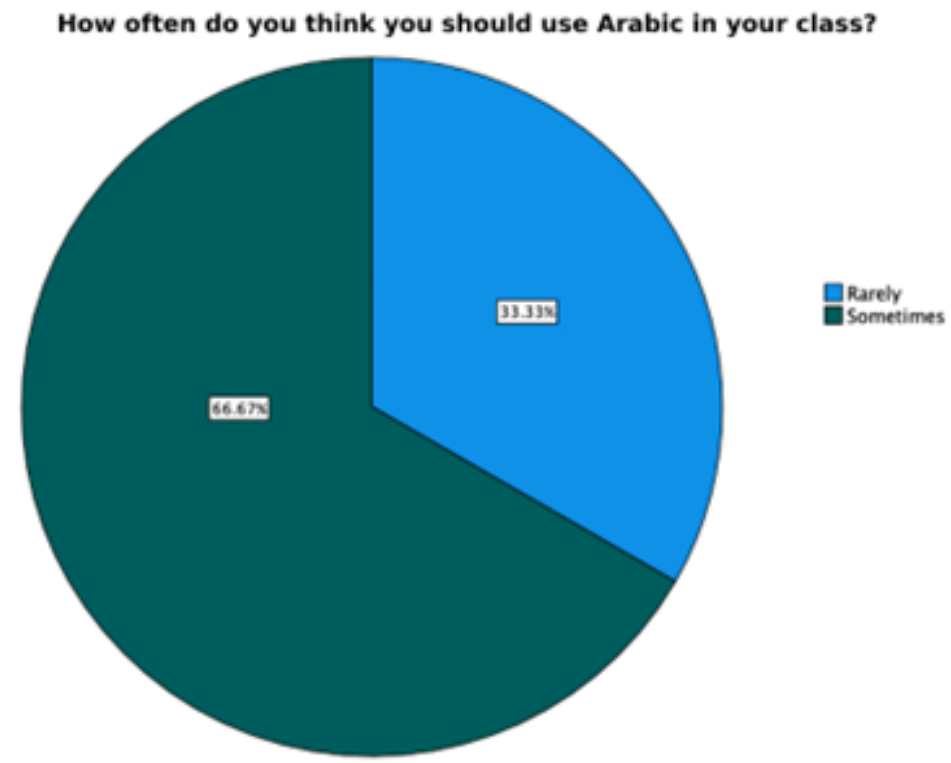


Figure 4.2. Teachers' attitudes to the frequency of Arabic use.

Interestingly, none of the teachers chose “always”, “often” or “never”, indicating a preference for judicious or optimal use. That is, the teachers did not advocate a total ban on the L1, neither did they support its overuse. Instead, they recognised the significance of maintaining a balance between the languages used in their classes. In the interviews, reported preferred frequency of L1 use differed from one teacher to another. They stated that its use depended on certain factors and situations, as discussed below in Section 4.4.

4.4 Teachers' practices and attitudes regarding the purposes and reasons for L1 use in ESAP classrooms

Building on the preceding sections, which explored teachers' attitudes towards the acceptance and frequency of L1 use in ESAP classrooms, this section turns to examining how these beliefs were reflected in classroom practice. While the previous analysis drew on data gathered from the questionnaire and follow-up interviews, aimed at understanding the teachers' views, this section analyses and discusses the classroom observations and the stimulated recall interviews to understand how, when and why teachers used the L1. It therefore responds primarily to RQ1, focusing on investigating teachers' actual uses of the

L1 and the reasons expressed for their practices in ESAP classrooms. In addition, it also contributes to RQ2 and RQ3 by drawing attention to the teachers' attitudes relevant to the observed purposes, factors and situations underpinning their use of the L1. This involves integrating data obtained from different phases to enable a more layered understanding of the relationship between teachers' reported beliefs and their actual classroom practices.

The observations revealed that the teachers and students used Arabic for a variety of purposes: pedagogical, interpersonal communication, religious aspects, instruction and feedback. These purposes were not reflected in each class; that is, some purposes were found in one class while others were observed in other classes. The participants tended to use Arabic for certain functions more than others and some participants leaned towards using Arabic for only one or two functions. All utterances were coded regardless of whether they consisted of a word or several sentences or represented one or more functions.

4.4.1 Pedagogical-related purposes

This sub-section focuses on exploring how and why teachers used Arabic for different pedagogical purposes in their ESAP classrooms. The observations revealed that the teachers typically used the L1 for explaining general, academic and technical vocabulary, grammar and metalinguistic terminology, revising points and tackling pronunciation. The findings demonstrate that teachers' L1 use was both situational and deliberate, influenced by various factors, including students' needs and the teachers' own previous learning experiences.

The presentation is structured around the main themes, sub-themes, and codes that emerged from the data. This allowed for a detailed examination of how teachers employed Arabic for a range of pedagogical functions. To guide the analysis of the data and address the diverse pedagogical purposes for which the L1 was used, Table 4.1 presents the main themes, sub-themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. While this table outlines the pedagogical purposes of L1 use, the underlying reasons (e.g. low level of proficiency and motivation) for these various uses tend to recur across and hence are embedded throughout the discussion. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 4.1. Themes and codes related to pedagogical purposes.

Themes	Codes
Pedagogical-related purposes	Vocabulary
	Technical terms
	Academic terms
	General terms
	Metalinguistic terms
	Grammar
	Pronunciation
	Revisiting

Among the pedagogical functions observed, explaining different types of vocabulary was the more frequent and consistent use of the L1. Teachers were observed using the L1 strategically to explain technical terms, as well as academic and general vocabulary found in the reading passages, and grammar and the exercises. Notably, technical vocabulary elicited greater Arabic use than other uses, suggesting that perceived difficulty and lack of familiarity led the teachers to employ various translanguaging strategies.

Explaining technical terms

Explaining specialised vocabulary was one of the most prominent pedagogical uses of Arabic observed across the ESAP classrooms. In all the classes observed, the teachers very frequently used the L1 to explain specialised vocabulary. This particular purpose consistently emerged as a core use of L1 to support students' comprehension of complex and unfamiliar vocabulary, especially when the students appeared confused or offered minimal responses. Similarly, Tuyen and Van's (2019) found that the L1 was commonly used to explain terms related to the students' future majors in medicine or engineering.

An example of this can be seen in the following extract, in which the teacher played an audio recording for the listening exercise that talked about the medical terms “diagnose” and “prognose”.

Extract 4.1

T1: So, we talk before about diagnose and prognose. Do you remember what is the difference? Anyone? (.) It has certain of:: slight difference between each one. So, what do you think? S1: diagnose elle howa altashkhees. [is it the examination] T1: ok good how about prognose S2: Dharbat hadh [a stroke of luck]. T1: yes. According to what? According to the current case, right? Yaani endak mareedh lama tashakhesoh howa hatha altashkhees. Alprognose maanatuh enta betetwagaa alabaad lehatha altashkhees [it means that when you examine a patient, this is called diagnose, whereas prognose means predicting the course of the disease].	After listening to an audio about <i>heart failure</i> where the speaker talked about diagnose and prognose, the teacher (T1) wanted to revisit the meaning of medical terminologies by asking the students about them. The students were struggling to remember the distinction between “diagnose” and “prognose”.
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The example shows that the teacher used Arabic to explain specialised vocabulary related to the field of medicine. The teacher seemed to use Arabic to explain “prognose” rather than “diagnose” because S1 provided a direct translation of the latter, but could not provide the meaning of the former, although one of the students (S2) provided a close translation to its meaning in the medical field. This might be due to using an unspecialised dictionary or learning this word from another context. Here, the teacher used an example, explaining the meaning of “prognose” at some length rather than just providing an equivalent, a use that falls under the term translation (Alsuwayhiri, 2024). The stimulated recall interview helped understand the teacher’s motives for this use of the L1. He stated that “I would use word for word translation if I felt it will help them”. Thus, one of the key reasons for the teacher’s use of the L1 to clarify technical terms was his evaluation of several factors, such as the difficulty of the word, the students’ level and whether there was an equivalent in the L1.

This resonates with Balabakgil and Mede (2019), who found that EFL teachers would provide an equivalent term if they thought it helpful. The teachers summarised the meaning in one word, *alabaad*, but he had to put it in context for the students to understand. Perhaps the reason for the difficulty with prognose rather than diagnose was that the former has no equivalent in Arabic. As in other studies in EAP contexts (e.g. Al-Nofaie, 2010), this study found that the L1 was generally used to explain new vocabulary, especially when the students

failed to understand or provide the incorrect meaning of a word (Tuyen & Van, 2019). Hence, this study extends the findings to the ESAP context, where the L1 can be a useful resource for aiding comprehension.

In addition to these reasons, it was noted that the teachers frequently used the L1 in particular situations, especially when the students' showed minimal responses. This was a recurring situation influencing teachers' use of the L1, specifically students showing a lack of response to their teachers' questions. The teachers tended to use the L1 when they thought that the students did not understand or could not follow them. This reflects the findings of other studies (see Lu & Fehring, 2015; Tuyen & Van, 2019). When a student cannot understand, the teacher may evaluate the situation and consider responding in Arabic, even when the student's proficiency level is high. In this study, this could be attributed to the fact that the teacher was revisiting a point that he had already explained and wished to use the time to focus on the new lesson. Using the L1 due to the students' lack of response was also frequently observed in other classes and was the reason for different uses of the L1, as will be discussed in later sections.

This occurred not only during the teaching of new vocabulary, but also when revisiting previously taught terms to ensure comprehension and consolidate retention. In terms of the use of the L1 not only when teaching new terms but also when revisiting their meanings, it was not clear if Arabic had been used to explain them in the previous class. This practice is in line with Bukhari (2017), who suggested that teachers should use the L1 not only to explain new vocabulary but also to teach difficult terms. It is likely that the need to use the L1 to explain vocabulary increases in ESAP contexts, in which difficult terms are frequently encountered. This difficulty could be due to the different meanings of the same word in specific contexts, which might create uncertainty about the exact meaning of the word being explained. This is particularly an issue with low-frequency words, which may require revisiting the meaning (see 2.3.3). Perhaps students' inability to remember the meaning of the words could be attributed to the fact that they seldom encounter them. It seems that the teachers might have translated the word to consolidate its meaning, believing that this would aid retention of the new vocabulary.

This was further emphasised during the stimulated recall interview, when T7 noted, “I think when you are giving them Arabic equivalents, they remember the word, especially in ESAP”. Thus, similar to Carter (1987) and Kern (1994), T7 believed that using the L1 to provide equivalents increased students’ recall of words, especially concerning specialised terminology. In addition, he added that his use of Arabic was influenced by other situational factors, such as students’ lack of understanding, reflected in their facial expressions, and therefore he used the L1 to prevent misunderstanding. These various situations were also noted in various EFL and EAP previous studies (e.g., Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alshammari, 2011). T7 used English and translated words only when the students seemed not to understand and to clear up any misunderstandings (Harbord, 1992). Moreover, he may have used the L1 because students became frustrated when they did not understand the exact equivalence of the word (Macaro, 2005). While facial expressions might affect teachers’ use of the L1, it seems that students’ failure to respond or giving inaccurate responses, for example due to lack of understanding, boredom or demotivation, were the main reasons for using the L1.

T3 provided another reason for his uses of the L1, namely responding to students who used Arabic. He noted that students’ responses in Arabic to questions like “What is the meaning of?” motivated him to use the L1. This appears to be consistent with T1’s use of Arabic to explain *prognose* in Extract 4.1, when he started in English, but then used Arabic following a single response in Arabic from a student. While T1 shared the same belief that translating technical terms in Arabic through providing equivalent terms could aid recall, he also made an important point, noting that some terms have more than one meaning and therefore he seemed to agree with other teachers who would use the students’ L1 to highlight the precise meaning of the technical term (as also noted by Tuyen & Van, 2019).

The questionnaire helped compare teachers’ attitudes and their observed practices. Their attitudes were in line with their actual classroom practices concerning the use of the L1 to provide equivalence (see Figure 4.3) as several teachers ($N = 4$, 26.7%) strongly agreed and ($N = 7$, 46.7%) agreed with using it when teaching an item with an equivalent in Arabic, whereas none of them strongly disagreed with the statement. This indicates that the teachers valued using the L1 for this purpose, which also matched their actual use of the L1.

Use of Arabic when teaching an item which has an equivalent in Arabic

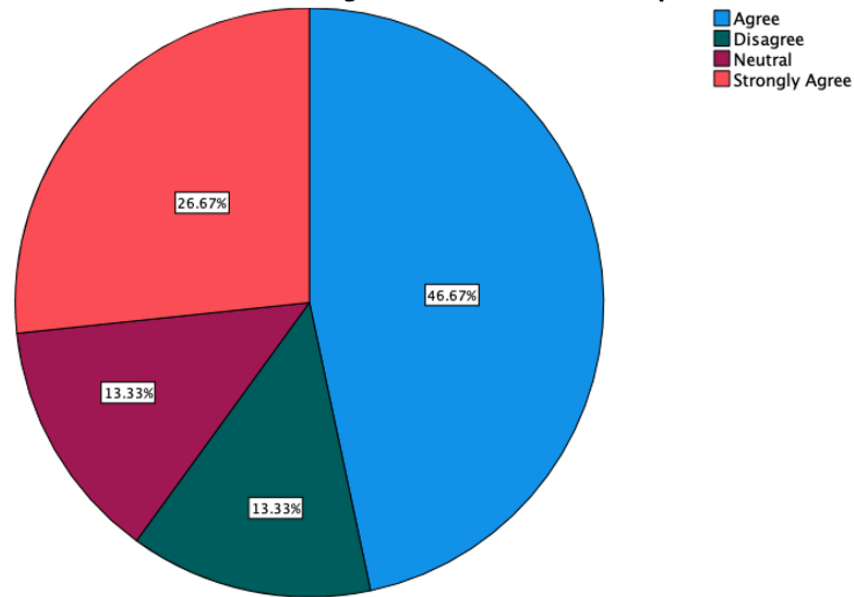


Figure 4.3. Teachers' responses to the use of L1 when teaching an item with an equivalent in Arabic.

When asked in the follow-up interviews about the reason for their preferences, one teacher favoured its use when the word would be difficult for the students to understand. T13 and T12 did not favour using Arabic in such a situation. T12 preferred to use pictures and examples and T13 stated:

“I often explain the definition in English but sometimes, I use literal translation. However, there are some medical terminologies which do not have equivalents in Arabic, so I explain them in English and then in Arabic.”

He made an important point, stating that “sometimes, it is difficult for the students to understand in English because they do not have a prior knowledge of the word in their minds, so you have to explain the definition in Arabic”. Likewise, Tang (2002) found that EFL teachers would give the translation of a word when they thought it would help students understand its meaning.

However, T13 expressed the view that when students do not know the meaning of the word in Arabic, they might not understand the English explanation either, which I consider to be a significant point. Consequently, he tended to use Arabic to help them become familiar with the word in their own language. The same point was repeated by other teachers. For example,

one teacher mentioned that he had to explain the word “liquidation” in Arabic in order for the students to understand it in English, a point also made by Polio and Duff (1994), Cook (2001) and Hall and Cook (2013), namely that teachers use the L1 when the English definition is not clear. Although it might not be difficult to explain it in English, he noted that the students were not familiar with such terms in their own language. This confirms the argument made by Cocking (2000, cited in Hall & Cook, 2012) that students’ prior knowledge is important for learning the target language. Brooks-Lewis (2009) also concluded that the use of the L1 helps students benefit from their prior knowledge to understand the target language. Hence, the teacher used translanguaging to share, build and shape learners’ knowledge (García, 2009).

Explaining general vocabulary

Although less common than explaining technical terms, explaining general vocabulary revealed significant insights into teachers’ uses of the L1 when responding to students’ language needs, influenced by recurring reasons such as students’ low response rates or incorrect responses. A case in point was T7, who was not a native speaker of Arabic, as shown in the following extract:

Extract 4.2

T7: What is the meaning of this line shabab? [guys?]. The doner says, I am not opposed to organ transplant. What does it mean?	While a student was reading a text to introduce the idea of organ donation, he mispronounced the word “opposite”. The teacher did not interrupt him, but when the student finished reading, he started explaining the text and then asked about the meaning of opposite.
S1: Ana la oaraedh nagel aladhaa, I don’t disagree [I don’t oppose organ transplant].	
T7: Ma maana opposite ?	
Ss: inaudible	Students were hesitant
T7: Oppose maanaha ekhtelaf katheer [it means a big difference]. So, you match the word in your mind, it has the same meaning if you don’t know this. This is the first time we see this word.	

This extract shows that the teachers were motivated by different reasons to switch codes or translate a word. One of those recurring reasons was that the students’ errors triggered the use of L1 by the teachers. In this case, a student was reading a text to introduce the idea of organ donation but mispronounced the word *opposite*; according to the teacher, it was first

time they had seen the word. Although the student's error in mispronouncing the word differs from the provision of an inaccurate meaning in Extract 4.1, it seems that the teachers would use the L1 to deal with students' errors, irrespective of the type, as noted by Alsuhaibani (2015). Moreover, there seemed to be another reason motivating T7 to use Arabic, namely that only one student provided the meaning of the word *oppose*. Hence, he attempted to explain the meaning by first asking about the meaning of a rather similar word, *opposite*, probably aiming to elicit more responses and check for relatively similar words. T7 was a non-native speaker of Arabic and English but seemed to be aware of the interconnection between the words in the L1 and L2 and therefore encouraged its use, a point made by Cook (2001) and discussed in the literature. This reflects the practice of translanguaging, although the teacher might not recognise it as such. Such uses demonstrate the use of the L1 explained by the teachers as influenced not by their attitudes but rather by their judgement and awareness of the situation, a recurrent explanation across the analyses.

However, similar to the previous example (Extract 4.1), due to the low response from the students, who the field notes showed seemed hesitant about providing an incorrect answer, he immediately used Arabic to explain the meaning. This is perhaps because many students at this level would be expected to know it, but as only one student responded, he wanted to ensure that everyone understood. Teachers have been found to use the L1 when students cannot grasp the meaning (AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014), especially when it is difficult to explain even relatively easy words because they cannot simplify it further (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009), or they do not wish to go into a lengthy explanation (Pablo et al., 2011). This further highlights that own language use for explaining general vocabulary is not limited to EFL or EAP contexts but also applies to ESAP classrooms. This could be due to the presence of students at various levels and thus teachers employ the L1 strategically to aid understanding.

The stimulated recall interview revealed the reason for the teacher's use of the L1 in this instance. T7 stated, "this is the translation of some words when we would translate to convey the meaning". Thus, he simply used it as a tool to deliver the meaning when the students failed to provide it which is similar to the reasons found in other studies (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013). Explaining his reason, he said that:

“...translation of vocabulary is very helpful. If you feel you are a teacher, then you give some translation not from the person who speaks that language, but translation from the one who is learning that language. Here, they say, Oh, this teacher knows it [Arabic] so it gives them a hint, Okay, this person is seriously involved in this [learning a language, particularly theirs].”

In addition to using the learners’ own language to convey meaning, he noted that he would provide the Arabic equivalents to act as a role model and motivate the students to learn the L2. It should be highlighted using the L1 in this way is very rare and only one teacher in Baeshin’s (2016) work was found to do so. However, I should note that in this study, those who were not native speakers of either the L1 or the L2 seemed to value its use beyond its pedagogical function, as will be seen and discussed in later sections.

The example in the above extract was during a reading session. Looking at the questionnaire, the teachers’ responses to using the L1 to explain the meanings of reading passages were predominantly “sometimes” and “rarely” (both $N = 6$, 40%; see Figure 4.14). These views are in line with Alrabah et al. (2016) and Rushwan (2017), who found that around 50% of teachers would use the L1 for this function. Perhaps the teachers’ views were divided because using the L1 for this function depends on various factors, such as students’ abilities to grasp the meaning of the words, as shown earlier. That is, they would maximise the use of English but employ Arabic when needed, especially because the reading texts included ESAP terms. However, during the observation, teachers very frequently used Arabic to translate vocabulary to ensure that everyone could understand.

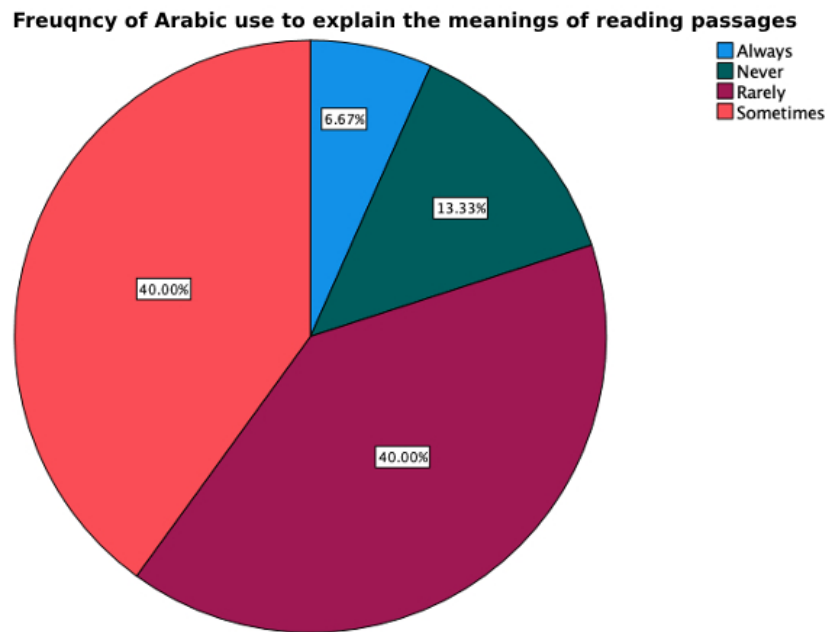


Figure 4.4. Use of the L1 to explain reading passages.

Explaining academic vocabulary

As another function, the teachers were observed using the L1 to explain academic vocabulary as shown in the extract below. While this was motivated by several reasons, as discussed earlier (e.g. to aid comprehension and provide an accurate meaning), it was also strategically employed to save time.

Extract 4.3

T4: No. 3, what was Merga's route? (.) You need to understand this to understand any question. It is very much of importance, right? If you don't understand the question, how could you answer? So, what was Merga's route? *** S1: She was a general nurse for 15 years, but now she applied for a specialist. T4: She used to be a general nurse, and then she became a renal nurse. The word route here, what do we mean by route? S2: Maserah [Marching] T4: Mo masera, masar. Zay entom eash endakom masar? [not marching, route. Similar to yours. What is your domain?]	While doing an exercise related to a text about a nurse, the teacher reads the questions and then the students answer.
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As can be seen, T4 asked the students about the nurse's route, but when he did not receive a response, he named a student who was raising his hand to answer the question. The teacher then wanted to make sure that they understood the meaning of the word by predicting the meaning after their classmate provided the answer. This is another example of the use of Arabic to translate vocabulary which is not a technical term. The context seems similar to Extract 4.2, in which the word appeared in the textbook, and also Extract 4.1, in which there was a low response and only one student provided a relatively close translation. S2 said *masera* [marching], which is close to the word *masar* [route] in terms of pronunciation and meaning. The similarity in pronunciation is clear, represented in one letter in Arabic, and the meaning is also close, as *masera* could be perceived as the path which someone takes. However, the teacher wished to highlight the accurate meaning by providing the most accurate literal translation of the word *route* [masar]. He also personalised the word, which might further consolidate the meaning.

T4 had specific reasons for using the L1 in this particular situation. First, he noted that he had to correct the student and also stated that explaining the meaning here was down to his own learning experience. During the stimulated recall interview, the teacher also stated the reason as being to give the students the chance to guess the meaning and then check their comprehension, saying that he wanted "...the students to remember this word whenever they go in the future just like I still have been remembering it for 20 years since we had it [in Arabic] with our teacher and therefore, I focused on it to consolidate the meaning, so it becomes clearer and understood". This indicates that both teaching and learning experiences related to the use of L1 could affect and/or transfer to other teachers, as also found by Franklin (1990). T4 seemed to have been influenced by his past learning experience and own teachers' use of the L1 which shaped his theory of language learning and teaching including the use of the L1. As a result, he applied this knowledge in his classroom by explaining the term to his students in Arabic as he felt that its use would emphasise and consolidate the meaning.

Another reason is that he specifically used Arabic to translate the word as a "reconfirmation to reassure that this is the meaning of the word. Of course, you can understand some of the words based on the context and the neighbouring words, but you won't get the solid meaning". It seems that he wanted to give the students the chance to work out the meaning

themselves and then used the L1. However, it seems that the L1 not only helps pin down the specific meaning of technical terms but also aids with academic vocabulary more broadly. Similarly, many studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Macaro, 2001; Samar & Moradkhani, 2014) concluded that learners' own language can be used to ensure that everyone knows the specific meaning of words being explained.

Other teachers were also observed using the L1 to explain academic vocabulary, as in T4's class. It was in a similar context, but T7's motive for using the L1 to explain the academic word *self-administered* was distinct. He stated that he liked using Arabic to "explain certain things and rather than wasting time in explaining them that the meaning is not, you know, important for them". He continued, stating that "we were more concerned with the terminology which they have". This rationale shows that teachers frequently employ their own judgment when using the L1.

It is interesting that while T4 felt it important to use the L1 to highlight and provide an accurate translation of academic vocabulary, T7 perceived explaining such vocabulary to be less important and therefore used Arabic to deal with it quickly, a point discussed below. Similarly, Tuyen and Van (2019) found that 80% of teachers' use of the L1 in the ESAP context was to explain ESAP vocabulary. T7 confirmed the point made by Takac (2008, as cited in Tuyen & Van, 2019), who noted that teachers' explanation of vocabulary depended on various factors, including time constraints and students' preferences. However, T4 used Arabic to highlight and focus on academic words because he viewed them as important due to his learning experience. In short, the teachers felt that Arabic helped them explain the meanings of words, as found by Hall and Cook (2013), Polio and Duff (1994) and Cook (2001), especially with challenging terms (e.g. Tang, 2002). Nation (2022) noted that vocabulary teaching requires teachers to make judgments about which words to focus on, including using the L1 to ensure understanding, highlight the precise meaning of terms and save time. Thus, it could be said that teachers use of the L1 is not arbitrary but rather based on their assessment, which also includes the students' objectives.

After considering use of the L1 to explain different types of vocabulary, I now turn to looking at teachers' attitudes. The questionnaire helped explore the teachers' views concerning the use of the L1 to explain specialised vocabulary and other types of vocabulary. As shown in

Figure 4.4, the data revealed that most teachers expressed a preference for using the L1 to explain abstract or specialised vocabulary, ranging between “often” ($N = 6$, 40%) and “sometimes” ($N = 9$, 60%). They predominantly opted for “often” ($N = 3$, 20%) “sometimes” ($N = 6$, 40%) and “rarely” ($N = 4$, 26.67%) to explain other types of vocabulary as shown in Figure 4.5.

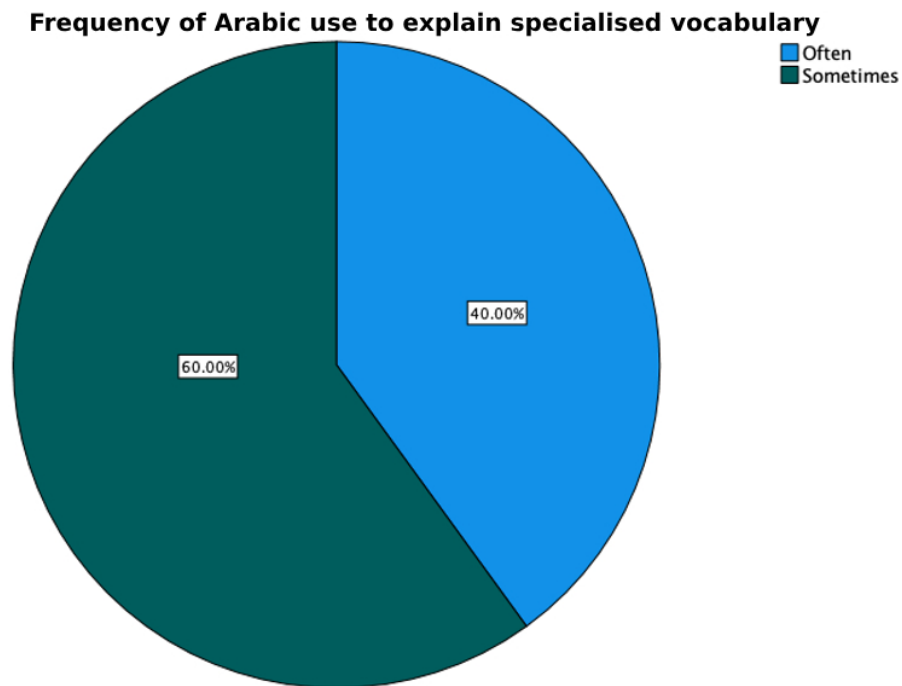


Figure 4.5. Use of the L1 to explain abstract or specialised vocabulary.

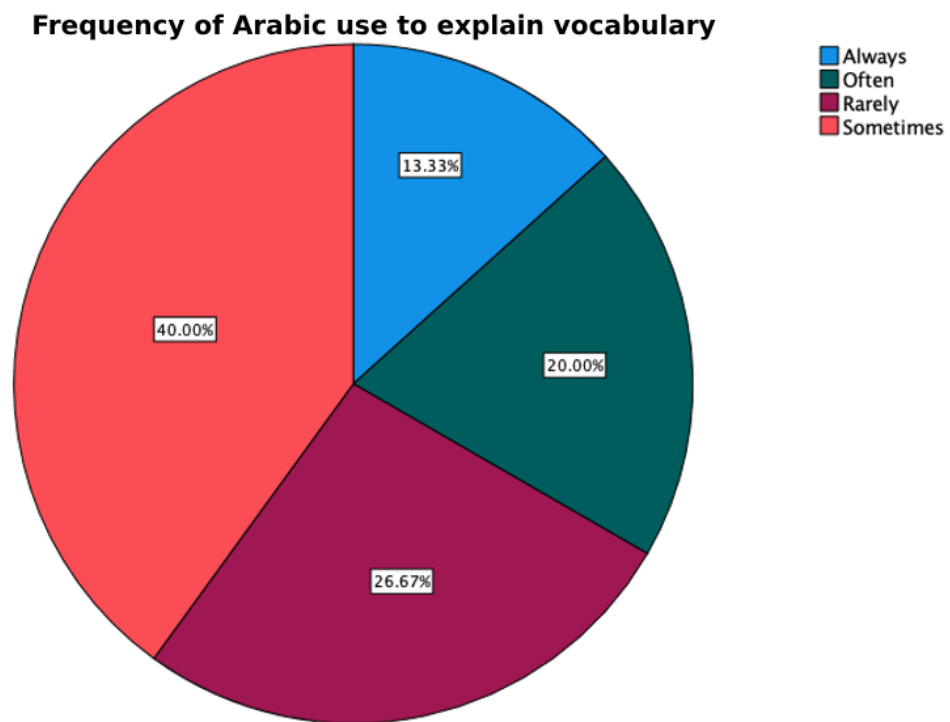


Figure 4.6. Use of the L1 to explain vocabulary.

This indicates that in ESAP classes, as anticipated, there was a preference for using the L1 more to address technical terms than other types of vocabulary, which also appears to match teachers' use of the L1 in class. This was seen in the observed classes, as the teachers were particularly concerned with the ESAP terms. Most teachers (75%) in Rushwan's (2017) study viewed the L1 as a good pedagogical tool for teaching ESAP vocabulary. In addition, the same study found that around 70% of teachers believed its use met ESAP students' needs and avoided the limitations of electronic dictionaries. Tuyen and Van (2019) reported that 3/4 of the teachers in their study agreed with employing the L1 to explain the meaning of abstract and difficult words in ESAP classes. Similarly, Vyshnevskaya et al. (2021) found that teachers expressed the need to use the L1 when explaining professional vocabulary and abstract words. These findings collectively support the importance of the L1 for explaining technical terms as the complexity of specialised vocabulary poses a challenge for comprehension. Students' lack of adequate proficiency further complicates the situation and necessitates the use of the L1. The findings concerning teachers' attitudes and actual uses of the L1 thus validate its pedagogical role in facilitating subject-specific understanding, as well as language development.

To gain a deeper understanding, the follow-up interviews offered valuable insights into teachers' reasons for their preferences. T11 was among those who was in favour of using the L1 to explain abstract or specialised vocabulary, stating that:

“I sometimes have to use it when explaining difficult terminologies which their definitions do not help to understand, especially when students do not have prior knowledge about them.”

T13 was of the same opinion, noting that “it is difficult to explain a word when a student does not have a perception about the word in his own language and therefore, when it is explained in English [first], it becomes more difficult”. He then added that “I might explain the literal meaning, but I explain the definitions in English”. That is, for example, some students might not know the term for a piece of medical equipment in Arabic. In this case, he might provide the literal translation for them. These comments suggest that multiple factors influence teachers' attitudes towards the use of the L1 for explaining technical terms. Interestingly, the teachers' reported reasons here match those they said influenced their actual use of the L1, perhaps reinforcing the view that L1 use is particularly justified in ESAP contexts.

On the other hand, other teachers talked about using the L1 to explain vocabulary more broadly, including both general and academic vocabulary. This may indicate that teachers' attitude towards L1 use is not limited to viewing it as useful to address technical terms but that it can also be employed when students encounter unfamiliar or difficult vocabulary across the lessons. To understand why teachers would do so, T12, as noted earlier, reported that he would use Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary when the students did not comprehend a point, reasoning that “most exam questions are about the vocabulary”. T2 did not explain what type of vocabulary he used the L1 to explain but preferred to use it only when the students faced difficulty with a word or when he thought it would help them in the exam, a point that will be discussed below. Difficult words were not necessarily technical terms as it was noted in the observed classes that there were also general and academic terms which students had difficulty with. Taken together with the examples above, it could be noted that one of the main reasons for using the L1 is when teaching unfamiliar or complex content. I consider that these specific types of vocabulary are difficult for teachers to explain since they are not specialists in areas such as law and economics.

This aspect was also explored through the questionnaire, which provided insights into how teachers viewed use of the L1 when teaching unfamiliar content. Figure 4.7 shows that 6 teachers (40%) chose “agree” and “neutral” and none disagreed. This indicates that they viewed such use as important and that they also used the L1 for this reasons.

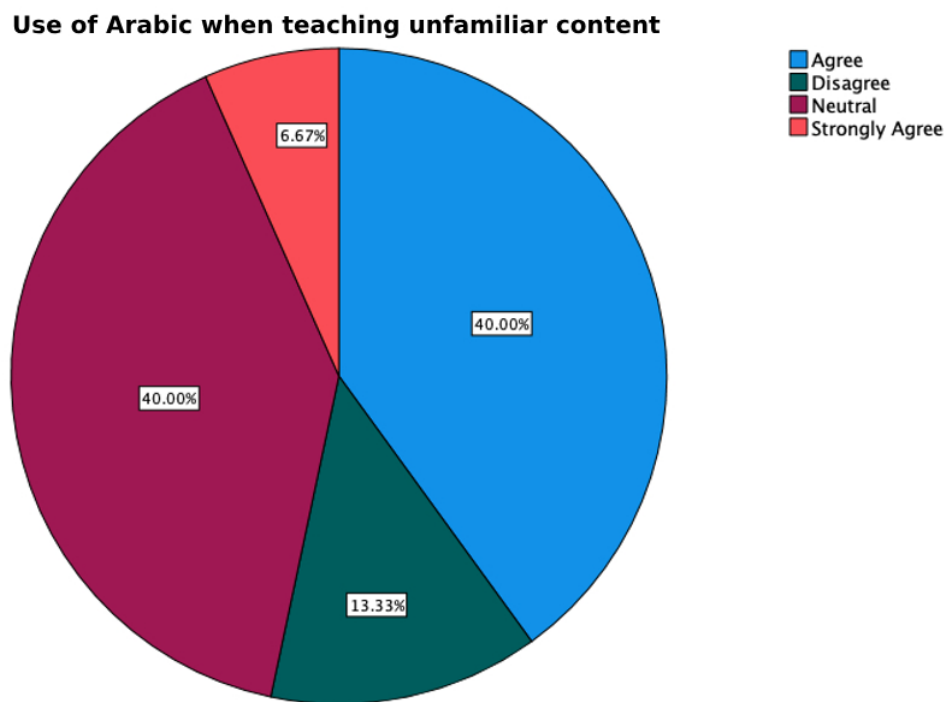


Figure 4.7. Use of the L1 to teach unfamiliar content.

Similarly, using the L1 a quick way of addressing problems or saving time, mentioned by several teachers during the stimulated recall interviews, was also reflected in the questionnaire data. Figure 4.8 shows that 5 teachers (33.3%) chose “sometimes” and 3 (20%) selected “often” and “rarely”. This indicates that they viewed it as an important factor, which also matched their actual use. Fairly similar results were reported by Alsuhaibani (2015), who found that teachers favoured using the L1 to save time “often” (27.8%), “sometimes” (27.8%) and “rarely” (33.3%).

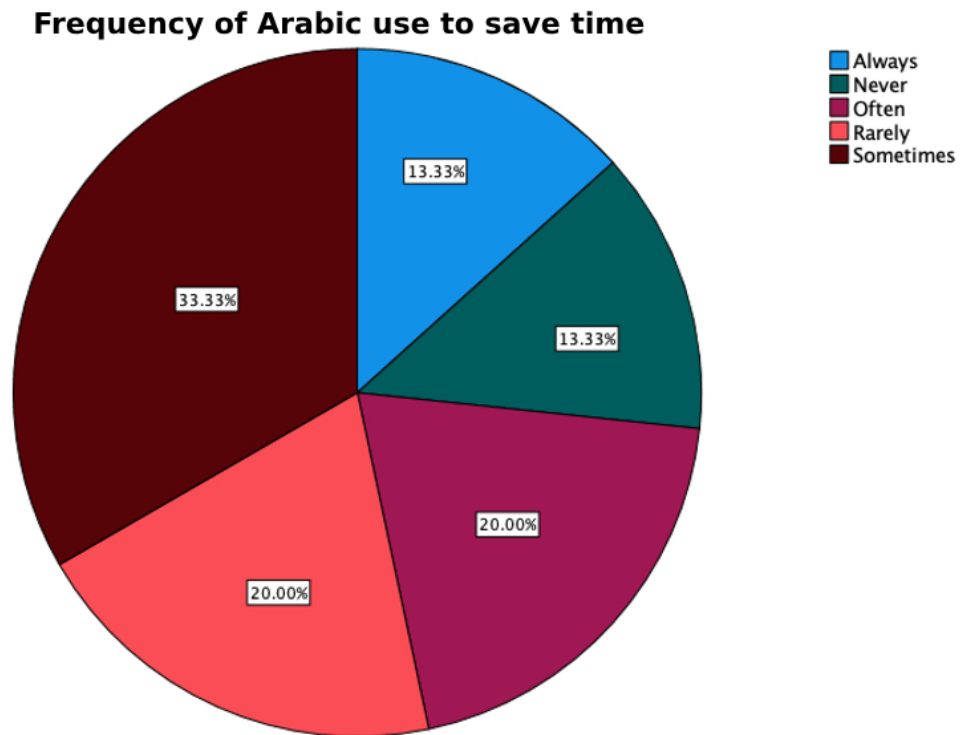


Figure 4.8. Use of the L1 to save time.

T13 stated that:

“...there are pressures on the English language teacher because he has to think about time, pacing and the content he has to cover. Sometimes, explaining in English takes time to deliver a point while there is a pressure on you to cover the curriculum in due time. So, the teachers find this [situation] as an opportunity to save time through explaining a point in Arabic and accelerate the teaching process.”

T12 shared the same view, stating that he favoured Arabic “with some terminologies when students’ comprehension is low in order to save time and effort for both teachers and students”. However, he stressed that he used Arabic to save time only “when students fail to understand”. Here, the teachers’ goal, as proposed by Tang (2002), seemed to be to avoid spending a lot of time on examples to explain a word when a single word in the L1 would accomplish what was needed, leaving more time for the students to practise the target language. Thus, these comments together highlight that teachers’ decisions concerning language choice were not arbitrary but rather shaped by pragmatic considerations, such as time constraints and students’ comprehension, further reinforcing the context-sensitive nature of L1 integration in ESAP classrooms.

Building on the pragmatism in teachers' decision-making, another reason mentioned (see above) was the potential for L1 use to ensure the comprehension of items that would appear in the examination, although, as the data suggest, this rationale appeared to hold less influence over classroom practice. For example, T12 talked about using the L1 to help students understand vocabulary and grammar as they form most of the questions in the examination. In response to the questionnaire, most teachers ($N = 7$, 46.7%) and ($N = 6$, 40%) chose "neutral" or "disagree" in terms of using Arabic when an item was likely to appear in the examination (see Figure 4.9). This indicates that the teachers thought they did not use the L1 to address items because they were likely to appear in the examination, nor were they observed to do so.

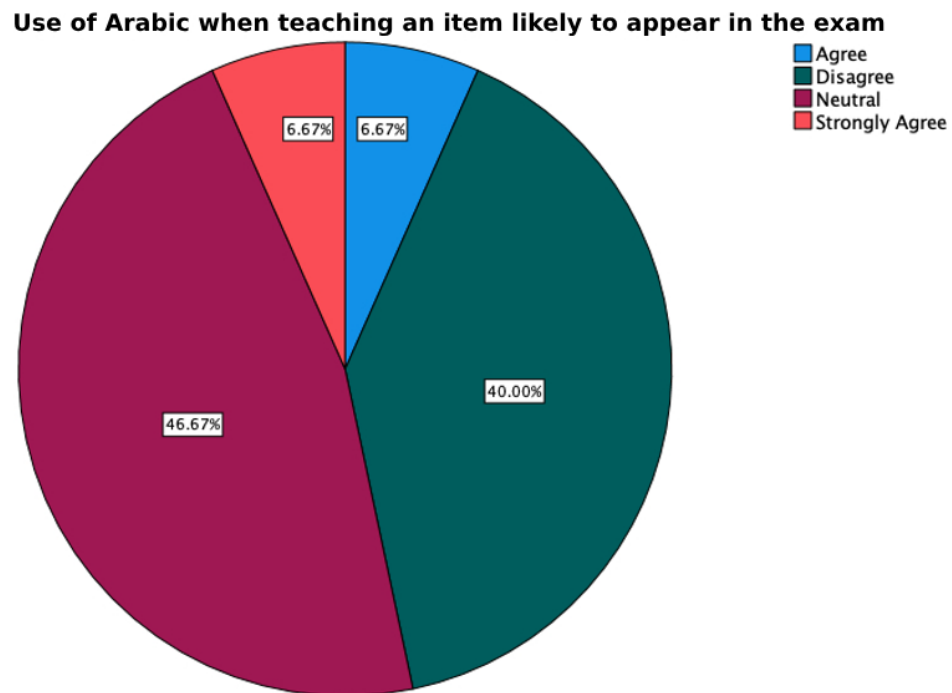


Figure 4.9. Use of the L1 when an item is likely to be in an examination.

T11 reasoned that this was "because the exam will be in English", while T13 stated that "I would treat it as any other point". The findings here are in contrast to other studies (e.g. Duff & Polio 1990; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Liu et al., 2004), which showed that teachers tend to focus on items which are likely to appear in the examinations. It is worth noting that such use was not noted in the observed classes, but I consider there could be times when teachers might explain specific vocabulary or grammatical items because they know they could

appear in the examination. In general, although the L1 seemed to have little place in examination preparation, its role in enhancing learners' comprehension was evident across all observed classes. One purpose for using the L1 was to explain metalinguistic concepts, particularly grammatical terminology, discussed next.

Explaining metalanguage

Turning to another observed use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms, it was found that the teachers used the L1 to explain metalinguistic terminology, often accompanied by student-initiated questions, particularly in Arabic. This involved using the learners' L1 to introduce grammatical rules and allow comparison of grammatical aspects between the two languages, L1 and L2, as found in other studies (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Bukhari, 2017). The students' proficiency levels have been discussed previously, for example in relation to explaining general vocabulary, but this part addresses them more explicitly since it discusses the clearest examples of how low-level learners affected teachers' use of the L1. Here, the teachers used the L1 not only to clarify metalinguistic vocabulary but also to clear up any confusion, enhance students' comprehension and reduce anxiety, making this part the most appropriate to discuss their impact. In particular, T9 used Arabic prior to introducing verb tenses in the passive voice, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 4.4

S1: ya doctor thaheen etha hateet have yaseer hather? [Doctor, when I use have, it becomes present?] T2: yaseer passive leanoh has have present. Alpast had. [it becomes passive because has and have are present. The past is had]. S1: Tayeb alwas wa alwere? [what about was and were?] T2: Hatha [these are] verb to be. Hatha [these are] verb to be. S1: yaani ma yaseer mathi? [can they change into past?] Ss: howa mathi [they are in the past] T2: kelmat altam yaani has wa have wo bas [the word perfect means using "has" and "have". That's it].	After the teacher had finished explaining the passive, a student asked a question related to the grammar point. The teacher then started explaining the different terms related to the types of passive such as present perfect passive.
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This conversation started with a student's initiation of a question directed to his teacher, who used the L1 to provide clarification. While these findings are in line with Ma (2019), who

found that this function was not frequently observed, use of the L1 to ask questions was more frequent between peers than between students and teachers. However, it seems that the teacher's use of the L1 in this situation matched the views expressed in the questionnaire as 7 teachers (46.7%) agreed and 2 (13.3%) strongly agreed with using Arabic when students asked for clarification (see Figure 4.10).

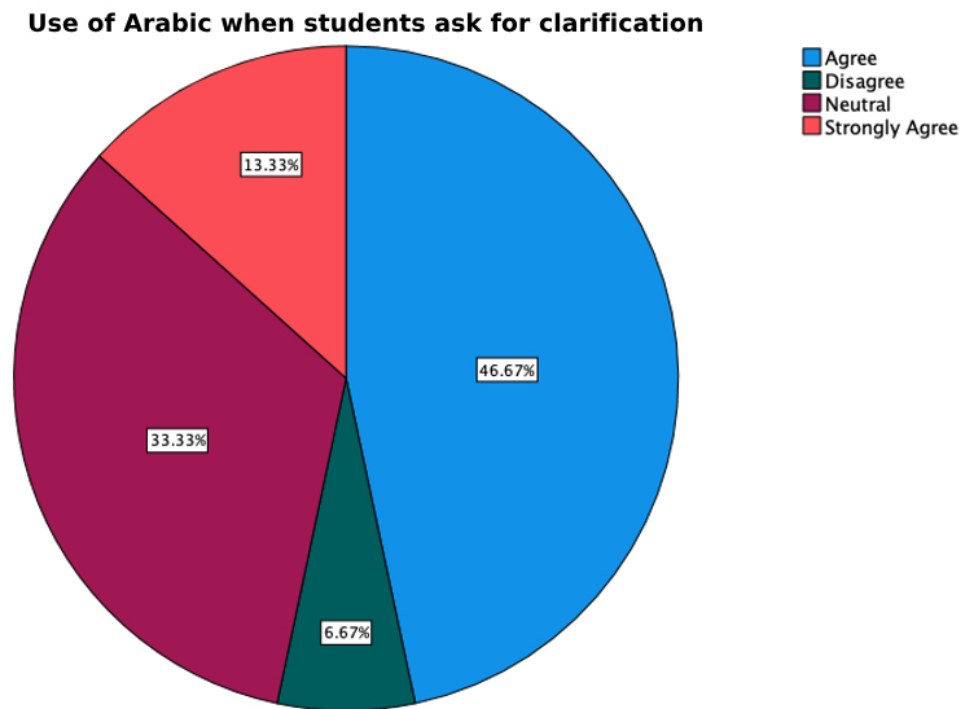


Figure 4.10. Use of the L1 when students ask for clarification.

When asked about the reasons for their use of the L1 in such situations, the teachers gave different responses. While T12 favoured giving explanations in English, T13 stated that “it depends on whether he is a low-level student”. T11 stated, “I start with English but use Arabic when they do not understand”. It should be noted that when students asked for translation, as shown in Figure 4.11, 6 teachers (40%) were neutral while 4 (26.7%) strongly agreed and agreed, indicating a higher preference for using the L1 when students ask for translation than when asking for clarification. This might be attributed to the context, in which the focus is on ESAP vocabulary.

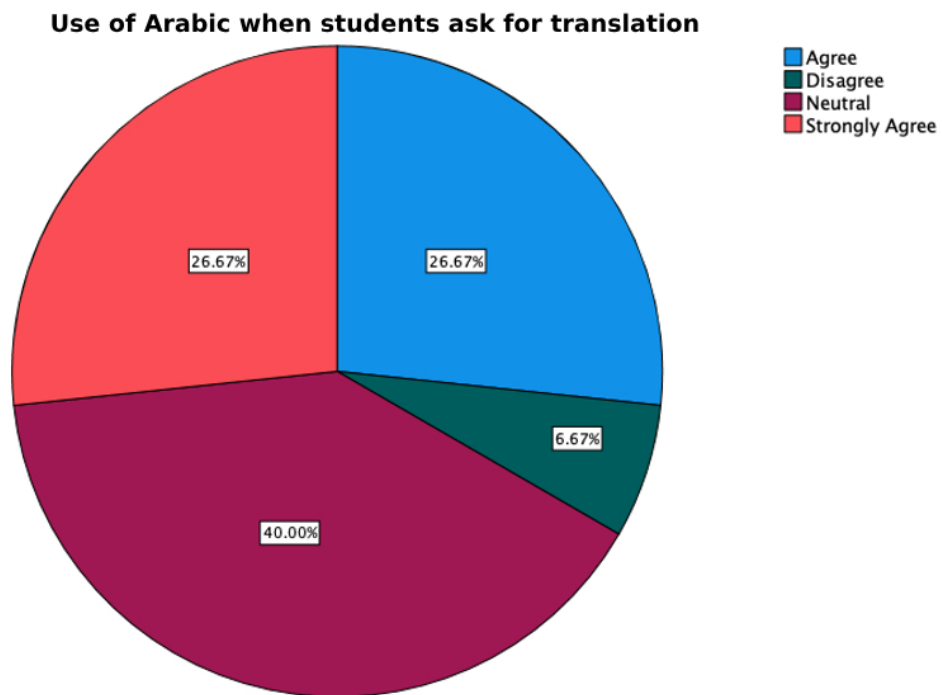


Figure 4.11. Use of the L1 when students ask for translation.

As the conversation in Extract 4.4 started with the student's initiation of the L1, this example will be discussed in two parts: the student's use of Arabic and the teacher's use. S1 initiated the utterance by switching to the L1 to request clarification concerning whether the sentence would become present when he uses *have*. The reasons for students not using English when speaking with their teachers seemed to differ from one student to another. However, in this example, S1 was observed switching to Arabic to ask his teacher to clarify a grammatical point due to his weak knowledge of the L2. He stated that, "my English is not good enough for me to be able to ask the teacher in English. I don't have that knowledge". The same function of L1 use was found in studies such as those of Barton et al. (2005) and Pablo et al. (2011), who also found that students' level of anxiety increased when talking to their teachers in the L2. Likewise, S2 said that he switched to Arabic when talking to the teacher due to nervousness, stating that "I am lacking in English competence, so I end up becoming nervous. I switch to Arabic when I talk with my teacher". Here, the student attributed the use of Arabic when talking to the teacher to an inability to use English in that specific moment.

S3 was observed notifying the teacher that he had skipped an exercise, explaining:

“Honestly, most of us, especially me, I feel nervous when I speak with the teacher. I have a fear of making mistakes in English. The teacher would not punish me, but I just have this fear of making a mistake in front of my classmates and the teacher. In addition, the teacher might start to look at me differently and think ‘this guy is not good at English’ so I switch to Arabic when I talk to him.”

It might seem that students’ lack of proficiency is the main factor for avoiding the use of L2. However, although it was observed that the teachers were friendly with the students and did not object to them using Arabic, the students seemed to feel that there was pressure on them to use English without making a mistake, resulting in nervousness which then led to avoidance of the L2 and the use of Arabic. In addition, it seems that the student did not want to expose his level of English to the teacher as this would affect how the teacher would view him for the rest of the course. Furthermore, unlike the previous example, in which S1 lacked the knowledge to use English and used Arabic to compensate for his language deficiency, S2 switched to Arabic despite knowing how to speak English, which could be due to his limited proficiency level as Sato (2023) argued. In my opinion, this aspect is not limited to these observed classes but can be found in other classes too. In a similar context, Baeshin (2016) found that teachers were aware of students avoiding the use of L2 due to their fear of making mistakes and to save face which might result in students’ reluctance to speak in class. Overall, it can be noted that the L1 provides students with a safe space to express their lack of understanding and their current level of knowledge which can lead to further clarification and consequently promote their comprehension. Thus, it is important to note that banning the use of L1 in such situations might deprive students of an important learning and communicative tool that enables them to promote their comprehension and engage in activities (Hall & Cook, 2012; Lee, 2020; Sato, 2023).

Looking at the example from a different angle, T2 was revisiting the passive to check students’ understanding before introducing various tenses, such as past perfect passive. Here, he used Arabic to explain what was meant by the word *perfect*, as in present/past perfect, because he recognised that other students seemed puzzled, and he had to clarify the meaning first. Several studies have concluded that students’ facial expressions can indicate a lack of understanding and it does not have to be expressed verbally (Al Balushi, 2020; Hall & Cook, 2013). In short, the current findings are in line with other studies that teachers tend to use

the L1 to respond to students' needs, especially when addressing low-level students. That is, teachers tend to differentiate between high- and low-level students (AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019) and therefore choose their language accordingly. These findings are in line with many studies which found that students' proficiency level is an important factor influencing teachers' use of the L1 (Aboyan, 2011; Kharmah & Hajjaj, 1989).

Building on this, the impact of student proficiency, especially the presence of low-level students in class, was even more apparent in influencing teachers' uses of the L1. Low-level students affected teachers' use of the L1 in various situations, such as giving simple instructions, as will be seen in the next section. This seemed to be a key factor driving teachers' use of the L1 for pedagogical purposes, including the teaching of new items or revising previously taught items. While the teachers did not explicitly state that the presence of low-level students was a major factor influencing their L1 use, their constant reference to ensuring that everyone could understand implicitly acknowledged the impact of such students in their classrooms.

In Extract 4.4, S1 seemed to be trying to grasp the point. The teacher's clarification in Arabic was followed by the students' response, chorally answering his question, which might indicate that he was at a lower level than his peers. Hence, the teacher's reason for using the L1 in class in this instance seemed to match the views given in response to the questionnaire, in which the majority chose "strongly agree" ($N = 7$, 46.7%) and "agree" ($N = 6$, 40%) to the value of using Arabic when teaching low-level students (see Figure 4.13).

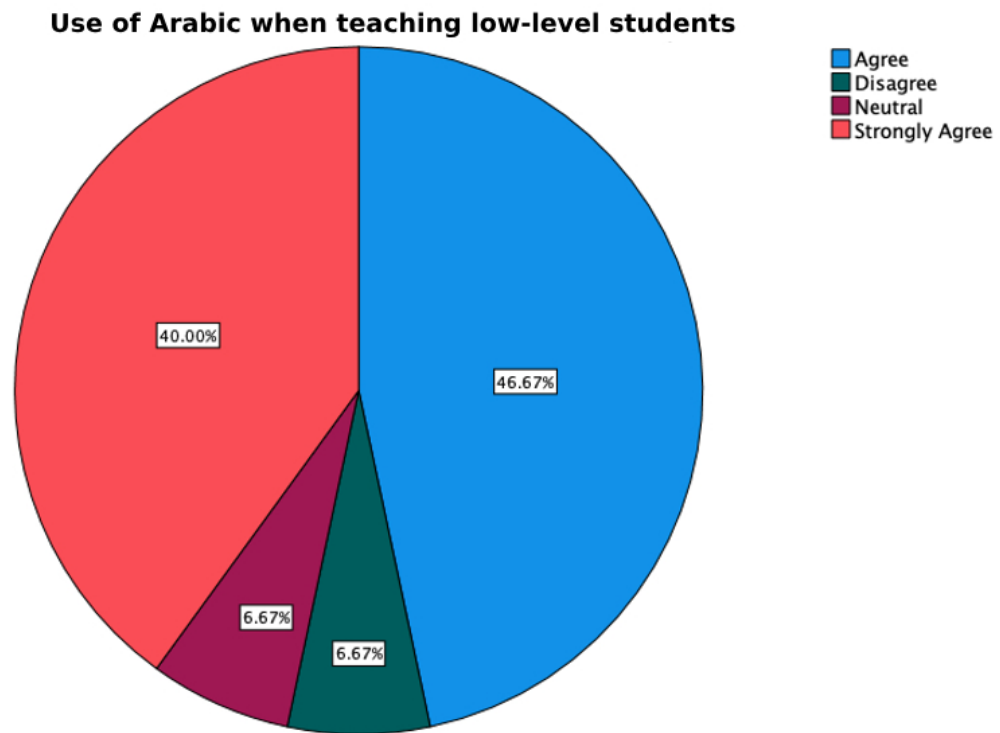


Figure 4.12. Use of the L1 when teaching low-level students.

Similarly, Cheng (2013) found most teachers (94%) believed that the students' level was a major factor driving their L1 use. The teachers' views concerning using the L1 when teaching low-level students differed. T1 favoured using the L1 with low-level students, stating that "the students level determines how you use Arabic, but it is better to decrease it towards the mid of the semester to raise the level of the students and motivate them". T13 expressed a relatively similar opinion, stating that "sometimes, they are at very low level to understand the point I am explaining. So, I use English and Arabic in order for them to understand". Macaro (2001) also found that there are low-level students who would not be able to understand and therefore the level of the students controls the quantity of L1 teachers use. In contrast, T12 preferred to use simple English because, as he put it, "he [the student] will not benefit when you use Arabic".

The above example also relates to Extracts 1 and 2, in which the students' low response indicated a sense of a lack of understanding concerning the point being explained. Consequently, this motivated the teachers to use Arabic to explain different types of vocabulary. In this situation, T2 seemed to use the L1 to explain grammar for the same

reason. He did not receive an accurate response and therefore he had to explain the passive before explaining the tenses, despite having already explained in a previous lesson. After he had finished explaining, there appeared to be confusion between the past and present perfect passive, which do not have equivalents in Arabic. This confusion could be attributed to the distinction between present perfect in the active voice and in the passive. Although the teacher had not fully explained the differences, a few students chorally explained that *was* and *were* are in the past and then the teacher explained the meaning of *perfect*, so that both answers combined provided a complete response to the student's question.

The teacher's comment during the stimulated recall interview seemed to be consistent with this analysis, as he clearly stated that "...there are lots of jargons such as the active and passive voice in grammar which the students might not be able to understand or remember. Hence, Arabic makes it easy to simplify these terms". This is in line with Grim (2010), who found that teachers use the L1 to explain metalinguistic terms, believing that they would be clear and easily understood. This shows that he used Arabic as a facilitative tool to explain difficult aspects related to grammar. This could be helpful for the students discussed earlier, who pointed out that their level of English was low, although they were explaining the reasons for avoiding using English not stating whether they could understand the teachers' instructions or clarification of specific items such as vocabulary. In other studies (e.g. Samar & Moradkhani, 2014), teachers have been found to switch to the L1 when they feel that their students would not be able to understand in the L2. This example, including the teacher's comments, which focused on explaining grammatical terms, contribute to a broader point that teachers also use the L1 to support students' full understanding of grammar points. The following sub-section explores how the L1 was used to explain grammar more directly.

Explaining grammar

Continuing from the previous focus on metalinguistic vocabulary, this sub-section demonstrates teachers' use of the L1 to explain grammar. Although this was less frequent than other uses in the data, as only one lesson included the teaching of grammar, the following example shows how teachers strategically used the L1 when students struggled to comprehend or recall a grammatical point. The use of the L1 to explain grammar is in line with previous studies (e.g. Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Pei-shi, 2012). In the same context as

the previous extract, T2 used Arabic to explain why and how the passive is used. His use of Arabic can be seen in the following example:

Extract 4.5

T2: Language Spot, active or passive. Remember ya shabab [guys] when we talked about the passive, and we said what? When do we use the passive? When did we use the passive? We said what? When did we use the passive? Or why do we use the passive? S: we begin object T2: hah? [what] S: Agool [I said] we begin object T2: Yes, no this is the rule of it, but why do we use it? S: If we do not want to mention the::: T2: If the: subject, is not <u>known</u> or it is <u>not</u>: important. We care: more: about the action itself. Ykoon endk almawdoo3 yetkalm an alhadath wa lisa alfaeel [the focus is on the action not the agent] okay? This is how we use the passive. Who can remind us of the rule? We start with what? Ss: object T2: We start with the object and then after the object? S4: Helping verbs S2: Has or have. T2: helping verbs. If the verb is verb to be, so we can use is or are. If it is in the past, we use was or were Ss: was or were= T2: =was or were and then? Ss: the verb in the past participle] T2: [The verb is in the past participle which is the third form of the verb, okay? Who can give me an example? Any example, please. Any example use the verb passive. S6: The window] T2: [The window S6: Was broken	The teacher finished few points such as reading a text before moving to the language spot section which included a grammatical point. When the teacher asked about why the passive is used before explaining how it is used where he wanted to check their comprehension before explaining the types of passive.
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In this example, the teacher switched to Arabic to explain the use of the passive, apparently resorting to the L1 due to the students' lack of response to his elicitation in English. Based on the field notes, the students were hesitant about answering the teacher's question. Because the teacher had already covered the passive but was revisiting it before explaining its different forms, the students seemed to know the answer but were hesitant to respond as they perhaps did not want to show they had forgotten or did not understand. When the students did not provide an adequate answer, the teacher used Arabic as a scaffolding tool to teach the grammatical point, eliciting responses from the students and checking their understanding of the grammatical rule previously taught before starting to explain the different types of passive.

The teacher had different reasons for using Arabic to explain grammar. He commented on his use, stating that "I think using Arabic to explain it would facilitate it in a way that is quicker and effective". While the teacher was revisiting a point taught previously to ensure students' understanding before moving on to explain the different forms of passive, he felt that the students had forgotten or did not understand and therefore there was a need to explain the passive first. Hence, as he had already tried using English to remind the students and elicit some answers but failed to do so, he used Arabic to explain the point in an effective and a quick way to ensure everyone understood and he could then cover the goal of the lesson.

However, the teacher also noted that "for most students, grammar is boring, and they always face difficulties with it. When I was student, it was difficult for me". The impact of past experience seemed to be repeating as one of the major factors driving the teachers' use of the L1. For example, T4 used the L1 because his teacher used it and this helped him learn and remember the word. Here, T2 perceived grammar to be difficult and boring for the students because he used to perceive it as such. Thus, he used the L1 to facilitate understanding and avoid the students getting bored. These findings further support that teachers' past experience influences their practices (Borg, 2003).

The teacher's comment during the stimulated recall interview helps explain his classroom practice, but to gain a broader understanding of teachers' attitudes towards the use of the L1 for this purpose, it is important also to consider their questionnaire responses. The data

offered a valuable lens for examining teachers' views the use of the L1 to explain grammar, particularly in situations where difficulties with comprehension or issues arising from mixed abilities were common. Figure 4.14 shows that the teachers expressed a preference for using the L1 "sometimes" ($N = 7$, 46.7%). T3 explained his use of Arabic, saying "because there are similar language systems, I use [Arabic] when I explain grammar to help everyone understand as there are students at different levels". Besides highlighting the similarities between languages, it seems that he shared relatively the same view as the teacher who used the L1 in his class in terms of facilitating the understanding of grammatical rules, but T3 seemed more concerned with helping students at low levels.

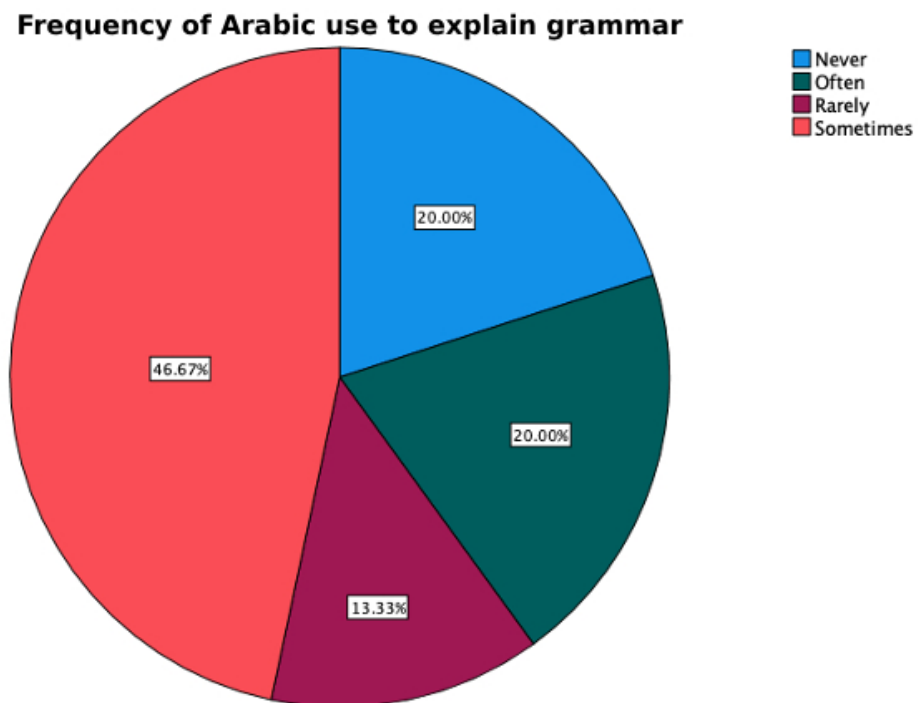


Figure 4.13. Use of the L1 to explain grammar.

In Tubayqi and Al Tale's (2021) study, the teachers were also found to favour using the L1 to explain grammar when necessary, but they used it as a last resort. Balabakgil and Mede (2016) found that teachers believed using the L1 to be effective in helping students understand grammar and some teachers emphasised that L1 should be used with low-level students. Instructors in Paker and Karaagaç's (2015) study pointed out that they mostly used the L1 to explain grammar but only when the students did not understand. Although Vyshnevskaya et al.'s (2021) research found that only around 26% of ESAP teachers would

use the L1 to explain grammar, they noted that its use was important for explaining and drawing on the similarities between languages. One teacher in Pablo et al.'s (2011) study asserted that students would have difficulties understanding some grammatical points when giving examples and drawing on similarities and therefore he advised using the L1 to help them understand. This brings the discussion back to the argument proposed by Von Elek and Oskarsson (1973), that it is better to explain grammar deductively with the aid of the L1 when teaching adults. These afore-mentioned studies and the findings of this study further support the arguments discussed in the literature review, highlighting the beneficial role of the L1 in drawing on learners' existing knowledge to facilitate noticing and input. In sum, the use of the L1 to aid understanding of grammar reflected the teachers' desire to support understanding of new or previously taught items, taken up in the following sub-section.

Revisiting points

Addressing another pedagogical use of the L1 observed in ESAP classrooms, namely revisiting previously taught items, while its frequency was lower compared to other functions, it nonetheless served an important instructional purpose. Teachers frequently switched to the L1 to remind students of material that had already been covered, especially when they showed signs of confusion. This further demonstrates that use of the L1 need not be limited to introducing new content but can play a valuable role in consolidating existing knowledge. In such situations, the L1 served as a strategic tool to reactivate prior knowledge and prompt the students' memories to ensure continuity of the lesson, as can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 4.6

S9: The box girder deck is supported by super strong cables tied to tall “/pairs/”=

T2: =tall piers.

L9: Piers

T2: Piers akhathna alkalema hathi gabel ketha fakreenha? Lama tkalmna an alinfrastarcure alle hey a lawasasat fe al ekhtebar jatkom kaman alle howa raseef, hah? arsefah [we have taken this word before, do you remember? When we talked about infrastructure. You had it in the exam too which is pier right? Piers].

While a student was reading a text aloud for the class, he mispronounced the word “piers”. The teacher corrected him and started checking students' understanding of its meaning and reminding them when did they have this word in order to retrieve its meaning.

In this extract, a student was reading a text aloud to the class and mispronounced the word “piers”. This seemed to provoke T2, who immediately corrected him and reminded the students of its meaning, although his tone was non-judgmental. This is similar to previous examples, such as Extracts 2 and 3. Here it might be that when the student mispronounced the word, it indicated that he did not know it and consequently the teacher might have to explain the word again. Hence, T2 noted that “the reason here is not to teach the language but to help them remember because we have taken it in our previous lessons. Also, I used Arabic here to ensure that everyone understands what I said”. This shows that, as in other studies (e.g. Taskin, 2011), teachers use the L1 to revise points that have already been explained, including grammar and vocabulary, to ensure everyone understands. Thus, the L1 plays a role not only in teaching new points but also when revising them. These include confirming and ensuring understanding of previously taught items while also saving time for teaching new content. The above example illustrates how the L1 was used to revisit and reinforce prior knowledge, especially when there was a need for clarification or repetition. Building on this responsive use of the L1, the next sub-section explores another instance: to address pronunciation issues.

Tackling pronunciation

In addition to explaining vocabulary and grammar, the classroom observation also revealed that teachers used the L1 to teach pronunciation. While this rarely occurred, it functioned as a useful tool when addressing students’ difficulties with specialised terms, particularly when those difficulties disrupted comprehension. This finding is in line with Tekin (2020), who also reported that teachers used the L1 to explain pronunciation. In the instances identified in this study, the teachers’ use of the L1 was instigated by students’ mispronunciation. T2 did not explicitly teach or explain the pronunciation of the word in Arabic, rather modelling it, whereas T7 stopped his lesson and used Arabic to explain how English vowels should be pronounced in a contrastive analysis, as can be seen in Extract 4.7:

Extract 4.7

T7: shabab look [guys], when you are writing this kalema, what is this word? peritoneal dialysis sah? [right?].	In the beginning of this English for medical purposes lesson, the teacher started by asking for a student to read the title of the lesson in his book. The student read Peritoneal Dialysis, but he mispronounced the first word and then the teacher started using Arabic.
Ss: Yes	
T7: Kef tehfadha? How do you remember this word? [How do you memorise it?]	
Ss: Write [it]=	
T7: =In Arabic. when I was young, I used to write in my own language Urdu. So, I remember [it]. Khalina nektob ktabah and see how you'd write in Arabic, so you remember how you say this word. Peritoneal , keef toktob peritoneal? in Arabic. How would you read it?	
S: Ygeseed moarab [He meant in Arabic letters]	

In this example, when a student mispronounced the word *peritoneal*, T7 started asking the students how they memorised vocabulary. He shared his learning strategy, writing the vocabulary in his L1 so he would remember it. He meant that he wrote the sounds of the words in his L1 so he could memorise and master them fully rather than knowing only their meanings in Arabic. He told the students that based on his learning experience, this technique was very effective to learn words in both English and Arabic, as he was not a native speaker of either. Thus, one important point to highlight is the similarities between teachers' reasons for their L1 use, which include teachers' past learning experiences and students' errors or level of engagement.

T7 then asked the students to write the word *peritoneal* in Arabic script and checked if they could pronounce the word correctly once they applied the technique. He also shared his personal experience when he recently saw the word *fire* incorrectly written in Arabic on a sign at the entrance to a shopping mall and he assumed that the person did not know how the word *fire* was pronounced. He used Arabic to explain the soundings of the vowels in English in the words *fire* and *fare* to help the students read the two words correctly. He then asked them to pronounce each word, highlighting the difference between the vowel sounds in each word and how each one should be written. By doing so, he wanted to teach the students how

to pronounce the words and to learn how to differentiate between the English vowels and apply the same technique to the vocabulary they encountered.

Although the teacher explained this technique, he did not explain the vowels in detail, which might be due to limited time or knowledge of Arabic. In addition, he knew that the students could use their own language effectively. It seems that he used Arabic due to the students' mispronunciation of a word which had been taught before and he explained the strategy of using Arabic script to write how English words are pronounced, believing this would help them memorise vocabulary. Another reason for teaching the students to use this technique could have been due in part to the difficulty of pronouncing medical terms, which are commonly Latin words or derivations.

However, T7 gave a different reason for his use of Arabic in this situation, stating:

“...the message was how to pronounce something. So when I was studying English, I used my language and some of its letters to memorise some words till I remember them. I write them in my language and pronounced them in English for a better pronunciation at that time.”

This seems consistent with Baeshin (2016), who found that teachers use the L1 to highlight the differences between English sounds. However, in the above example, T7 wrote the words in Arabic to compare the sounds using Arabic letters to explain how the words were pronounced. Hence, the teachers seemed to benefit from the students' prior knowledge, especially the L1 phonetic system (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Also, consistent with Ma (2019), teachers seem to use L1 sounds, although not frequently, to teach the pronunciation of words, believing that it would help the students learn the vocabulary. Interestingly, the same study found that students adopted the technique and learned to use it. Samar and Moradkhani (2014) found teachers using the same approach, believing that it would lead to longer retention. Vyshnevskaya et al. (2021) concluded that teachers feel it is important to use the L1 when explaining pronunciation. The practice of integrating both languages clearly demonstrates the unique characteristics of translanguaging, as discussed by García and Lin (2016) and Lewis et al. (2012).

The observed use of the L1 offered a detailed account of how one teacher employed the L1 to support pronunciation and recall of vocabulary, but to understand whether such uses were

more broadly endorsed, the questionnaire responses provided a valuable resource. As shown in Figure 4.15, the teachers reported doing so “never” ($N = 4$, 26.7%), “rarely” ($N = 5$, 33.3%), “often” and “sometimes” ($N = 3$, 20%), indicating a limited preference for using Arabic to teach speaking rules (e.g. stress and intonation).

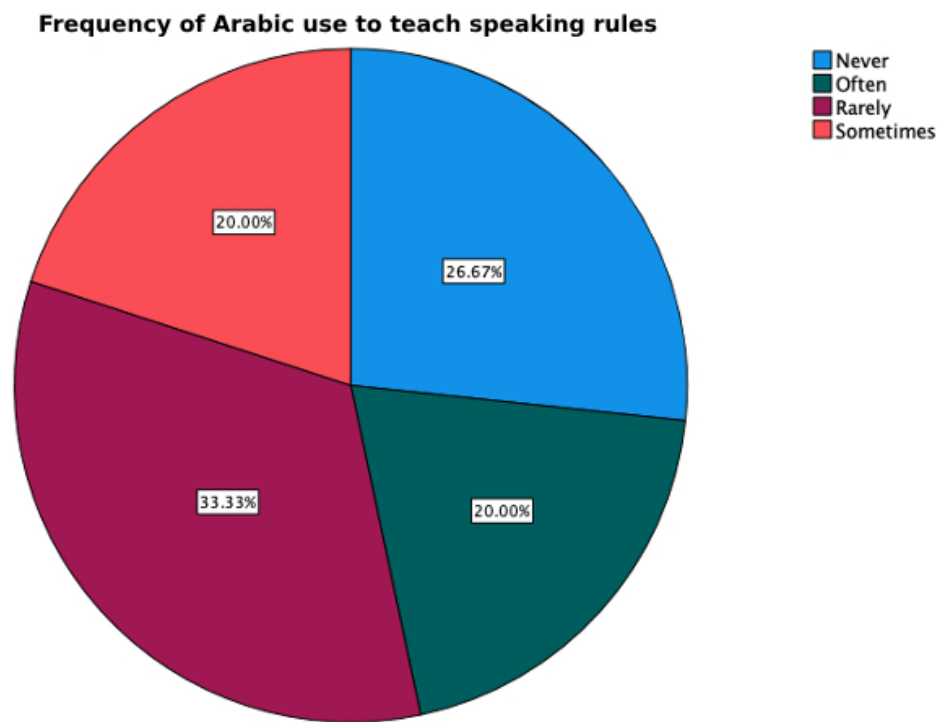


Figure 4.14. Use of the L1 to teach speaking rules.

In addition to pronunciation, the questionnaire findings offered insights into whether such personalised uses of Arabic extended to general learning advice, in particular using the L1 to give suggestions on how to learn more effectively. As shown in Figure 4.16, they selected “often” ($N = 4$, 26.7%), “sometimes” ($N = 5$, 33.3%), “rarely” ($N = 4$, 26.7%) and “never” ($N = 2$, 13.3%), indicating that although some teachers – like T7 – believed in the pedagogical value of drawing on the L1 to aid pronunciation and memorisation, this would not necessarily translate into a broader tendency to use the L1 when giving suggestions on how to learn more effectively. These results conflict with Vyshnevskaya et al.’s (2021) study, which surveyed and interviewed ESAP teachers and found 78% of them regarded the L1 as useful in introducing and comparing the pronunciation of the target language with the students’ language. Nilubol (2020) found that the L1 was believed to be helpful in understanding phonetic features. However, in this study, T13 stated:

“I feel it is better to teach the student the pronunciation in English because he would listen to the error, the pronunciation and the intonation in English and therefore, he would understand whereas using Arabic here might confuse him.”

T12 also noted that “they can learn the meaning of stress from the rules in the book”. This indicates that teachers tend not to use the L1 to teach speaking rules and pronunciation, although it was found in the observed classes that one teacher did so. While other teachers might avoid using the L1 when teaching speaking, T7 seemed to consider it effective. Taken together, the results on pronunciation and suggesting effective learning strategies highlight a broader pattern observed throughout this section. Even though the teachers occasionally drew on the L1 to support comprehension, pronunciation, memorisation and learner autonomy, these purposes were often reactive and under-recognised. This sets the stage for the following summary, which revisits and discusses how and why Arabic was used for pedagogical purposes in ESAP classrooms.

Summary

The observations demonstrated the teachers’ pedagogical purposes in using the L1 in ESAP classrooms, particularly for explaining different types of vocabulary, grammar, metalinguistic terms and pronunciation, as well as revisiting previously taught items. The stimulated recall interviews further confirmed these uses as deliberate practices but driven by the immediate need to address comprehension issues rather than arising from a clear acknowledgment that the L1 could be a significant and beneficial resource.

Previous studies on L1 use have focused on its application in general EFL settings (e.g. Samar & Moradkhani, 2014) and broader EAP contexts (e.g. Tang, 2002) and the findings of this study offer significant new insights into its use in ESAP classrooms. The nature of specialised vocabulary in fields such as engineering and medicine demands a flexible approach to L1 use which teachers frequently employ but do not recognise its usefulness. Indeed, the L1 was frequently exploited and considered vital for the teaching and learning of ESAP content. It not only helps clarify technical terms, pinning down the exact meaning and resolving comprehension issues, as found by the Alsuwayhiri (2024), but also supports students in becoming familiar with the specialised terms in their own language first. Unlike in general EFL contexts, where teachers may often use the L1 to facilitate communication, here the L1 served as an important scaffolding tool to help students understand specialised

knowledge unfamiliar even in their L1. Use of the L1 was motivated by several factors, such as teachers' own judgement and previous learning experience, the students' proficiency and the complexity of the ESAP content. Such factors interact to influence teachers' choice of language to support comprehension and academic success.

Viewing these through the lens of the current perspective on L1 use (see Section 2.3.2), pedagogical translanguaging was evident in the ESAP classrooms, although it remained widely unrecognised by the teachers themselves. While translation and code-switching reflect a tendency for teachers to embrace/prefer a monoglossic perspective (see 2.2.1), their uses (see, e.g., Extract 4.1) were part of broader translanguaging practices, deploying multiple linguistic resources fluidly to scaffold students' understanding and lower the cognitive load to help them access complex disciplinary knowledge that would likely be unfamiliar even in their L1.

Despite holding beliefs concerning the value of a monolingual approach and not conceptualising their practices as translanguaging or considering the L1 as a legitimate resource grounded in a heteroglossic perspective, the teachers used the L1 as a practical solution in response to students' needs. These various uses were captured as fluid and integrative, aligning with the principles of translanguaging in practice as they addressed the students' needs, and supported content mastery and language growth simultaneously. Hence, translanguaging practices should not be seen as obstacles to learning or merely a scaffolding tool but as an asset that can promote teaching and learning. Since the absence of conceptual awareness may limit the effectiveness or intentionality of these practices, targeted training in translanguaging should be considered to help teachers reconsider their perspectives and legitimise their practices (Desmond, 2024), enabling them to utilise translanguaging more purposefully and effectively in their context, including in ESAP classrooms.

4.4.2 Instruction-related purposes

This sub-section explores teachers' use of the L1 to fulfil instruction-related purposes in ESAP classrooms. Classroom observation revealed that this application was common in ESAP classes, specifically for providing and explaining task instructions, setting out task procedures and managing the classroom, for instance gaining attention and eliciting responses. These uses were attributed to various underlying reasons, as discussed earlier,

such as students' proficiency and ensuring understanding. Although the term *instruction* is frequently used to refer to teaching, studies on L1 use (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013; Ma, 2019) have utilised it more narrowly to refer to functions such as explaining task instructions. The use of the L1 in this study aligns with this view, as it served specific instructional functions to support understanding and maintain the flow of the lesson.

The results of this research are consistent with earlier work (e.g. Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Sali, 2014), which demonstrated the importance of L1 use for such purposes. Similarly, Bukhari (2017) found that the L1 is often utilised for purposes such as managing classrooms and explaining task procedures. In the ESAP context, in which students are expected to engage with complex disciplinary and academic content, the use of the L1 for instructional purposes is important for teaching effectively as it helps students understand tasks, as well as difficult concepts, which can be challenging for some students. The teachers' decisions concerning L1 use were therefore informed by moment-to-moment assessments of their students' needs, levels of engagement and comprehension. This sub-section examines each of these instructional uses in turn, analysing the practices observed as well as discussing the underlying reasons for them. Table 4.2 presents the mains themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 4.2. Instructional-related purposes themes and codes.

Themes	Codes
Instructional-related purposes	Task instructions
	Task procedures
	Management
	Discipline
	Attention
	Nomination

Giving task instructions

One example of L1 use for instruction-related purposes was to call on a student and explain the activity for him to do it. In line with other studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Ma, 2019), the teachers observed, both native and non-native speakers of Arabic, regularly switched codes to call on students to read or answer exercises, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 4.8

S: Elle baadaha? [the next one?]
 T2: **cuts** elle heya ma gabal alakheer. Tayeb
 yeseer almafool **feen?** [which is the second to
 the last. Ok, where is the object?].
 S: rock
 T2: Tayb yallah kamel [ok, come on continue]

The teacher here used Arabic to instruct the student to continue reading the sentence in the exercise. Although this type of instruction, to read or answer questions, was very frequent in T2's classes, in this example it seemed that he might have been influenced by the students' lack of understanding of the grammar point. Also, perhaps the teacher was affected by the student's use of Arabic. The student seemed unable to answer and thus T2 used Arabic to help the student understand the goal of the task and follow the flow of the lesson. The teacher explained his use of Arabic, saying "I cater for low-level student whom I use Arabic for whereas I use English with those at higher level". Although this use was motivated by the student's switch to enquire about which exercise to read, it seems similar to Extract 4.4, in which he also used the L1 to facilitate explanation of the instructions for the activity, especially for a low-level student. T2 thus highlighted one situation in which the L1 could be used when instructing low-level students. Other teachers used Arabic even with high-level students, just to make the instruction or explanation clear for the others.

It could be inferred that such code-switching practices, aimed at delivering a message to the whole group, is more common during teaching than when giving instructions. The teachers seem to engage in translanguaging with all students to ensure group-wide understanding. Although this aligns with previous research in EFL and EAP contexts, I consider that these findings demonstrate that the L1 here takes on additional importance in ESAP settings, where the language of instruction intersects with subject-specific content. The advantage it offers in clarifying instructions quickly can help maintain momentum and support the inclusion of all students, especially those at lower levels of proficiency.

Setting out task procedures

The teachers were also observed switching to the L1 to clarify instructions related to task procedures. T8 began an exercise by explaining the procedure in Arabic, another type of L1 use under instruction-related purposes, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 4.9

T8: Correct form meaning the verb will change either using the past simple or the present simple adding “s” or “es” to the singular subject **enta lazem tedheef ela alafaal almofradah** [you have to add to the singular verbs] “s” or “es”. So, take your time.

Here, T8 sought to simplify what the students had to do, using the students’ L1 to clarify and remind the students of the meaning of adding *s* and *es* to singular verbs to ensure that every single student understood what to do. This would prevent them feeling lost and consequently help them complete the task and achieve its goal. As this was towards the end of the lesson and the students had to complete several exercises, T8 perhaps felt that there was a need to explain the instructions for this task to show how it differed from the previous one. However, T8 stated:

“When I give them instructions, I use L1 as well just to make sure that they understand what we are doing and exactly where we are. students, you know, lose attention, they lose focus. So, you have to bring them back. And then, you know, when you shift from one activity to another, then of course, you have to bring them back so that, you know, they are more attentive [when using L1].”

The reason given was thus the same as that provided by T2, namely that using the L1 to explain the instructions ensured that everyone understood them. T8 added that when using the L1 in this situation, “they can in a blink of an eye get the idea that now we are focusing on this exercise. So, this is, you know, [using Arabic is] the quickest way to bring students, you know, to the point where we are”. Hence, unlike T2, T8’s reasons for his use of Arabic included explaining the procedure and the goal of the activity to ensure understanding, gaining or maintaining students’ attention while doing the activity and facilitating the transition from one activity to another by differentiating the goal of each activity. Similar to Alsuhaibani (2015), T8 used Arabic when shifting from one activity to another, using the L1 to help students follow the lesson (Schweers, 1999; Shimizu, 2006; Tang, 2002). While other studies (e.g. Kalanzadeh et al., 2013) found that teachers used the L2 as long as the students were following the lesson, others (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013) found that teachers tended to

switch to the L1 to ensure weak students were following the lesson. T8's practice seems similar to that in Xhemaili's (2013) study, namely that the L1 was used to clarify concepts and help students work on a task.

The teachers' responses to the questionnaire, as shown in Figure 4.15, showed that their preference for using Arabic to give instructions to students during classroom tasks and activities varied, with 3 (20%) selecting "often", 6 (40%) "sometimes" and 5 (33.3%) "rarely". This indicates that teachers' views matched their actual use of L1. Similarly, the survey conducted by Baeshin (2016) revealed that about 30% of teachers agreed and disagreed with using the L1 for giving instructions. In another study, while 36% of the instructors reported using the L1 to give instructions, especially complex ones, 50% of them disagreed with this use (Inal & Turhanli, 2019).

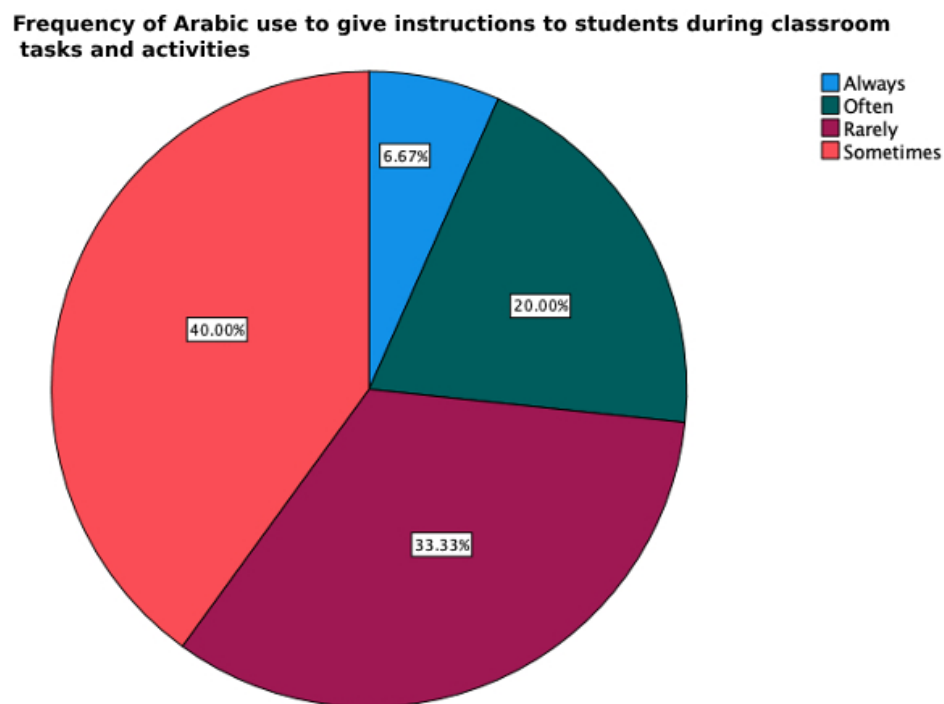


Figure 4.15. Use of the L1 to give instructions during classroom tasks and activities.

The underlying reasons for such use seem to differ from one study to another. In this study, T13 commented on his preference for using the L1 to give instructions, stating "it is easier for the students and to ensure they understand it 100%". Other studies found different reasons, including accelerating the process of engaging with and practising the target

language in a timely manner (De La Campa & Nassaji, 2009), clearly stating what students should do to complete the task (Grim, 2010), and helping those who would not be able to understand the instructions and consequently ensuring they would benefit from the task (Sali, 2014).

The reasons identified in EFL and EAP studies are relatively similar to those given in this ESAP study. These include use of the L1 being a quick and effective way of ensuring full comprehension of the concepts and the goal of an activity. Although this purpose for using the L1 is less common across EFL and EAP research, it seems to be relevant in ESAP classrooms as maintaining students' attention while navigating specialised content is critical. I argue that these integrative switches reflect translanguaging practices and what makes them particularly significant is the fact that ESAP activities typically include metalinguistic vocabulary along with technical terms. In addition to this, with the presence of students at various levels, translanguaging is a practical and effective – indeed necessary – way of maintaining students' comprehension and attention in different activities.

Management

- *Discipline*

The data revealed that some teachers used the L1 for giving instructions to maintain discipline. Although not a very common use of Arabic in this study, it was noticeable that the teachers valued its use, especially when talking to latecomers, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 4.10

T4: **Endak tamreen alyom?** [Were you training today?].

This question in Arabic by T4 was sarcastic and meant to express “You are late!” As T4 remarked:

“I was talking to an excellent student, but he seems to a bit careless and therefore, I said that sarcastically in Arabic to show that I am serious and that I did not want him to think that I teaching him something when I was talking to him and consequently, he, and the low-level students, can understand the point was made here.”

This is in line with Alsuhaibani (2015), who found teachers used the L1 to address latecomers regardless of their proficiency level and Samar and Moradkhani (2014) also found one teacher using the L1 in a similar situation to ensure that the student would understand her. In this instance, T4 noted that although he was talking to a high-level student, he purposefully used the L1 to ensure others, including low-level students, understood the message. Moreover, it seems that the L1 might have been used here to show seriousness. The teacher's use of the L1 here is a clear instance of code-switching that was not due to limited proficiency in the L2 but rather signalled that this interaction was not part of the class, i.e. not pedagogical, rather falling under translanguaging.

These results concerning the use of L1 for classroom management, including maintaining discipline, are consistent with other studies (e.g. Edstrom, 2006; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Tang, 2002), viewing the use of the L1 for such purposes as effective. It is interesting to note that even as a non-native speaker of Arabic, the teacher used the L1 for classroom management. It might be that the non-native speaker of Arabic used it because the students would recognise the significance of using their language (Sipra, 2013). In short, it seems that it has a greater weight than the L2 and is used as a stimulus to catch students' attention. Teachers' use of the L1 to maintain discipline reflects its role as a pragmatic classroom management tool, especially in situations requiring full comprehension across all proficiency levels. Although previous EFL research has found similar L1 use, the findings of this study extend this understanding to the ESAP context by showing that the L1 can serve as a unifying language to communicate behavioural expectations across different proficiency levels. In ESAP classrooms, where instructional time tends to be limited and tightly structured, such strategic L1 use can help sustain a more productive learning environment.

The questionnaire responses were particularly useful for understanding teachers' views concerning the use of the L1 for classroom management, offering insights that complemented the actual practices. In relation to maintaining discipline, Figure 4.16 shows that the teachers' preferences were predominantly "often" ($N = 4$, 26.7%) and "sometimes" ($N = 7$, 46.7%). This indicates a high preference for using the L1 to maintain discipline which was also evident in the observed lessons. Similarly, other studies (e.g. Hajjaj & Kharma 1990; Inal & Turhanlı, 2019) found that about 45% of teachers perceived the L1 to be effective in maintaining discipline. In Inal and Turhanlı's (2019) study, one teacher reported

using the L1 when students misbehaved. Other teachers consider the use of L1 for maintaining discipline useful because it is less threatening (Balabakgil & Mede 2016).

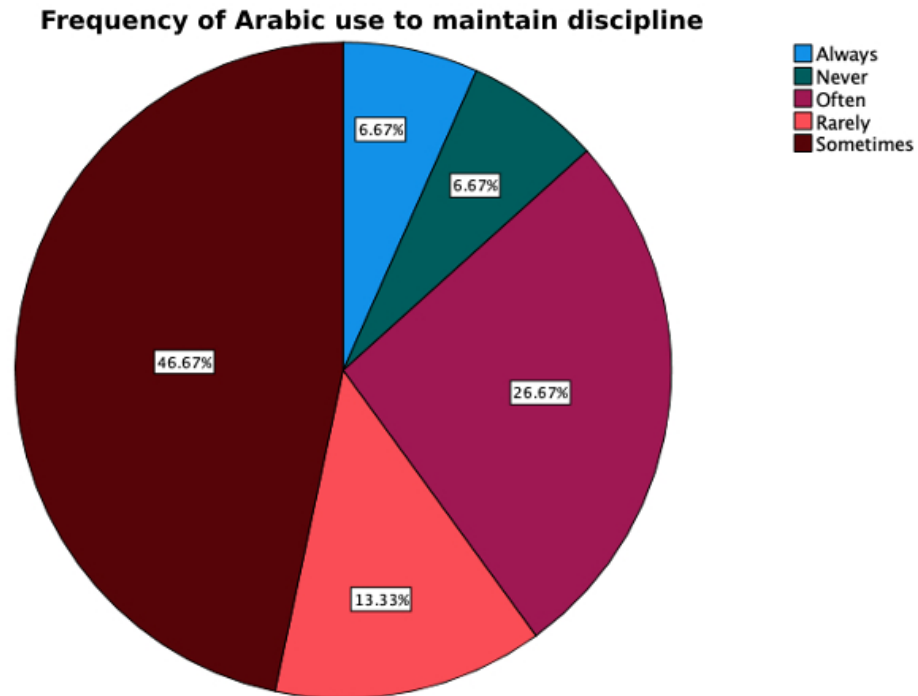


Figure 4.16. Use of the L1 to maintain discipline.

It was therefore surprising that despite the results of the questionnaire and classroom observation showing a high preference for use of the L1 to maintain discipline, the follow-up interviews illustrated that the teachers were not in favour of using Arabic for this purpose, highlighting the mismatch between teachers' practices and preferences. T11 preferred to use English, stating "...they are common instructions that are used repeatedly...it helps others to understand these instructions when they are used, and some students follow them". T12 said "I mostly use English because they are simple instructions such as be quiet". I consider that these teachers might only have evaluated the use of the L1 when providing simple instructions, whereas other teachers might have considered situations similar to those in the above extract, which might require articulating behavioural expectations.

- *Gaining attention*

Among the different instructional uses of the L1 observed in the ESAP classrooms, one recurring function of Arabic was to capture and maintain students' attention. This finding is

in line with other studies (e.g. Bukhari, 2017). While this could be seen as a way of re-engaging students, refocusing the class, or signalling transitions between different activities, the teachers reported using the L1 to ensure that students – particularly those at lower levels – understood instructions. An example of L1 use for gaining attention can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 4.11

T2: Now, how about D?	The teacher instructed the students to work on an exercise but then started to work with them as some of them seemed lagging behind their classmate. When he started doing the exercise, there were few responses to his question.
Ss: Suspension	
T2: Yeah, because there are two towers shaifeen altowers? [do you see the towers] on either side? On both sides? Maaya wala la ya shabab? [Are you following guys or not?] can you see the towers? ***, can you see the towers?	
S: Yes	

Using Arabic in itself can be considered a tool for attracting attention. Employing the word *shabab*, meaning *guys*, to address multiple students was frequent among both native and non-native speakers of Arabic. Such usage could also signify a shift from being formal with the students to providing a safe space, especially for low-level students, and opening the door for students to express any lack of understanding, whether in English or Arabic. Similar to the previous example in Extract 4.9, the students were completing several exercises and were potentially engaged in different ones. In such a situation, it would be natural for the teacher to ensure that they were all keeping up and were focused on the same one he was talking about before proceeding to the next. Another reason for using the L1 here would be if the teacher thought that some students were lost and did not know which picture he was talking about; thus, he could use the L1 to draw their attention to the intended point and check all the students had heard the answer (Ma, 2019).

However, when the teacher was asked about the reason for his use of Arabic in this situation, he stated that “I was alternating between Arabic and English to ensure the student has understood the instruction because if I only used English to explain the instructions, I think only those at high level would be able to understand them”. T2 seemed to be influenced by an important factor, namely the different levels of students he was teaching. This was noted also in Extract 4.9. This use was meant to elicit a response from the students to ensure they

were following him. Based on the classroom flow and the teacher's repeated use of the IRF pattern, this seems similar to a point made by Bukhari (2017) that Arabic may be used to elicit responses to push the students to participate and engage more in the learning process. Using Arabic to elicit responses has different functions. It could be a way of helping students feel less lost or motivating/pushing them to participate. The use of Arabic for gaining attention and eliciting a response which could highlight the exact point are two major observed functions of L1. These other applications seem to be major functions or sub-functions of L1 use.

As noted earlier, while the use of the L1 in the above extract seemed partly to be to help students feel less lost, as also in Extracts 4.9, and to motivate them to participate, the questionnaire and follow-up interviews helped explore whether teachers' observed practices matched their attitudes. The questionnaire responses varied considerably when it came to using Arabic in such situations, as can be seen in Figure 4.17.

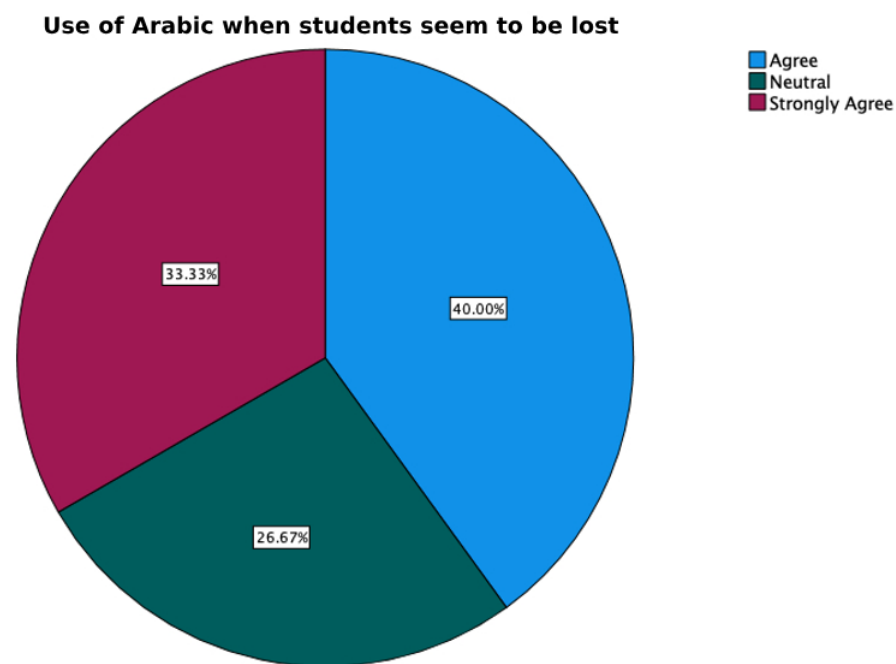


Figure 4.17. Use of the L1 when students seem lost.

When the students seemed to be lost, most of the teachers ($N = 6$, 40%) agreed and some ($N = 5$, 33%) strongly agreed with L1 use, but 26% were neutral; none of them disagreed or strongly disagreed. T13 expressed willingness to use Arabic in this case, noting “definitely,

I use Arabic when they feel lost to bring them back”. Similarly, Baeshin (2016) revealed that teachers regard the use of the L1 as an effective tool when students are lost. I should note that teachers’ attitudes and their actual uses seem to agree in this regard. In addition, it was observed that the students tended to respond to Arabic in a way that suggested it caught their attention. Thus, it could be said that such fluid switches or translanguaging practices offer an advantage for teachers in helping students feel less lost through gaining and maintaining their attention.

Moreover, gaining students’ attention through the L1 was not limited to moments when the students seemed lost but rather extended to situations where they seemed demotivated or “out of mood”. The findings obtained through the questionnaire offered further support for this pattern, confirming that teachers would use the L1 to lift the mood or motivate the students. Most teachers strongly agreed ($N = 6$, 40%) or agreed ($N = 5$, 33.3%) that Arabic would be an option when students felt demotivated/out of mood, whereas fewer ($N = 2$, 13.3%) were neutral or disagreed and none strongly disagreed (see Figure 4.18). Almost all the teachers, both native and non-native speakers of English, in Balabakgil and Mede’s (2016) study strongly agreed and agreed with the use of the L1 to motivate students, especially when they were covering a lot of topics, as one teacher reported. These results show that the use of the L1 for such purposes is highly valued by teachers, indicating its effectiveness in the teaching and learning process.

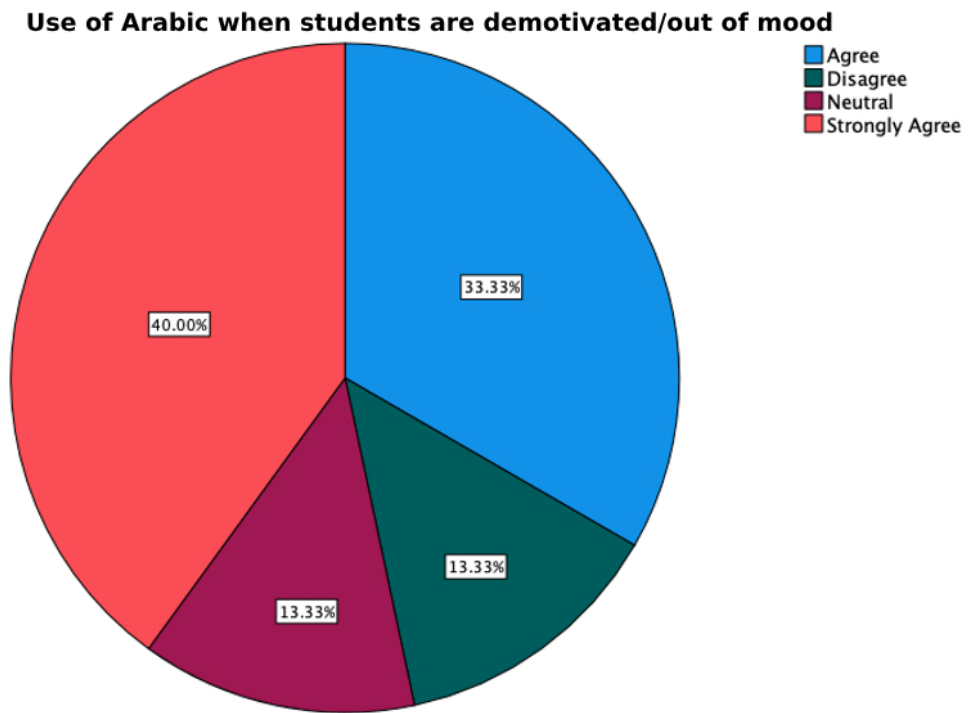


Figure 4.18. Use of the L1 when students are demotivated/out of mood.

T13 in this study was of this view, stating “...there is pressure on the students and there are classes of 3 or 4 hours, and they lose their concentration within hour or so. Using Arabic here helps feel there is a break so he can regain his focus”. T11 also favoured using Arabic in such a situation because “its use activates them and increases their attention”, similar to the conclusion reached by Kang (2008) that students’ interest plays a role in teachers’ use of the L1. T12, however, used a different technique, stating “I use games in English”. Thus, teachers mostly felt that students feeling lost, and demotivation played a role in their decision to use the L1. In ESAP classes, which typically include complex tasks and unfamiliar content, resulting in students disengaging, the use of the L1 can be crucial in helping students reorient themselves. While this use has also been demonstrated in general and academic English classes, this function is emphasised in the ESAP context where lapses in attention could hinder understanding of discipline-specific material and activities. This demonstrates that L1 use in the ESAP classroom is vital for sustaining focus, motivation and understanding, further highlighting its value for various purposes, not only pedagogical ones.

- *Elicitation (nomination)*

Moving beyond attention and motivation, the teachers were also observed using the students' L1 to elicit different types of responses. In particular, T7 was noted using Arabic to elicit examples from the students for the word *oppose*, which appeared in an exercise. He had just translated it (see Extract 4.12) and given an example of its use in a sentence. His use of the L1 can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 4.12

T7: **Methal give me methal** [example, give me an example].

The teacher's code-switching aimed to elicit responses from the students using the word *oppose* in a sentence. Here, perhaps T7 used Arabic to check the students' understanding of the meaning of the word after explaining it (see Extract 4.3), but it might also have been to check their understanding of its use by encouraging output. This can also be reasoned based on his preceding use of Arabic, in which he gave an example first in English and then in Arabic and continued using the L1 to elicit examples of using the word in a sentence. T7 commented on his use of Arabic in this situation, saying "some of them [the students] were still struggling with this word". That is, T8's use of Arabic here was influenced by fact that the students seemed to be struggling to understand. The field notes also indicated that one student asked his classmate about the meaning of the word. It should be noted that T7 did not actually use the L1 to check the meaning of the word but to request an example of how it should be used.

Using the L1 to check comprehension was very rare in the observed classes. Perhaps such use could be unimportant in later stages as teachers might have done their best to help the students understand, including providing an explanation in Arabic. That is, as seen in the previous extract, the teachers used the L1 to provide translation or explanation so that the points would already have been understood in their own language. Throughout the dialogue, the teacher strategically and purposefully employed different types of translanguaging, namely translation and code-switching. Eliciting responses in this way was mainly driven by the need to support students' use of new or complex vocabulary. This example demonstrates the importance of such use in both EFL and ESAP classes, highlighting that the L1 not only supports input but also facilitates output, particularly in classes involving

difficult vocabulary. This practice in the ESAP context can help bridge the gap between comprehension and production, which is vital for students' learning.

Surprisingly, however, although the L1 was used to check comprehension in various instances, when the teachers were asked about their views concerning use of the L1 for checking comprehension in the questionnaire (see Figure 4.19), they favoured using it rarely ($N = 8$, 53.3%) or sometimes ($N = 5$, 33.3%), in line with Cheng's (2013) study, which found that 28% ($N = 32$) university and college teachers would use the L1 to check comprehension. Schweers (1999) found only 10.4% of teachers thought the L1 useful to check comprehension. This indicates that using the L1 for checking comprehension is not a high priority among teachers.

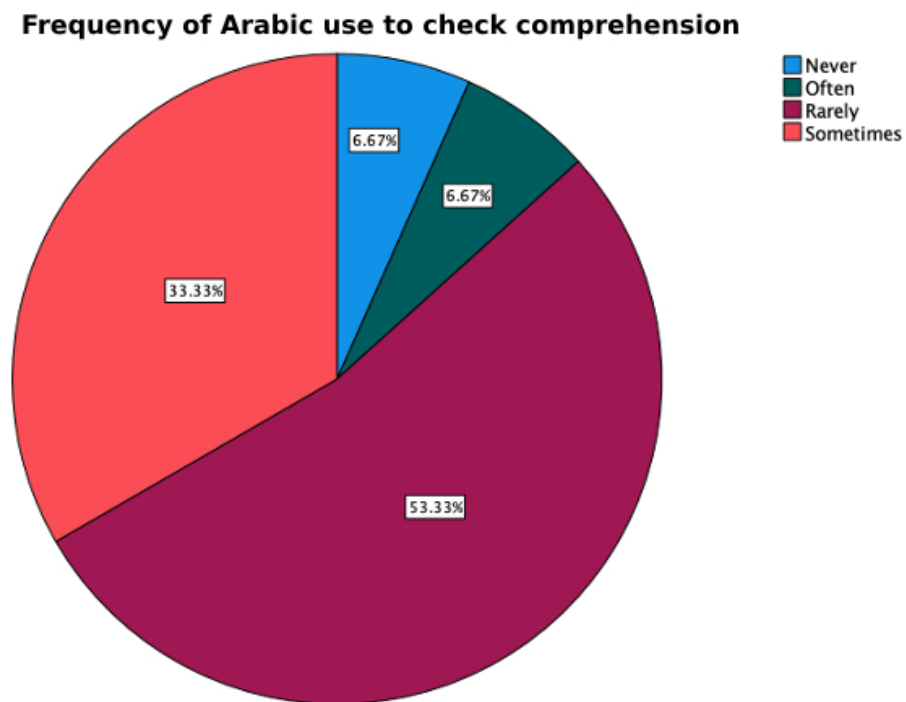


Figure 4.19. Use of the L1 to check comprehension.

T13 explained his preference for using the L1 to check comprehension, stating that “sometimes, I use it when it is needed such as when I explain something in English and I feel the students did not get it, then I might use Arabic”, whereas T11 stated that “after explaining it along with examples in English, I use Arabic to help low-level students who might not get the meaning of the word”. Thus, unlike T13, who preferred to use Arabic when students did not comprehend a point, T11 favoured using the L1 immediately to ensure

everyone understood. One teacher in Samar and Moradkhani's (2014) study reported using the L1 for the same purpose because he believed repeating the answer in the L1 would lead to better learning. These results indicate that teachers' use of Arabic to check understanding often serves a similar purpose to summarising content, as both aim to confirm students' understanding of key points.

Using the L1 to check comprehension seems quite similar to its use for summarising lessons, as both might entail ensuring comprehension. In their responses to the questionnaire, as seen in Figure 4.20, the teachers reported they would rarely ($N = 8$ 53.3%) or sometimes ($N = 6$, 40%) use Arabic to sum up a lesson.

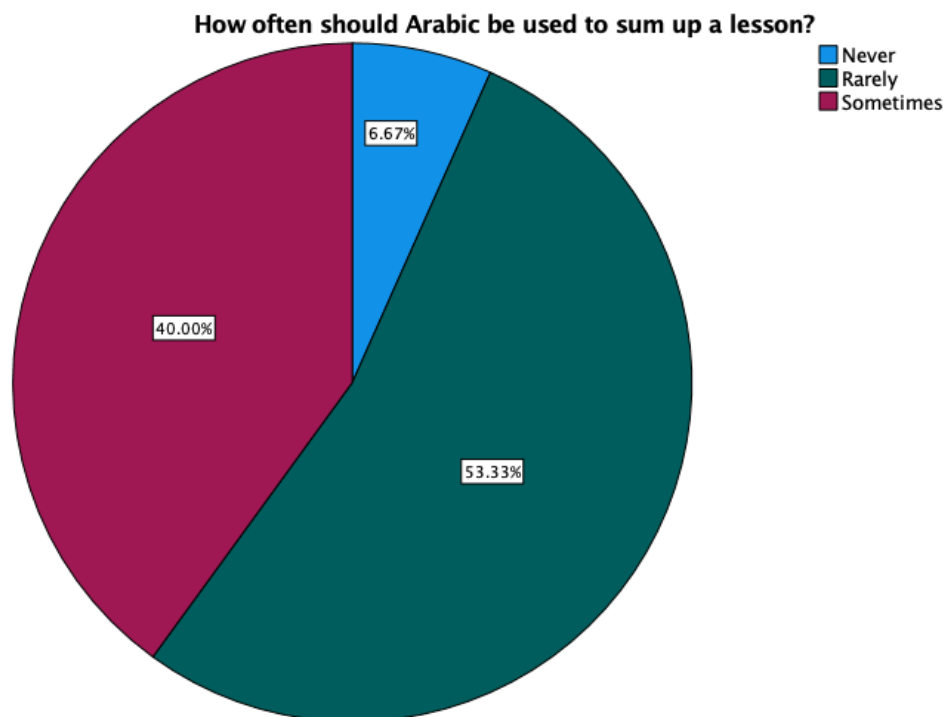


Figure 4.20. Use of the L1 to sum up the lesson.

This indicates that teachers would use Arabic less for purposes such as checking comprehension and summing up a lesson than for other purposes. While T1 thought that “it might help the students to understand after a long lesson as they might feel tired”, T12 disagreed, stating that “I might have already explained the difficult points in English and Arabic”. In other words, T12 believed that since he used Arabic to explain challenging points, he should not need to use it again. T15 said “I don’t summarise my lecture. I might

use Arabic the following day to summarise it [the previous lesson] and say yesterday we did this and that”. Thus, the teachers’ views seemed to match their actual use of the L1 in class. In addition, as noted earlier, they might have already used the L1 to help students understand.

It could be argued that the teachers tended to favour and use the L1 during the teaching process rather than when checking or reviewing content. That is, they seemed to employ various teaching strategies, including use of the L1, to scaffold students’ knowledge and ensure maximum comprehension. Thus, they feel that it would be needed less at later stages. However, previous examples of L1 use for pedagogical purposes demonstrate that students might need its use throughout their studies to consolidate understanding, as the teachers stated. Therefore, the lesser reported preference for L1 use to check comprehension and summarise the lessons might not reflect its actual use in the classroom. Indeed, the teachers’ use of the L1 throughout these examples clearly illustrates the importance and value of Arabic for various pedagogical and instructional purposes. This should be acknowledged and use of the L1 should be advocated.

Summary

Overall, this section has highlighted the various purposes of L1 use during instruction in ESAP classrooms: (1) maintaining discipline, (2) giving instructions, (3) clarifying task procedures, (4) gaining attention and (5) eliciting responses. These uses were influenced by several key factors: the complexity of procedural instructions and students’ proficiency, attention and motivation. The teachers’ use of the L1 was purposeful, aimed at scaffolding understanding, engaging the students and managing the flow of the lesson. However, again, the findings of this section demonstrate a mismatch between teachers’ attitudes and their practices. In particular, they favoured using the L1 as a last resort and only for pedagogical purposes. Yet, they also used it fluidly for instructional-related purposes, suggesting that their actual use of the L1 was shaped by the classroom realities, including their perceptions of students’ needs, rather than by their monolingual ideologies.

Although similar uses of L1 have been found in previous EFL and EAP research, the findings of this study contribute uniquely by highlighting how L1 facilitates navigation through dense disciplinary and unfamiliar academic content and supports diverse learner needs in the ESAP context. Use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms is a multi-functional resource that not only aids

comprehension but also helps sustain attention and motivation, regulate transitions and support learners at varying levels of proficiency. Thus, as noted previously, there is a need to bridge the gap between teachers' belief and practices through targeted translanguaging training to help teachers better recognise and legitimise such practices aimed at attaining positive learning outcomes. Building on this understanding of how teachers used Arabic to support classroom management and student engagement, the following section examines another important use of the L1: providing feedback.

4.4.3 Feedback-related purposes

This sub-section explores teachers' uses of the L1 to provide various forms of feedback in ESAP classrooms. These included using the L1 to correct, confirm or praise the students' contributions. While previous research (e.g. Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014) has found similar uses in EFL and EAP contexts, its presence in ESAP classrooms has some distinct implications, especially given the need to address technical terms along with general or academic content. The findings presented in this section demonstrate the dynamic nature of L1 use for providing feedback and shed light on different factors which contribute to its use, including establishing a friendly and relaxed atmosphere. To guide the discussion and analysis of these feedback-related functions, Table 4.3 presents the main themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 4.3. Feedback-related purposes themes and codes

Themes	Codes
Feedback-related purposes	Correction/Confirmation
	Praise

Correction and confirmation

The classroom observation revealed that the L1 was used to correct and confirm students' contributions, especially when they struggled with accuracy. This usage included both direct and indirect feedback, which were influenced by the difficulty of the point being corrected and the teachers' own proficiency in the L1, in this case Arabic. Examples of the first two types of feedback-related purposes, i.e. correcting and confirming students' responses, can be seen in the following extracts:

Extract 4.13

T2: No, no kalamk sah elle goltah awaleyah bas tarteebk ghalt [what you have said before is correct, but the order is not].

Extract 4.14

T8: The robot, it needs tracks. You know tracks means?

Ss: Masaar [track]

T8: Masaar [track] they need tracks masar aw masarat [track or tracks]

These examples show that the teachers, similar to the findings in prior research (Alsuhailbani, 2017), employed code-switching to correct and confirm students' answers. The teachers switched codes to provided direct and indirect feedback. T2, who was a native speaker of Arabic, could easily provide explanations in the students' L1. T8, although a non-native speaker of Arabic, still used the students' L1 to correct them, but this was limited to indirect feedback using one or two words, perhaps due to his limited knowledge of Arabic. While T2 seemed to be focusing on the grammatical point, the passive, and mastering it, T8 was probably more concerned with the students knowing the meaning of the word and then just highlighted the plural form. Both examples reflect the dynamic nature of teachers' choice to use the L1 and its role in sense-making.

T2 stated the reason for his use of Arabic, saying "I used it here to emphasise that I am being friendly and to say everything is fine, but you need to do this and that just to make him feel relaxed because Arabic reduces the stress that students feel during learning languages". So, he used Arabic to provide feedback, but the underlying reason was to help the students feel less tense. This demonstrates that teachers are not only aware of students' proficiency levels but also cater to their emotional responses to feedback, reflecting a strategic and purposeful use of the L1. Both examples of the teachers' switches to the L1 can be framed as part of broader translanguaging practice. The teachers alternated fluidly between English and Arabic to make meaning and maintain the students' emotional equanimity. These fluid and integrative switches illustrate the importance of translanguaging practices not only as a pedagogical tool to support linguistic clarity and instructional flow but also as a useful strategy that can aid in maintaining students' confidence and reducing their anxiety when dealing with highly challenging content, such as is found in ESAP contexts.

These responses closely align with the teachers' questionnaire findings, which offered a useful point of comparison concerning use of the L1 when students feel stressed. As can be seen in Figure 4.21, several chose “strongly agree” ($N = 3$, 20%) and “agree” ($N = 6$, 40%). These views and actual use further confirm that the L1 is both seen and used as an effective means of helping students feel less stressed (Xhemaili, 2013).

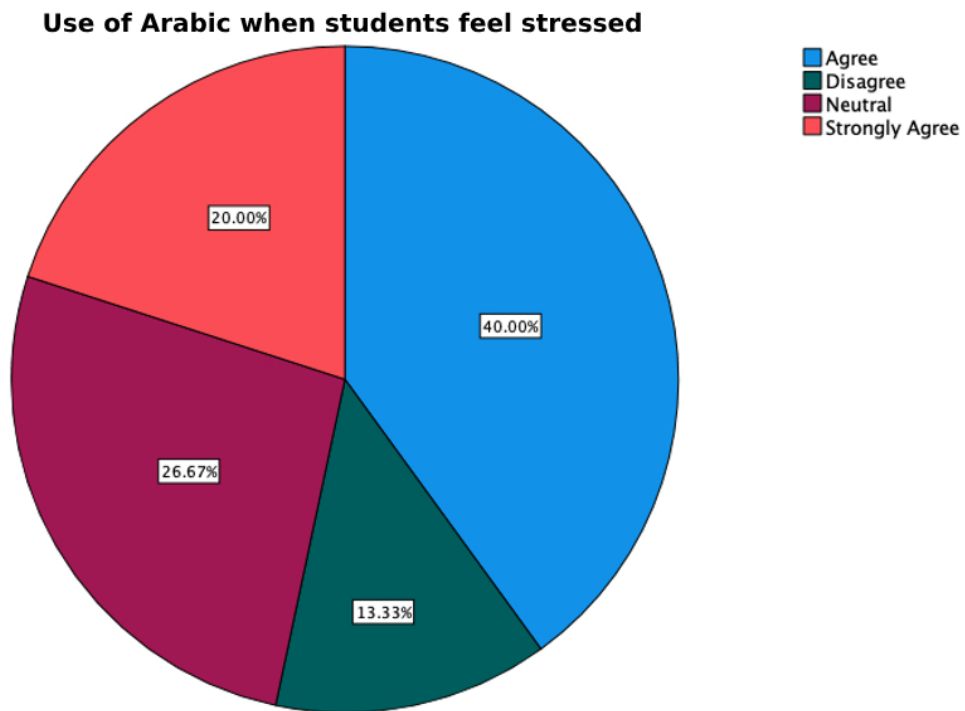


Figure 4.21. Use of the L1 when students are stressed.

Extracts 13 and 14 illustrated the actual use of Arabic for providing feedback; it is important also to compare these observed practices with the teachers' reported attitudes towards using the L1 for different types of feedback: written and spoken. The questionnaire responses informed on whether they would support or discourage such use. First, concerning teachers' views concerning use of the L1 for providing feedback on written work, as can be seen in Figure 4.22, about 8 teachers (53.3%) chose “sometimes”, while fewer ($N = 4$, 26.7%) favoured using it “rarely”. These results are not in line with Hall and Cook's (2013) findings, which showed that most teachers would use the L1 “rarely” (20%) or “never” (39%) for this function. Perhaps the tendency towards such use in this context could be attributed to the presence of students with mixed abilities, thus necessitating more L1 use.

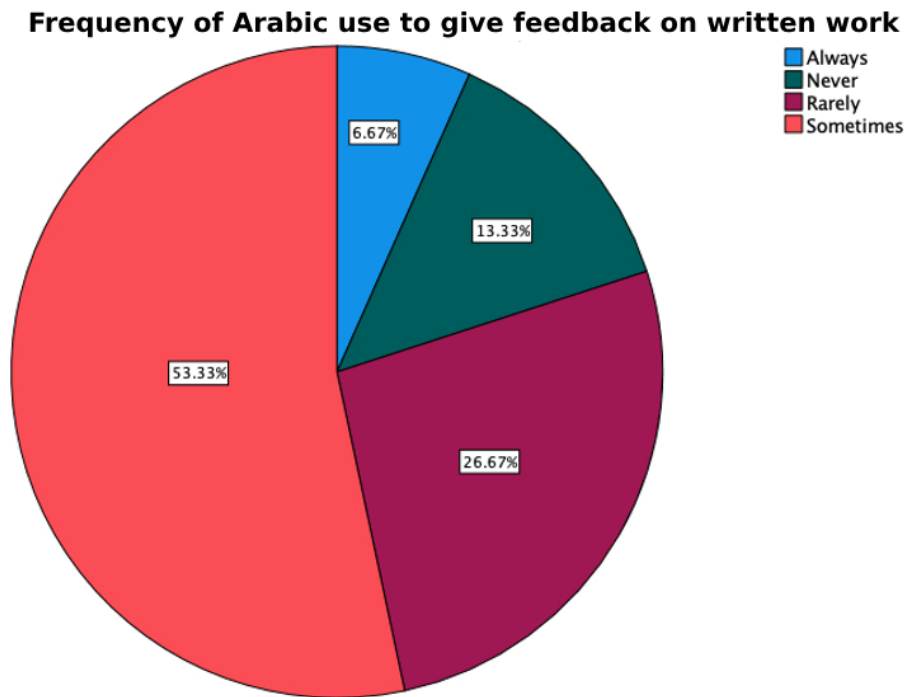


Figure 4.22. Use of the L1 to provide feedback on written work.

Second, concerning use of the L1 for correcting spoken errors, contrary to the actual uses of the L1 in the Extracts 13 and 14, most teachers reported they would “rarely” ($N = 5$, 33.3%) or “never” ($N = 6$, 40%) use the L1 for this purpose, although many of them used the L1 when students mispronounced words, as noted throughout previous sections. The questionnaire responses concerning this use are line with other studies (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013). Generally, the teachers showed negative attitudes towards the use of the L1 for providing feedback concerning both spoken and written errors (see Figure 4.23).

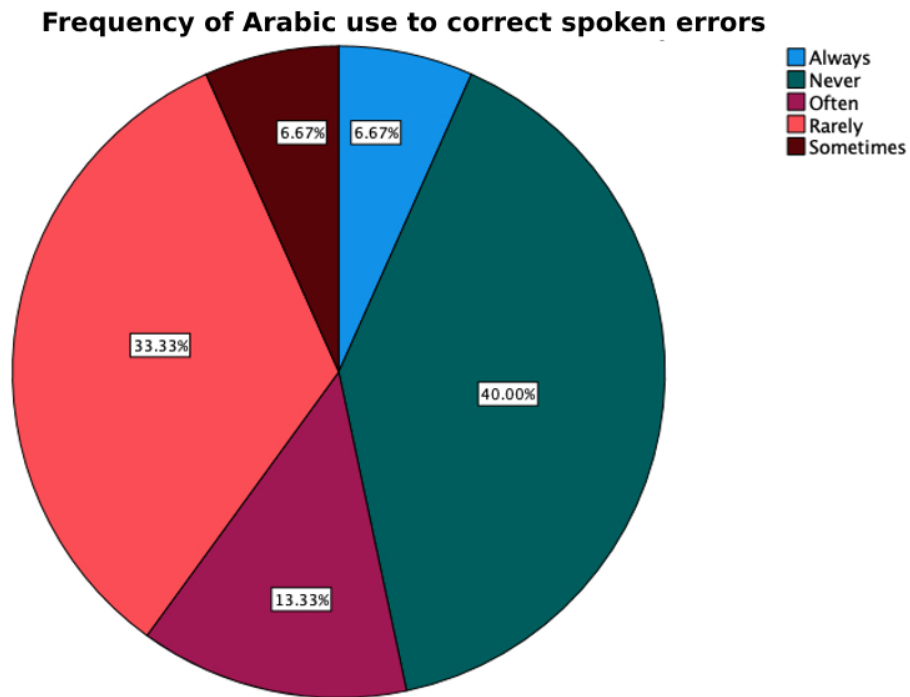


Figure 4.23. Use of the L1 to correct spoken errors.

To gain a better understanding the underlying reasons for these negative attitudes, I turn to the follow-up interviews, which provided useful insights into teachers' reluctance to use the L1 for correcting spoken errors. Similar to their views on teaching speaking rules in Arabic, they seemed to disagree with correcting spoken errors in Arabic. T15 reported that:

“...he [the student] made the error in English and it should be corrected in English. Since he has already reached a level where he could utter a sentence in English, he has the ability to learn about the error in English.”

T12 echoed this, saying “the words are in English and you need to correct them in English”, but he stressed that “it depends on whether I focus on accuracy or fluency”. T12 made an important point, noting that “I prefer to repeat what the student said correctly because if you use Arabic to correct him, you might embarrass him”. It seems that he thought Arabic could draw attention to the student who made the error in class, making him feel uncomfortable; therefore, he avoided the L1. However, other studies (e.g. Cameron, 2001; Ma, 2019; Zainil, 2017) found that providing feedback in the L1 helped teachers explain detailed and complex aspects of the L2, which could be beyond the students' level. The differences between the results of these studies and this one could be attributed to the contexts being investigated. In

addition, the teachers who participated in this study could be aware of those students who would laugh at other students mispronouncing words, as will be discussed in relation to Extract 5.12 in a later section. Overall, there were differences between the teachers' attitudes and actual use which might be attributed to the fact that while the L1 might help with providing detailed feedback, its use depends on a number of factors, such as students' attitudes towards being corrected. While the discussion here has focused on use of the L1 for providing correction, the teachers were also observed using it for encouragement purposes as can be seen in the following sub-section.

Giving praise

The use of Arabic was not limited to confirming/echoing the students' contributions. It was also observed that the teachers used Arabic to praise students' accurate contributions as a means of motivation and encouragement. Such use was also documented in previous studies (e.g. Tekin, 2020; Tsagari & Diakou 2015) and is illustrated in the following examples:

Extract 4.15

1. T1: Eywa sah [yes, correct]
2. T2: Ahsant [well done]
3. T8: Momtaz [very good]

The teachers, both native and non-native speakers of Arabic, frequently used code-switching to praise students for providing accurate responses. In examples (1) and (2), the teachers' comments were preceded by the students' contributions in Arabic, which could be the reason for the teachers' use of the L1. In (3), however, T8's comment was preceded by a response in the L2 but he used the L1 to praise the student. The differences show the complexity of the reasons underpinning L1 use. It is difficult to interpret a single core reason for this use of Arabic, but it could be that using the students' own language in such situations might have a greater effect. For example, T2 remarked on his "explicit endorsement" in Arabic, saying "sometimes it is just a spontaneous use while at other times, I deliberately use it epically when addressing a low level student just to make him feel relax". Similar to previous observations, it seemed that T2 sometimes used the L1 to praise the students spontaneously (Tekin, 2020) or subconsciously as part of his teaching experience (Baeshin, 2016). Praise

is generally accompanied with a gesture or a clap and use of the L1 is a clear instance of translanguaging.

The teachers seemed to be fully aware of the importance of such practices for the students' learning process. T8 commented on his use, making an important point:

“When I say a word [in Arabic] and they respond positively, they like it. They know the meaning because if I say excellent, it may not have that in effect as compared to momtaz [excellent]. Because as you know, from schools, in school time, they are accustomed to this word.”

It seems that teachers tend to draw on their teaching styles to meet student's needs (Hall & Cook, 2013) and their expectations (Kalanzadeh et al., 2013). In line with Pablo et al. (2011), teachers' *self-approach* plays a vital role in assessing the situation and employing the appropriate choice accordingly. T8 noted, “This is just one way to, you know, to please the students and to encourage them to know what they did was an excellent job”. T7 stated he praised in Arabic “for motivating them [the students]; for encouraging them”. Thus, while there are also other examples of using the L1 for praise, categorising each use of the L1 is difficult (Liu et al., 2004). It seems that the teachers had different motives that could also overlap with the functions. Whether their uses were just the natural practice of a bilingual speaker or an intended and a purposeful means of increasing the students' motivation, such uses can influence the flow of the lesson, how much instruction the teacher provides and how much information the students learn (Atkinson, 1993). This illustrates the complexity of the language teaching and learning process and it seems that teachers are aware of the effectiveness of translanguaging in facilitating learning.

Multilingual teachers seemed to value the use of the L1 for praising, which is often delivered through culturally relevant signs or expressions. Notably, these examples of code-switching for praising the students were generally accompanied with a gesture or a clap, along with culturally familiar expressions, which can be framed as translanguaging practices, especially as these uses were spontaneous and culturally specific. By using the L1 in this way, the teachers were not merely acknowledging accurate contributions but also supporting students' motivation and sense of belonging. Such effective use has been documented in previous EFL studies, as noted earlier, but seems to be equally valuable in ESAP classrooms. Indeed, I

argue that the benefits of translanguaging practices in ESAP contexts should be emphasised more as they provide emotional support while reinforcing academic achievement.

Summary

This sub-section has highlighted teachers' use of the L1 for feedback-related purposes including correcting and praising students' responses in response to students' needs and emotions and the difficulty of the content. Although several teachers expressed a reluctance to use the L1 for correcting spoken errors, for example, their actual practices contradicted this, especially when such uses reflected an effective and positive means of communication. This mismatch between attitudes and actual use is a recurring point throughout the research; once again, this raises the need for use of the L1 to be addressed through explicit reflection and teacher training.

Furthermore, the use of the L1 for feedback-related purposes reflected translanguaging practices, which not only helped provide clarification but also promoted positive emotions, such as confidence and motivation. The L1 here played a crucial role in maintaining students' engagement, as well as enhancing their comprehension of dense and difficult content. Although the teachers showed a preference for using the L1 for such purposes, their attitudes in general, as shown earlier, leaned more towards adopting a monolingual approach. Nonetheless, they used the L1 to provide various types of feedback and deemed their practices effective and responsive to their students' needs. Hence, again I argue that targeted training on translanguaging might assist in legitimising these intuitive practices and using them more purposively and effectively.

4.4.4 Religious-related purposes

This sub-section explores the use of the L1 for religious and cultural purposes that align with the students' identity and values. The use of familiar expressions in the L1 supported the emotional environment for students and had cultural relevance within the classroom. It should be noted that the use of such expressions was acknowledged and endorsed as they were considered spontaneous and natural. To guide the discussion and analysis of these religious-related functions, Table 4.4 presents the main themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 4.4. Religious-related purposes

Themes	Codes
Religious-related purposes	Religion

Religion

Teachers were observed using code-switching for religious and cultural purposes. These uses of the L1 were frequently observed in several lessons taught by both native and non-native speakers of Arabic as a way of recognising the students' worlds and thus motivating them. An example of a non-native speaker of Arabic code-switching is provided below:

Extract 4.16

T8: Insha Allah [God willing]

This is an Islamic expression used by Muslim people when talking about future actions. It is widely used in the Arab culture and therefore it is difficult to label this expression as L1 use because it is not normally translated into English even by English speakers. It is rather a religious and cultural expression that is also used by non-native speakers of Arabic, in this case T8. Such use was also found in other lessons by Arabic-speaking teachers. One possible reason for this use by T8 is that he was trying to build rapport with the students and perhaps reduce their tension (Ma, 2019) through association with and appeal to their culture and religion. This could also be reasoned to the teachers being fellow Muslims and therefore they used it as part of their religion. T8 explained his use, saying:

“...putting them [students] in their own language is good, especially using these words; Jazak Allah khair [May Allah reward you] and AlhamduleAllah [Thanks to Allah] from their culture so, this culture detachment should not be there.”

The teacher felt that in the English classroom there was sometimes a sense of detachment, which he believed was because of the content of the book and therefore he considered that “when you start speaking their language, the words; Thank you *shokran* [thank you], *alhamduleAllah* [Thanks to Allah] and *Jazak Allah khair* [May Allah reward you], it's motivating sometimes”. This is similar to the study of De La Campa and Nassaji (2009), which found teachers viewed the L2 environment as strange and therefore using the students' L1 to create a less threatening atmosphere would work as a motivational tool. The results of this study agree with a point made by Bukhari (2017), who noted that native speakers of

Arabic use it to create a comfortable environment and reduce stress. In addition, non-native speakers of Arabic probably use it to increase their bond with their students.

Moreover, perhaps, as Canagarajah (2011) found, Arabic has a greater effect when discussing religious aspects due to its connection to the holy book, the Quran, which refers to the words of Allah, and the Hadith, which refers to reports of statements or actions of the prophet Muhammad, peace be upon him. The meaning of these religious terms is delivered better in Arabic and thus teachers employ translanguaging, drawing on a number of aspects shared with the students to create an effective learning environment. The students welcomed such uses, as will be seen in Chapter 5, potentially demonstrating the significance of translanguaging as an important practice across various contexts, including ESAP. Although the teachers' statements on accepting the inclusion of L1 in class focused rather on pedagogical aspects, the data illustrate its usefulness in recognising the students' own world, including their culture, hence highlighting its other effective purposes. This demonstrates that translanguaging a significant multi-purpose resource that can support students' learning as well as other aspects, including fostering a positive and inclusive environment.

Summary

This sub-section has highlighted the use of the L1 for religious-related purposes, believed to foster positive emotions and reinforce students' cultural identity. Both native and non-native speakers of Arabic utilised religious expressions that could reduce stress and establish a sense of familiarity and belonging in the ESAP classroom. While the teachers did not explicitly describe them as such, these translanguaging practices went beyond instructional goals, acknowledging the students' cultural and religious identities. Notably, it was felt that this use was not seen as a matter of consciously using the L1 or L2 but rather as a spontaneous use. They might also reflect a natural effort to connect with students and thus promote a sense of belonging and emotional engagement in the classroom. That is, the translanguaging practices served multiple purposes, including creating inclusive, motivating and emotionally supportive learning environments. Recognising and supporting such practices with teacher training may promote intentional, cultural and responsive pedagogy in such challenging contexts.

4.4.5 Interpersonal-related purposes

This section examines a relatively similar use of translanguaging, and a frequent one, namely for interpersonal purposes. These included using it to make personal comments or joke with the students, the former being more frequent than the latter. These uses incorporate humour into the classroom and enhance classroom interaction. To guide the discussion and analysis of these interpersonal-related functions, Table 4.5 presents the main themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 4.5. Interpersonal-related purposes

Themes	Codes
Interpersonal-related purposes	Personal comment
	Joking/humour

Making personal comments

Switching to the students' own language to make personal comments was frequently observed in the ESAP classrooms. Many of these comments served different functions, such as expressing and sharing personal views, experiences and interests. Among the reported reasons for such uses were to promote critical thinking and motivate the students to participate. The following examples show how Arabic was used in this regard:

Extract 4.17

1. T7: Why do you donate? Baad almoot ma feeh faydah [when you die, you won't benefit from your organs].
2. T7: Wallah ajeebah kelmat sleep [This is a very interesting word].

These examples show the teacher using code-switching to add personal comments, but these remarks may have had underlying purposes, serving functions in addition to the main (primary) purpose. For example, T7, a non-native speaker of Arabic, used it in (1) to comment on the idea of donating after dying, suggesting that it would not make a difference to the person who died as he/she would not know or need the organs. This use of Arabic might have been to share his view and build rapport with the students or to express his point of view clearly and simply. Perhaps he might have been drawing the students' attention to the topic by personalising it, hoping to motivate them to engage; this is highly likely, as this was the last lesson and attendance was low, resulting in low participation. Alternatively, he

could have wanted to inject some humour, pointing out that the person would not need his organs after death and so why not donate. The use of humour was clearer in (2), in which the teacher implicitly suggested that everyone loves sleeping. Using humour in this way may improve the mood of the students and consequently promote learning.

T7 commented on his use of the L1 in example (2), saying “sleep is an easy word. They know the meaning of this word; So, at that time, I was joking with them”, whereas his comment on the second example was “donation is very alien word”. He added:

“This door is open. Why is it open? Look at the other side of the mirror. For example, with donation they say we should do that, It’s a good thing. I said baad almoot ma feeh faydah [when you die, there is no benefit] so there’s another view of this one. Let’s discuss that one because the topic was for discussion, and if they are using some words in English, at least they are conveying their ideas [in English] when they know the topic.”

These instances of code-switching, showing teachers integrate both languages fluidly, are part of wider translanguaging practices. In addition to enriching students’ vocabulary in relation to given the topic, translanguaging was used to promote critical thinking (Csillik & Golubeva, 2020) and to add personal comments (Tekin, 2020). While T7 was noted deliberately encouraging and drawing on students’ knowledge and experience, it should be noted that other teachers used the L1 in the same way. The students responded positively and engaged more as the teachers personalised points using translanguaging. I believe that while translanguaging can be used to facilitate understanding, it can be also used as a powerful strategy for motivating the students and helping them engage with the lesson.

Joking/humour

A similar and frequent purpose was using Arabic to joke, but more directed to joking around with the students rather than adding a funny comment on a point. This was notable in several lessons conducted by both native and non-native speakers of Arabic. For example, the teachers used Arabic to joke with the students or make fun of them in a friendly way. An example of the second type can be seen in the following extract:

Extract 4.18

T8: Ok you are sitting in the zaweyah [corner] so what is the philosophy?

Here T8 used code-switching to joke with a student who was sitting at the back of the class, in the corner. Although this is generally perceived as hiding from sight or avoiding being asked to read or answer questions, it could be this student was introverted and generally shy. The teacher seemed to use Arabic here to joke with him and perhaps more broadly to lift the mood after being in the lesson for about 1 hour and 15 minutes. It could also be that he used it as a rapport builder (Macaro, 1997; Schweers, 1999) to help the students feel relaxed and less stressed (Baeshin, 2016). When asked about the reason for his use of the L1 in this situation, he stated that:

“I usually in the class, you know, since it’s a long time, you know, if we talk about going to classes around one hour and 40 minutes, it’s difficult if I put myself in the student shoe. So, it’s really difficult sitting there for such a long time. So, I just, in order to make it, you know, a little fun, you know, word to amuse, a word I would say, like to make it a little fun for students. So, sometimes, you know, I joke with them that, okay. We send this also, you know, is one way to notify the student and then you should participate. So, when I tell them that, look, there you are sitting in the corner, and when someone is sitting in the corner, there is a philosophy that he or she actually doesn’t want to participate. So, this is just for, you know, to, just for the sake of fun and also to tell the student or to one the students in a polite way that you should participate.”

It seems that Arabic is generally used in situations when the students are “out of mood” (Hall & Cook, 2013) and to motivate them (Mohamed, 2007), especially when the lesson is long. The teachers used translanguaging in a number of ways, to make a joke and draw on learners shared knowledge about who sits in the corner in their culture, with the ultimate goal of promoting an effective learning environment. The teachers seemed to recognise the importance of switching to the L1 in such situations and the students’ mood and engagement were positively influenced by these instances of translanguaging. I believe that such uses demonstrate that the L1 is seen as effective strategy as well as necessary for learning the L2.

As with previous uses of Arabic, the questionnaire findings were valuable in understanding whether teachers’ attitudes matched their observed practices. As shown in Figure 4.24, although a good number of teachers would “always” ($N = 3$, 20%) or “rarely” ($N = 3$, 20%) use Arabic to joke with the students and create a good classroom atmosphere, most responses were clustered around the centre, with a higher percentage reporting they would “often” (13.3%) or “sometimes” (40%) use the L1 for these purposes. These indicate favourable

attitudes towards the use of the L1 in this regard. Alsuhaibani (2015) also reported that teachers like to joke in the L2 often (44.4%) and sometimes (38.9%). This was also confirmed by other studies (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013; Kim & Elder, 2008), which found that teachers favour using Arabic to create a friendly atmosphere.

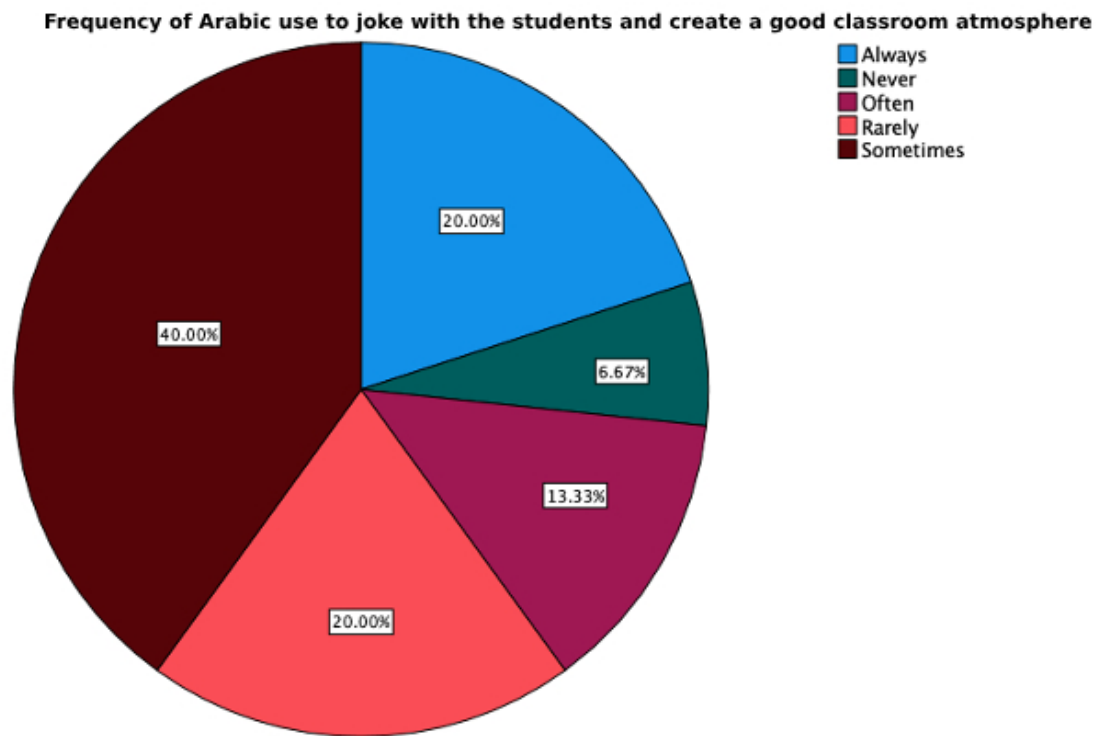


Figure 4.24. Use of the L1 to joke with students and create a good classroom atmosphere.

In terms of the underlying reasons for the teachers' views, the follow-up interviews offered important insights into teachers' thinking. T15 commented on his preference for using Arabic to joke, saying:

“...sometimes, on funny occasions in class, you have to be in a good relationship with the students when they say something and then you start to joke about it with them by manipulating words just to show that I am joking with them. I joke with them in English but sometimes they don't understand and therefore I try Arabic.”

The above comment explained why teachers have a lower tendency to use it for such purposes. The word *sometime* and *when they don't understand* indicate a higher preference for limiting the use of the L1. Nonetheless, it can be said that teachers still use it. Similar to this study, Macaro (1997) and Pablo et al. (2011) concluded that teachers joke in the L1 to

build a good relationship with the students. However, they found different reasons for using the L1 to joke, such as helping the students engage in the lesson (Bukhari, 2017) and feel relaxed and comfortable (Baeshin, 2016), as well as sustaining a non-threatening environment (e.g. Raschka et al., 2009). While these motives seem similar to those underlying teachers' views and actual use, the lower preference for L1 use to joke around and create a good classroom atmosphere could be attributed to the tendency to restrict its use to pedagogical purposes. These practices can be conceptualised as a form of translanguaging, with teachers drawing on students' full repertoire to promote learning but to exploit it fully, it is evident that teachers might need targeted training on effective uses of translanguaging.

Summary

This section has shown how teachers use the L1 for interpersonal-related purposes. These include adding personal comments and joking with students. These spontaneous and dynamic acts of code-switching by native and non-native speakers of Arabic were not only employed for commenting on a point but served deeper purposes, such as building rapport, sustaining attention and encouraging student participation. In addition, they helped personalise the lessons and create a more relaxed and engaging atmosphere. These different uses of the L1 further support the view that translanguaging in ESAP classrooms goes beyond facilitating understanding, with teachers seeking to foster a positive and interactive learning atmosphere. However, the findings also demonstrate that teachers' attitudes conflict with their practices since they would only use the L1 as a last resort. Teacher-training programmes can play a crucial role in helping teachers stay informed about recent studies on the merits of translanguaging. Consequently, this would help promote more purposeful integration of the L1 in ways that enhance student engagement, emotional well-being and ultimately L2 development.

4.5 Teachers' attitudes towards broader aspects of L1 use: Purposes, factors and situations beyond observed practices

Building on the insights into teachers' actual practices and related views on such uses, the aim of this section is to shed light on unobserved yet important views drawn from the remaining questionnaire and follow-up interview data. These insights help contextualise teachers' broader orientations towards L1 use, shedding light on various other purposes,

factors and situations influencing their language choice not captured during the classroom observation. These include unobserved or undiscussed uses and reasons for L1 use, particularly those which fall outside the scope of the teaching process, such as discussing course/lesson objectives and the length of the syllabus. This order of this section will follow the sequence of the items in the questionnaire (see Appendix B).

4.5.1 Attitudes towards functions/purposes of L1 use

This part explores teachers' attitudes towards a range of functions for which the L1 might be utilised in ESAP classrooms. It aims to examine not only how often teachers would use the L1 for particular purposes but also to understand the underlying reasons behind their views. In doing so, it offers a valuable insight into how teachers would use or perceive unobserved purposes in their ESAP classroom.

Discussing course/lesson objectives

The first of these purposes is using the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives. As shown in Figure 4.25, 8 teachers (53.3%) chose “rarely” and 6 (40%) chose “sometimes”, whereas only (6.67%) chose “always”. These responses indicate a lower preference for using Arabic for this purpose.

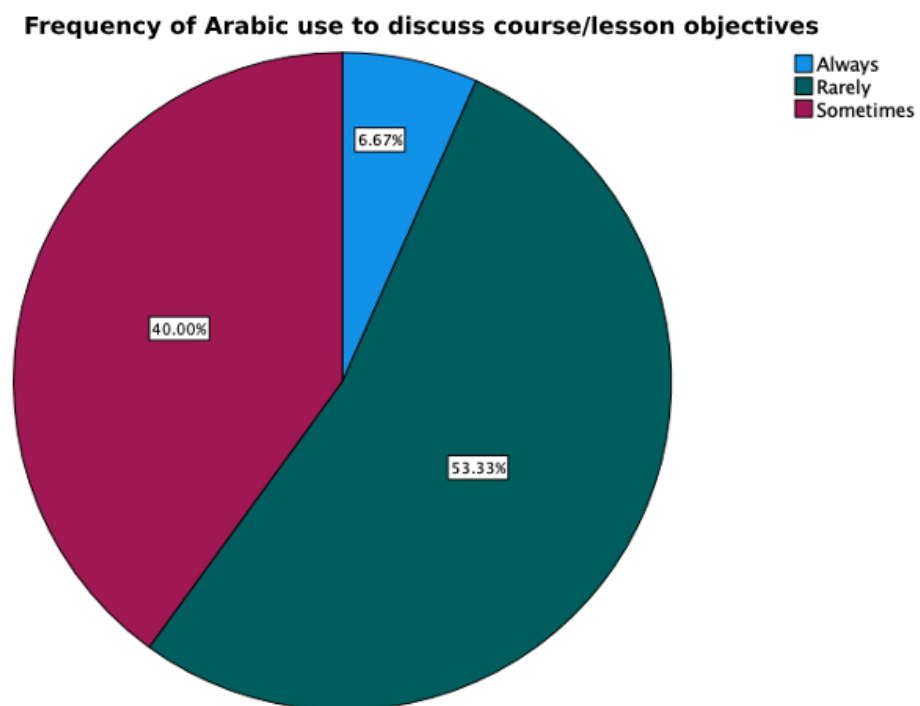


Figure 4.25. Teachers' responses to the use of the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives.

The follow-up interviews were useful in uncovering the underlying reasons behind these preferences and clarifying their decision-making processes concerning using the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives. For example, T11 explained his preference for Arabic, saying “I prefer to use Arabic in the beginning of the semester, such as when talking about the curriculum and distribution of the marks and other information related to teaching because I don’t know their levels”. Similar findings were obtained by Samar and Moradkhani (2014), namely that teachers prefer to use the L1 at the beginning of the semester. The above response, again, indicates the teachers employed their own judgement concerning L1 use rather than being influenced by other factors, such as institutional policy. Although the teachers might have been aiming to ensure understanding, I believe that they could have unconsciously recognised such discussions fell outside the scope of the teaching process and therefore used the L1 to explain some processes, such as examinations and marks.

Giving instructions to students when administering tests

Another purpose of L1 use asked about in the questionnaire was giving instructions during tests. Similar to discussing course objectives, test administration could be seen as falling outside the teaching process, although there was a higher tendency to use the L1 for the latter. Figure 4.26 demonstrates that most teachers favoured using Arabic “often” ($N = 6$, 40%) and “sometimes” ($N = 5$, 33.3%).

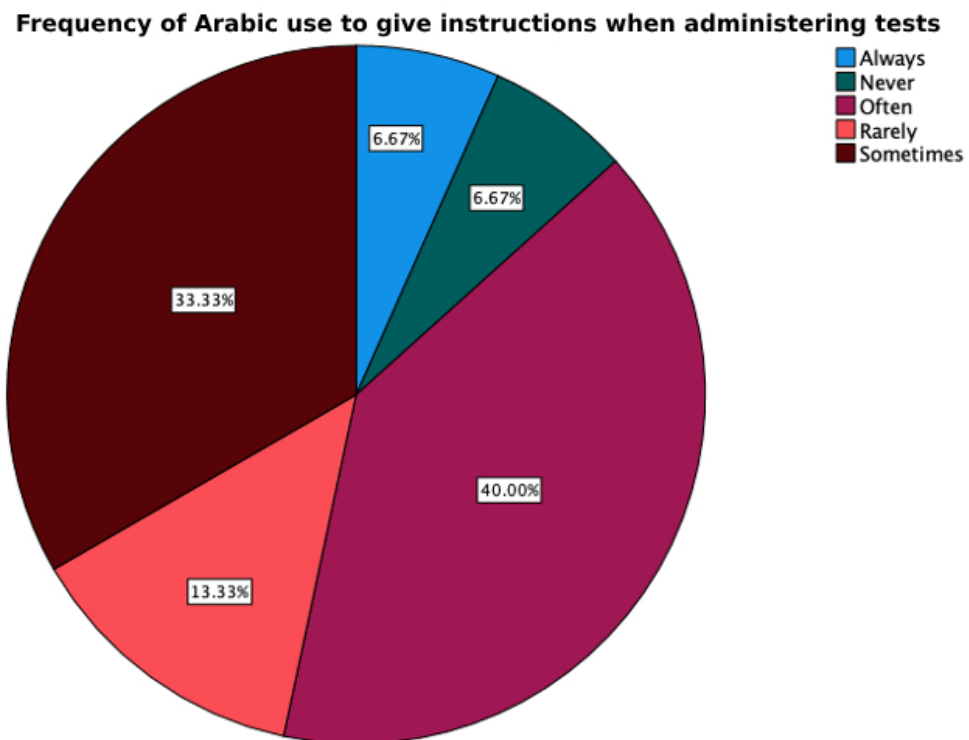


Figure 4.26. Use of the L1 to give instructions during tests.

While the questionnaire data showed a tendency towards such use, the follow-up interviews were particularly valuable in unpacking the reasoning for teachers' decisions. T13, for instance, stated, that "these are important information. I need to use Arabic to ensure all students understand the assignments and exams instruction in order to avoid anyone saying I did not understand". T1 added that "students might miss a point". T5 took the same view but for a different reason, noting "our anticipation is that the student would not understand and therefore as a moral obligation we have to ensure that he understands". While these comments indicate the importance of using students' own language to ensure understanding of important instructions, T12 disagreed with using the L1 to give an instruction during a test, stating that "I explain it in English because they are simple, and I don't need to use Arabic". These comments indicate that teachers do not perceive such use to be a part of the teaching process. Rather, they seem to consider the importance of the information and the ability of the students to comprehend certain specific details in determining whether to use Arabic.

Checking attendance

Another function identified in the questionnaire was the use of Arabic for taking students' attendance. While this may appear to be a routine administrative task, it shed light on their broader language ideologies. They seemed to prefer using English for this purpose. Figure 4.27 demonstrates that the teachers did not favour using Arabic to check or take student attendance, choosing "never" ($N = 3$, 20%), "rarely" and "sometimes" (both $N = 4$, 26.7%).

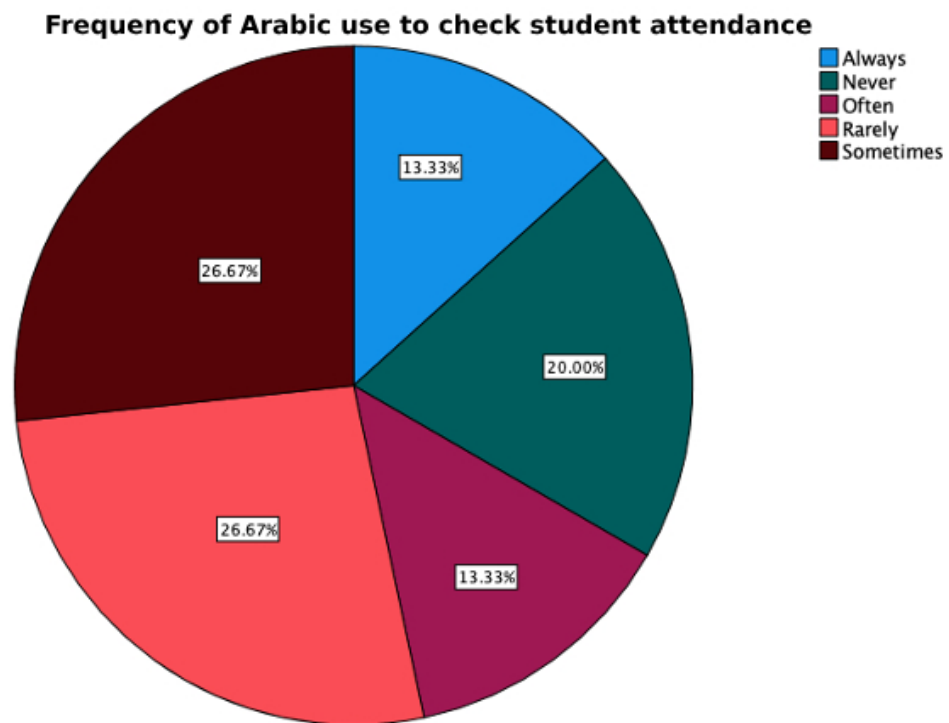


Figure 4.27. Use of the L1 to check attendance.

The follow-up interviews helped understand teachers' underlying reasons for their preference. For example, T2 noted that "I focus on English to help students use and practice English in situations irrelevant to the lessons". The data indicate that teachers preferred the use of English for this purpose although they used Arabic in all the classes observed. This further confirm the conflict between teachers' attitudes and practices. It may be that for such purposes, the teachers employ translanguaging as a natural means of communication that they try to conceal (García, 2009).

Overall, the teachers showed preferences for some purposes more than others. They seemed to lean more towards those related to the teaching and learning processes than, for example,

taking attendance. Their reasons largely were concerned with comprehension. This might demonstrate the need acknowledgement of the potential of own language use for reasons other than pedagogical purposes, including creating a friendly environment.

4.5.2 Factors influencing L1 use

Building on the previous subsection, concerning teachers' attitudes towards using the L1 for specific purposes, this part examines the broader factors that might influence their language choice in their ESAP classrooms. It examines the factors that led teachers to feel more inclined to use the L1, including length of the syllabus and the shape and size of the class.

Teaching large numbers of students

Although none of the teachers commented on the influence of teaching large classes on their language choice, the questionnaire data were revealing. As shown in Figure 4.28, most teachers ($N = 8$, 53.3%) agreed with the use of L1 when teaching large numbers of students, with most choosing “strongly agree” and “agree”. This high preference could be attributed to the fact that large classes would generally include multiple levels of students which would affect the teachers' choice of language.

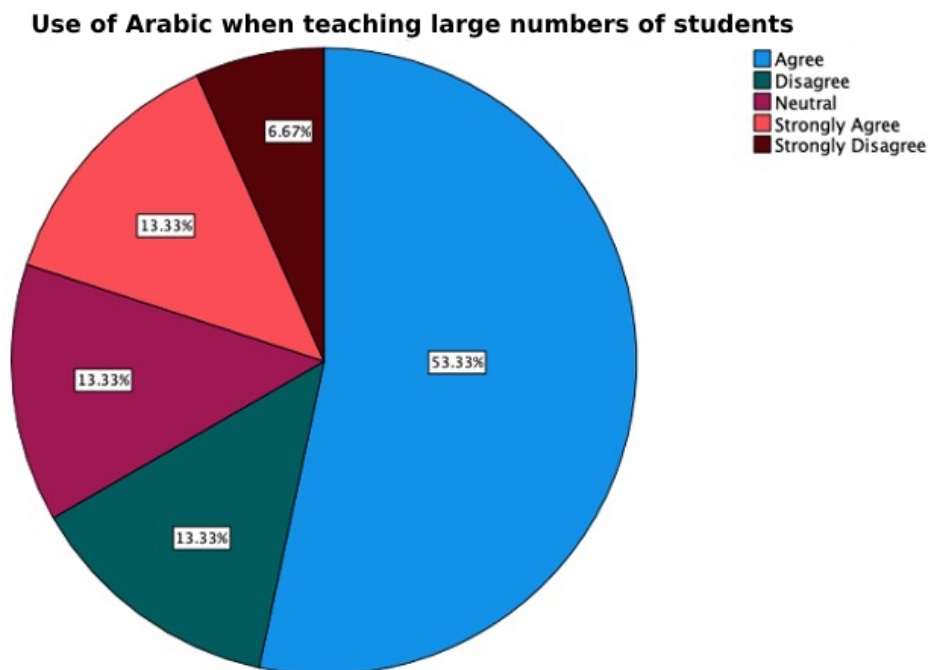


Figure 4.28. Use of the L1 when teaching large numbers of students.

The follow-up interview data revealed different perspectives on whether the number of students in class influenced teachers' L1 use. T13 stated that "I do not agree with it because there might be a high number of students but they are at a high level", whereas T12 thought it would influence his decision, noting that "I agree with using Arabic just to organise the class" and said this was "because some of them might not focus but when you use Arabic you get their attention". Hence, the presence of large number of students might cause disciplinary issues. The use of Arabic, as discussed earlier, might have a greater effect on the students and thus be used to attract their attention. The fact that more than half of the teachers agreed with its use for such purposes indicates its important role in large classes.

Use of the L1 when teaching in a lecture hall

Building on the previous subsection on the effect of large classes on the use of the L1, this part is concerned with its use when teaching in a lecture hall. I believe that both factors are related since teaching large number of students would be in lecture halls rather than in small class. However, none of the classes observed were in lecture halls. Some classes had fixed seating arrangements, splitting students and forcing them to work alone. This also forced the teacher to lead the discussion and involve the students, as also found by (Franklin, 1990), for example by using the L1 to personalise the topic or motivate the students to participate.

The questionnaire data indicate that teachers' attitudes regarding the use of the L1 when teaching in a lecture hall were positive. Figure 4.29 demonstrates that most (N = 6, 40%) agreed, while 5 (33.3%) were neutral and 20% disagreed. Hence, this factor might affect the use of the L1.

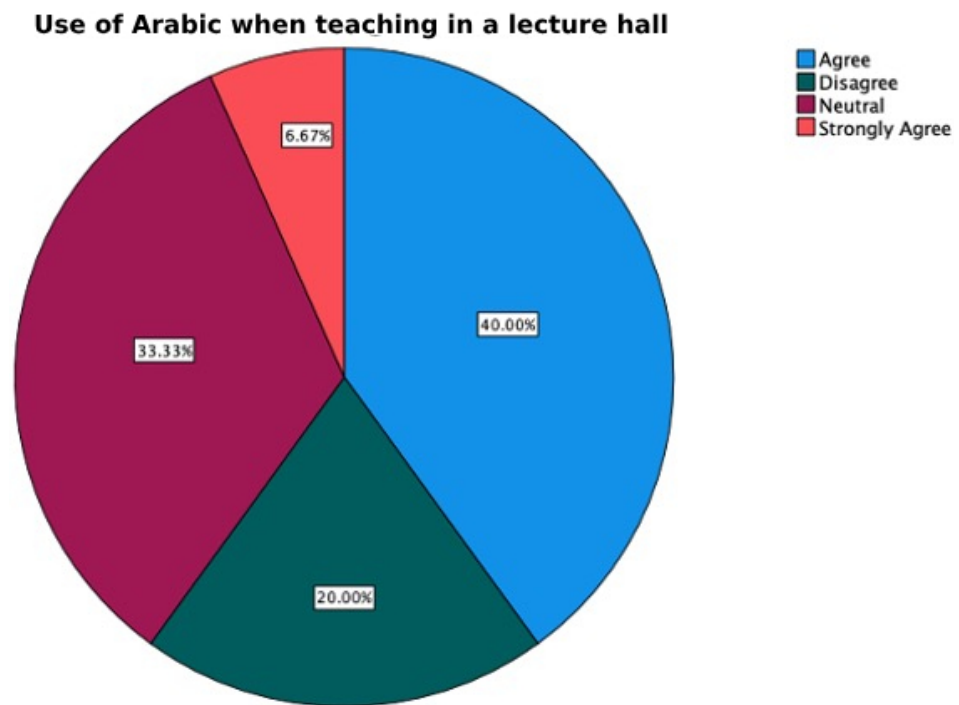


Figure 4.29. Use of the L1 when teaching in a lecture hall.

Addressing an overloaded syllabus

This part explores whether the length of the syllabus affects teachers' use of the L1. Figure 4.30 shows that while 6 teachers (40%) preferred to use Arabic to cope with the lengthy syllabus, about half were neutral and disagreed (each $N = 4$, 26.7%). This indicates that teachers might be influenced by such factor.

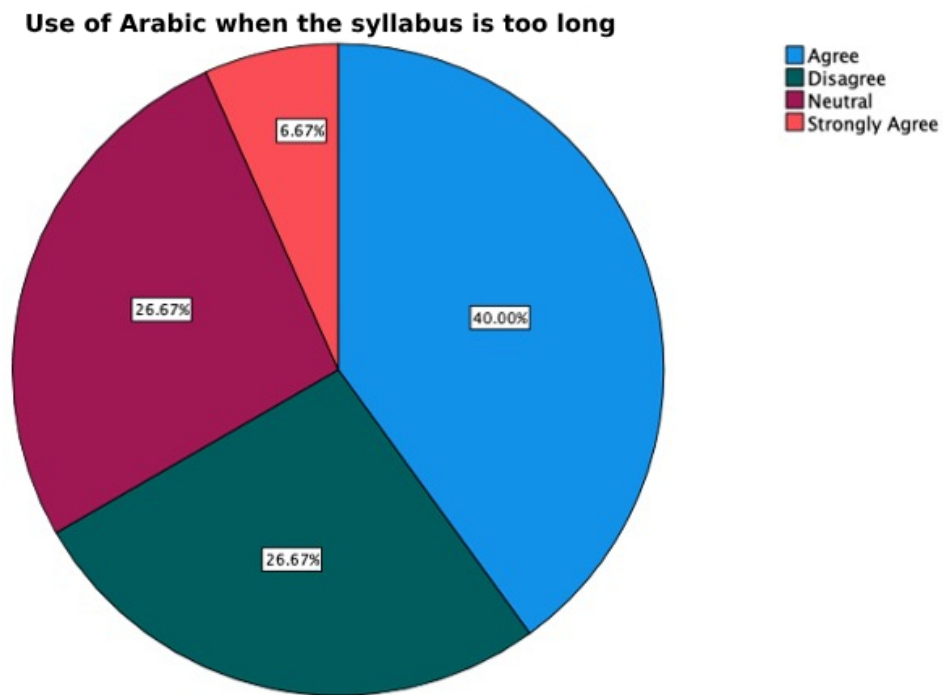


Figure 4.30. Use of the L1 to cover an overloaded syllabus.

The follow-up interviews offered a valuable insight into teachers' underlying reasons for their views. While T11 thought that he could find a way to maintain teaching in the L2 under such circumstances, T13 disagreed, stating that "sometimes you have too much to cover while you have limited time. So, you use Arabic to accelerate the process and finish the lesson". This relates to the earlier discussion of the L1 use to save time. However, the previous discussion viewed the positive side of the L1 in saving time for the practice stage rather than spending too much time on the presentation stage. This is believed to be of value in enabling the students to learn how they can use the language. In contrast, having to use Arabic due to constraints on time perhaps highlights a negative side of using the L1. These include using it as an easy option (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009) and particularly due to laziness (Edstrom, 2006). Thus, teachers need to be aware of their own practices, including the effectiveness of their language choices and the influence on the teaching and learning processes.

Other reported factors

The respondents were also given the opportunity to add other factors unstated in the questionnaire. One teacher proposed that he would use Arabic "when teaching students

having no chance of using English in their daily lives”, while another said that “translating leaves no room for error, it’s a better option than toiling over verbose explanations”. The first comment relates to the students’ daily lives and the city they live in, where opportunities to practise the L2 are scarce. However, as seen in the presentation of the students’ attitudes, some were extremely motivated to learn the L2 and practised it both in and outside the classroom. Thus, despite the importance of the L1 for both teachers and students, it should be used wisely to enhance the students’ learning experience.

Overall, the teachers highlighted the influence of various factors in affecting their use of Arabic. These predominantly included teaching large classes, which generally encompass students at various levels. They also reported the impact of teaching large numbers of students on the maintenance of attention and discipline. Nonetheless, it can be said that teachers are more concerned with the situation at hand than being driven to consistent usage by particular factors. That is, they would continue to use the L2 as long as the students could understand. This might demonstrate that L1 use is largely used as a device for tackling problems rather than as a valuable and valid resource.

4.5.3 Situations in which L1 use might be considered appropriate

Having explored the broader purposes and factors concerning L1 use, this sub-section addresses teachers’ attitudes in relation to employing Arabic in particular situations within the ESAP classroom. While previous sections discussed *how* and *why* teachers use the L1, this part focuses on *when* they believe it is appropriate to do so.

Trying to avoid making errors in English

One of those surveyed situations was the use of the L1 to avoid making errors in English. This includes teachers’ switches to the L1 to avoid making errors in front of their students. The questionnaire data illustrated that the teachers were primarily against this use, with more than half either disagreeing or strongly disagreeing (see Figure 4.31). Nonetheless, some expressed a preference for using the L1 to avoid making errors, as also found by Lu and Fehring (2015).

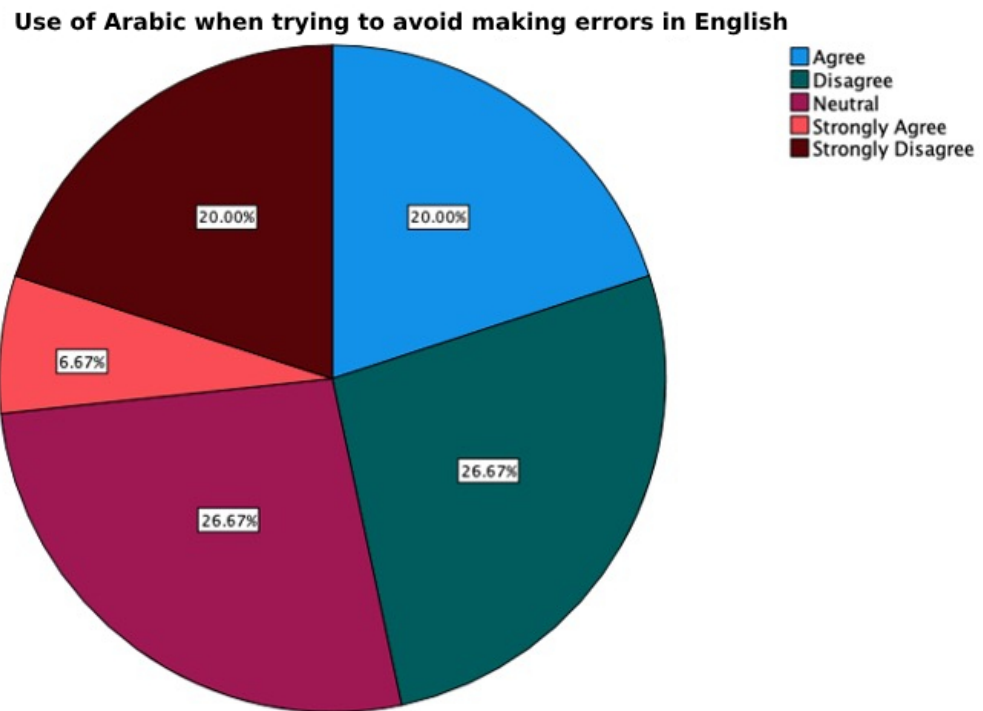


Figure 4.31. Use of the L1 to avoid making errors in English.

Teaching students largely focused on the examination

Another situation that influenced teachers' attitudes towards use of the L1 was teaching students who were largely focused on the examination. While only one teacher reasoned his use of the L1 for explaining vocabulary and grammar based on most examination items being about them, Figure 4.32 illustrates that more than half of the teachers ($N = 4$) chose "strongly agree" (26.7%) and "agree" (26.7%) to using the L1. This indicates the effect of students' learning objectives on teachers' choice of language.

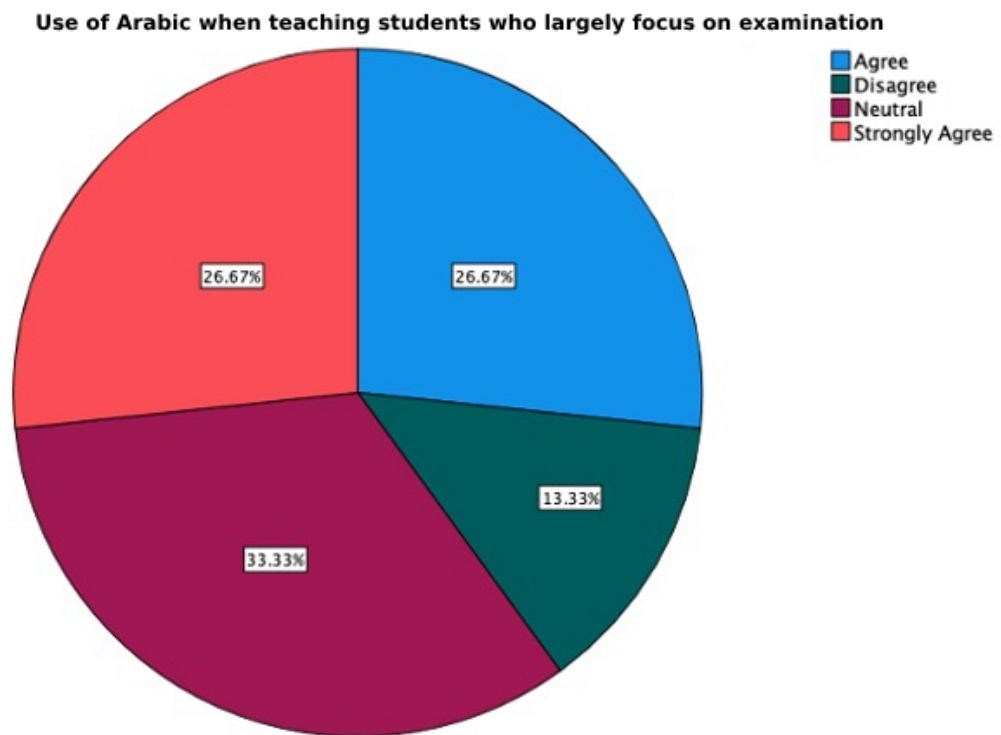


Figure 4.32. Use of the L1 with students focused on examinations.

The follow-up interviews showed further complexity. T5 preferred to use Arabic, stating this was “because we have a problem that the students come to class, and they are worried about the grades not about learning”. However, all the other teachers interviewed felt it would be better to use English. For instance, T11 said this was “because using Arabic would not benefit the students”. T12 maintained that “the students have to learn English” and added that speaking Arabic “is not part of the ELC and the university policy”. T13 said, “I do not agree because you have to control the process of teaching”. It might be that many teachers felt that they would use Arabic to explain certain points for the students to understand them. However, they were aware of the importance of the L2 and the policy concerning its use. The focus on teaching particular points in the L1, in addition to its use for motivating the students and creating a positive environment, might be attributed to the fact that the students were concerned with the examinations and marks. In addition, perhaps they felt safer expressing this preference in the questionnaire rather than in the interviews as it might not reflect the practices of a “good” teacher.

Inability to simplify

While teachers generally disfavoured the use of the L1 to avoid making errors in English, a different situation elicited a more favourable response: namely when teachers were unable to simplify. Figure 4.33 shows that most ($N = 6$, 40%) agreed, while a few ($N = 2$, 13.3%) strongly agreed. Perhaps this preference could be attributed to the fact that such use is viewed as a more acceptable strategy since it places students and their comprehensions as the main reasons.

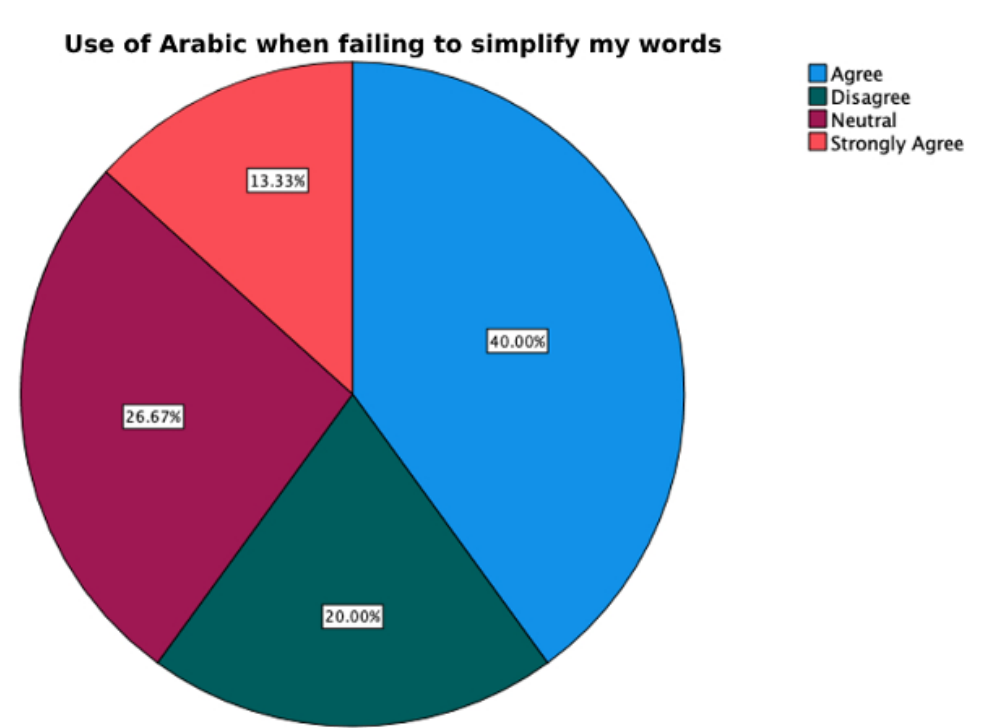


Figure 4.33. Use of the L1 when unable to simplify words.

One main reason for this was the difficulty of the ESAP content. Moreover, the presence of low-level students could further complicate the issue, making it harder for teachers to simplify specialised terminologies with specific definitions. I believe that these issues highlight the need for use of the L1 in such a challenging context.

Students feeling tired

In addition to challenges in terms of simplification, another situation addressed in the questionnaire was concerned with the use of the L1 when feeling tired. When asked about

using Arabic due to tiredness, opinions were divided, with 2 teachers (13.3%) strongly agreeing and 4 (26.7%) agreeing, but 6 (40%) disagreeing (see Figure 4.34). Still, some teachers in this study and in other studies (e.g. Pablo et al., 2011) reported using the L1 in this case – a point discussed above.

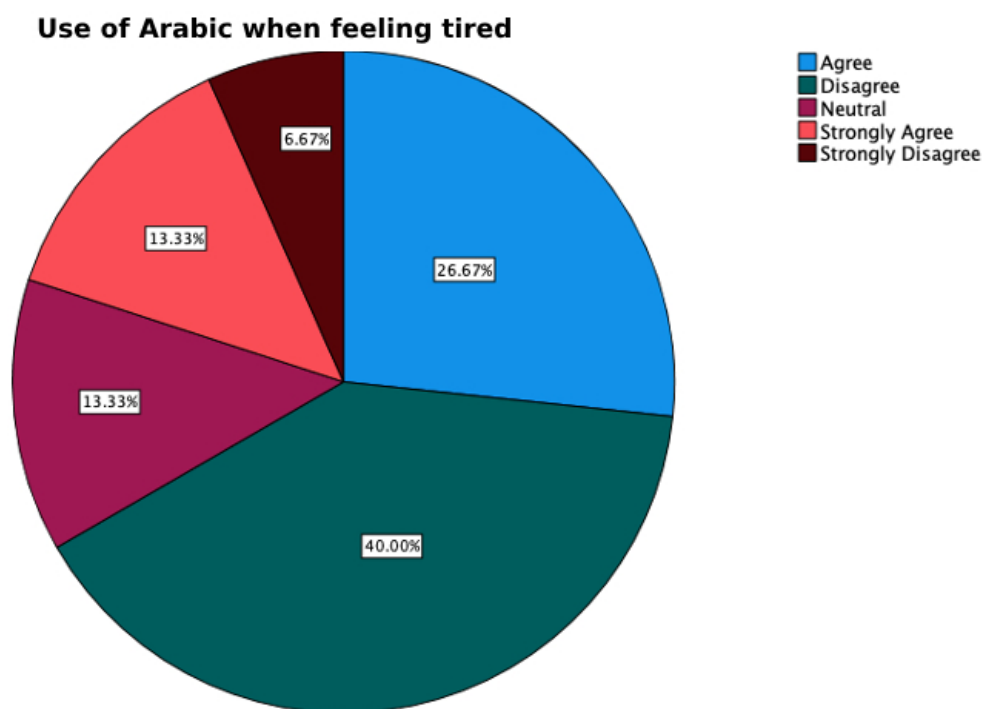


Figure 4.34. Use of the L1 when feeling tired.

Other reported situations in which the L1 might be used

Moreover, teachers were given a chance to add situations in which they felt it would be appropriate to use Arabic. One teacher wrote “when learners are unable to get a clear understanding after the teacher’s tried his level best to inculcate ideas and concepts”. This further confirms teachers’ preferences for using the L1 as a last resort. However, it also implies that they did not acknowledge the importance of own language use as an effective strategy, rather viewing it instrumentally.

During the follow-up interviews, different teachers reported similar situations. For example, T13 noted that “Sometimes I use Arabic when I think it would help them comprehend something”. He added, “I use Arabic when students do not understand a certain word or a definition to deliver the meaning effectively”. T12 also mentioned “when the words are new

or difficult and they do not get it". Thus, the general principle underlying teachers' attitudes was to use the L1 as a last resort. This included when students did not understand an explanation or several attempts had been made to explain a point. However, the teachers' view that using L1 was a method of last resort was not borne out in their practices as the data obtained from the observation and the stimulated recall interviews demonstrated that they sometimes used the L1 for various reasons, such as to gain students' attention.

To summarise, while the teachers had different opinions concerning the use of the L1 to avoid making errors in English, others accepted it when simplification was difficult, which might be due to the challenging nature of ESAP content, as well as issues with low student proficiency. Although L1 use was framed as a last resort, the classroom observations and interviews revealed quite frequent use for various purposes and reasons, including using it for interpersonal purposes to create a friendly atmosphere.

4.6 Summary

Overall, this chapter has addressed RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3 through examining teachers' attitudes towards and actual use of the L1. It has drawn on classroom observations, stimulated recall interviews, questionnaire findings, and follow-up interviews to provide a comprehensive account of perceived and actual use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms. In particular, Sections 4.2 and 4.3 explored attitudes towards the inclusion and frequency of use of the L1. Most teachers showed acceptance of L1 use.

The teachers reported a preference for using it only for explaining vocabulary and grammar when difficulties arose. Their views point towards a monoglossic and instrumental view of language, leaning towards preferring an English immersive approach. Therefore, they would rather avoid the L1 than acknowledge the merits of translanguaging for the teaching and learning process.

The observations, in contrast, provided evidence of the teachers valuing the use of the L1 for various functions, including explaining vocabulary, clarifying instructions and joking around. However, it was largely used for explaining technical terms to build knowledge in the L1 and/or pin down the exact meaning of terms and scaffold students' understanding.

The stimulated recall interviews demonstrated that the teachers employed their own judgment when using the L1 in various situations, for instance to address low proficiency and comprehension issues reflected in low responses and lack of motivation. While similar findings have been documented in previous EFL and EAP studies, the findings of this study signify their importance in the ESAP classroom, especially with the highly challenging content.

These findings demonstrate tensions between teachers' reported attitudes and their actual classroom practices, consistent with prior research. The teachers indicated a preference for using the L1 generally for pedagogical purposes but the classroom observations illustrated that its use extended to other purposes, often driven by fluid and strategic uses of Arabic, although the teachers might not recognise them as translanguaging. Although the teachers did not see the value in using the L1 to correct students' errors, they were very frequently provoked into using it by students' incorrect contributions, as well as in response to the students' various needs and to promote learning, highlighting the importance of translanguaging as a dynamic and responsive practice. While the teachers tended to employ and value translanguaging, it remained largely unrecognised that this was the practice they were engaging in.

The reported underlying reasons for L1 use demonstrate that in spite of the teachers' ideological positions, using Arabic was necessary in this particular context due to the demands of teaching complex specialised terms and supporting the development of academic English for students with mixed abilities. The L1 could be seen as an indispensable resource in the classroom, with teachers drawing upon the full repertoires available to them to support the teaching and learning process. The teachers' ideologies and what shaped them could be the main reasons for their recognition of their practices as legitimate and effective – or not – in supporting content mastery, language growth and an effective learning environment. Hence, I argue for targeted training in translanguaging to help teachers (re)consider their perspectives and legitimise their practices, enabling them to employ the L1 more purposefully and effectively in a range of ways.

Chapter 5. Analysis and Discussion of Students' Attitudes and Actual Use of the L1 in ESAP Classrooms

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter focused on exploring teachers' attitudes and actual uses of the L1 in ESAP classrooms. This chapter now turns to examining students' attitudes towards L1 use and actual practices. As with the teachers' data, insights were gathered through observations followed by stimulated recall interviews, which provided an initial lens into how and why Arabic was used. This was then followed by a questionnaire and follow-up interviews, which helped unpack students' attitudes towards their teachers' use of Arabic and the reasons for their views.

This chapter examines students' views and use of their own language for various purposes: pedagogical, instructional, feedback and interpersonal purposes. Moreover, it sheds light on the different underlying reasons for students' L1 use, including their level of confidence, proficiency and motivation, all of which affect their preference for and uses of the L1. This chapter also focuses on students' views concerning how their teachers should use the L1, along with the underlying reasons for those views. This includes students' attitudes towards the inclusion, frequency, functions, factors and situations in which the L1 should be used.

In response to RQ1, concerning how and why students use Arabic in class, the first part of this study employed classroom observations with eight ESAP groups in the technical and medical streams to understand how students utilised their own language. Seven groups were observed twice and one group was observed only once because it was their final lesson. The classes observed, as indicated in Chapter 3, typically comprised 25–30 students who were taught by one teacher. Following the classroom observation, stimulated recall interviews were undertaken with 11 students, aiming to explore their reasons for their uses of Arabic.

In response to RQ2 and RQ3, the study used a survey conducted through MS Forms, followed by follow-up interviews to examine students' attitudes towards their teachers' use of Arabic and the underlying reasons for their views. The survey was deemed useful for understanding students' views regarding the inclusion and purposes of L1 use and situations

in which Arabic should be used. The first section focused on exploring students' attitudes concerning the inclusion of Arabic in ESAP classes. The second part aimed to examine the preferred frequency of L1 use. The third part asked about how and how often teachers should use Arabic. The fourth and fifth sections aimed to understand the participants' views of the factors and situations which should influence teachers' use of Arabic. The final section addressed the students' domain of ESAP. For more details, see Appendix C. The follow-up interviews provided a deeper understanding of the reasons for the students' views. Out of 1,268 students, 134 completed the questionnaire and 15 participated in the follow-up interviews.

This chapter follows a similar structure and analytical decisions outlined in the previous chapter concerning the teachers' responses (see 4.1). Hence, the presentation of findings begins with students' attitudes towards the inclusion of the L1 (see 5.2) and frequency of use (see 5.3). There is then an analysis of the practices observed, together with responses indicating the students' attitudes concerning how and why their teachers should use Arabic for certain purposes and reasons (see 5.4). Following the same order as in Chapter 4 helps provide a clear understanding of the students' beliefs before examining the extent to which these align with or differ from their teachers' responses. The remaining responses to the questionnaires and the follow-up interviews that fall outside this scope are then addressed separately in Section 5.5. Finally, the findings are presented for each theme (e.g. pedagogical-related purposes) and code (e.g. general vocabulary, academic vocabulary and ESAP vocabulary). For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

5.2 Students' attitudes towards the inclusion of L1 use

This section responds to RQ2 and RQ3, which aimed to explore students' attitudes towards L1 use and the reasons for their views, drawing on the questionnaire and the follow-up interviews. Together, their responses offer a valuable lens on their views concerning the use of Arabic in their ESAP classroom before moving on to examine their actual use of the L1, which will be explored in Section 5.4.

First, the questionnaire results showed positive responses towards their teachers' use of the L1. Similar to the findings from the teachers' data (71%), most of the students (69%) liked their teachers to use Arabic in their ESAP classes (see Figure 5.1). This indicates that they

also viewed Arabic as important for their learning, although some students from the technical group (27%) and from the medical group (33%) favoured English.

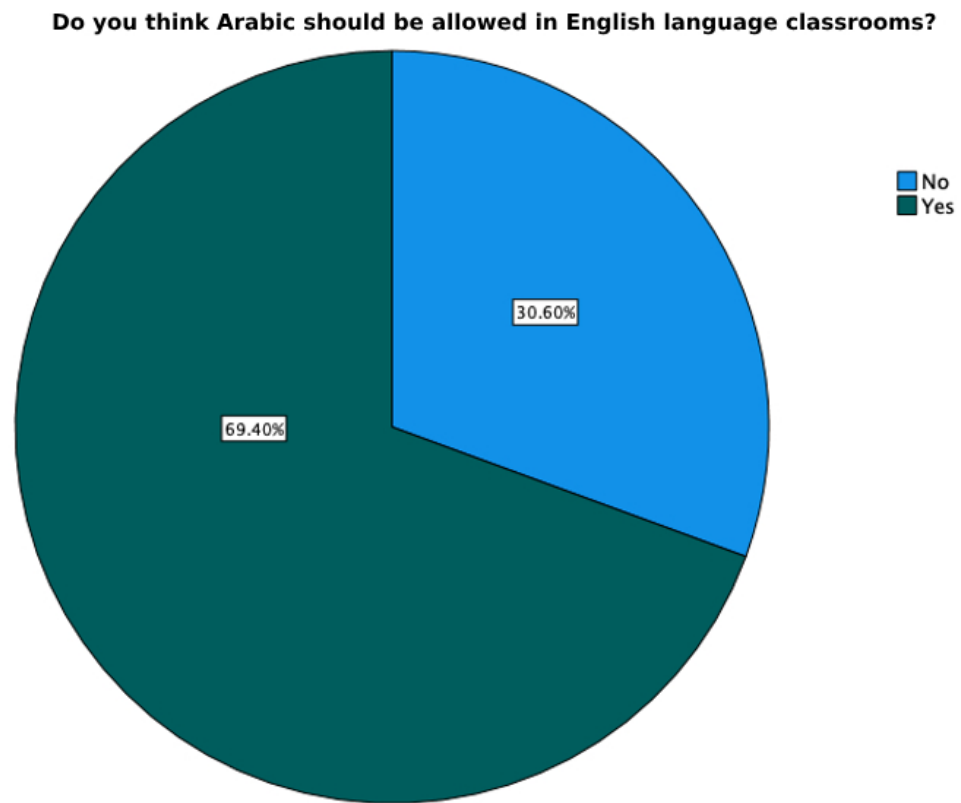


Figure 5.1. Students' attitudes toward the use of the L1 in ESAP classes.

Similarly, Tang (2002), Al-Nofaie (2010) and Kovačić and Kirinić (2011) found most students (around 70%) favoured use of the L1 in their classroom, although Alsuhaibani (2015) found that most students (53.1%) did not wish their teachers to use the L1. Perhaps the main reason for this difference is that in Alsuhaibani's (2015) study, the students were either studying general English or were majors, whereas this study involved ESAP students who might need more L1 due to the specialised vocabulary in their courses.

The follow-up interviews were helpful in providing additional insights, revealing the reasons for the attitudes the students expressed. One particular finding was that the students seemed be more open to the use of the L1 than their teachers, especially in the early stages of learning. S12 explained his view, stating:

“Yes, I prefer the teacher to use it with the difficult points which we do not understand such as in the beginning of the course when the teacher does not know the level of vocabulary for each student. So, if there is a point difficult, he should explain it in Arabic to deliver the information. After that, he can start using English because in the beginning you can’t talk to someone [in English] when he has a very low level of vocabulary.”

S23 also touched upon a crucial point, namely that if the teacher immersed them in an English environment, they might not understand much of what he said. They believed that since they could all speak Arabic, the L1 could be used to help with understanding difficult points. As S13 put it:

“...the level of each person is different. When I first started learning English, I couldn’t understand anything because I didn’t know anything about English. When the teacher tried to teach me in English, I couldn’t understand anything from him...How would you teach me in English when I don’t understand anything from you?”

Both students stressed the importance of L1 use at the beginning of the semester. It could be noted that they favoured the L1 to be used to a large extent due to their low level. Thus, a major reason for such views is the level of the students. It seems that they accepted the use of the L1 at lower levels to scaffold their learning.

However, in follow-up interview, S21 expressed a preference for his teacher to use both Arabic and English:

“...mixing both of them which means in the beginning the teacher can explain in English and then if there is no response from the students or students seem inactive, he should start explaining in Arabic because sometimes Arabic sticks in the mind. The students will then start to understand English because they know the main idea.”

He added, “Arabic helps us understand and I think most of the students would probably agree with me that Arabic helps us understand”. S18 favoured the use of the L1 because “the explanation in Arabic helps”. S16 thought that “we have to come to an understanding with the teacher to facilitate English to us through the use of translation”. Similar to Alsuhaibani (2015), these views show that the reasons and preferences differ from one student to another. Yet, they seem to agree with the teachers’ use of the L1, especially when they face difficulties, for example with vocabulary. Contrary to the previous views, these students accepted the mixture of L1 and the L2 as facilitating learning, without reference to their

levels. They recognised the usefulness of their own language in facilitating the input and its retention, a point discussed by Hall and Cook (2012). This acceptance was governed by their level of understanding, that is, the teacher should employ translanguaging only when they do not understand.

From a strong or balanced preference to more restricted use, there were students who expressed a wish for limited use of the L1. As S17 put it, “not to use Arabic all the time, but to clarify the content”. S18 expressed the same view, stating:

“[The teacher] should use it but just a little. For example, when I hear a word that I don’t know, I use Google translate but it sometimes gives me an inaccurate meaning or a wrong meaning. So, it’s better if the teacher translates the words but not always.”

He added, “if he constantly translates the vocabulary, it will not help memorising it” and continued “so he should not translate directly”. S12 favoured the use of Arabic sometimes, saying “with some of the words that are extremely difficult. I think it would be okay if he uses Arabic”. S15 was of a relatively similar opinion to S25, saying “he should use it but not widely”. He said, “if the lesson is explained in Arabic, the student will not benefit but it will facilitate his study for the exam”. However, he believed that the students “would not benefit in terms of acquiring the language as they will only memorise the words”. This seems to match teachers’ reasons for using the L1 to help students with their examinations. While these students agreed with limited use of the L1, they seemed to have different views concerning its effectiveness. While one student was of the view that using the L1 facilitated input and retention, S25 disagreed.

Despite their overall preference, 31% did not favour L1 use. Only two students participated in the follow-up interview, which was effective in exploring students’ underlying beliefs. S20 revealed “in my early stages of English, I needed the teacher to explain in Arabic because I didn’t have this level of knowledge”. As for now, he said:

“I prefer the lesson to be fully in English because I have reached a level where I don’t feel that I need Arabic. The use of Arabic would not allow me to improve unless I depend on myself more and more...you have to depend on yourself as at this point. You need the teacher to teach you in English. If you do not learn in English, you won’t step forward beyond your current level.”

S26 explained the reason for his view, stating “we have studied English throughout the years from primary to secondary school, in some private language schools, and in our daily life. I also watch series and movies etc”. His opinion concerning the use of Arabic changed when he attended an online course provided by an English private language school, in which only English was used. He then started to prefer the English-only policy. This reflects Pablo et al.’s (2011) findings that some students regarded the use of the L1 by their teacher as illogical and demotivating. In addition, it was believed that its use deprived them of exposure to the target language and opportunities to practise it. However, it should be noted that those students stressed that they had reached a level where they did not need Arabic to understand a point. Hence, they seemed to agree that Arabic might be used only in the early stages. These statements contradict the arguments that L1 use increases students’ reliance on it and supports the position that once students reach a level where they do not need their L1, “the crutches are automatically laid aside” (Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009, p. 39).

Overall, students had a positive attitude towards the effectiveness of using the L1 in their ESAP classrooms. Similar to their teachers, students favoured use of the L1 due to the challenging nature of ESAP content; their difficulties were further intensified by their limited L2 proficiency and vocabulary. Notably, they held an instrumental view, seeing L1 use as a pedagogical tool for learning vocabulary and grammar rather than for developing fluency. In other words, they might not oppose L1 use in principle but rather sought more opportunities to practise the L2 to automatise the language they learned. Moreover, the students may have differentiated between what was effective to succeed in the ESAP module, which required accuracy and clarity, and language acquisition as a natural process, which requires consistent use of the L2. Indeed, although most students agreed that Arabic could provide necessary support for making sense of specialised terms, they seemed not to view it as effective for the acquisition process. In short, while they considered Arabic important for facilitating input, they did not think it supported output. This view could be associated with the perception that use of the L1 reduces opportunities to employ the L2. Such attitudes are consistent with and could reflect the prevalent view that it is necessary to limit use of the L1 and maximise English to promote acquisition. According to Hall (2020), this is a major challenge to fostering the practice of translanguaging.

Students' views concerning how teachers should employ their L1 reflected traditional use of the own language. Many of them described the preferred uses of the L1 as “start explaining or translating”, indicating switches between languages, thus reflecting monoglossic ideologies rather than advocating fluid and dynamic use of the language. They shared various beliefs with their teachers, particularly with respect to how they perceived the relationship between English and Arabic, which influenced their views concerning the purposes and frequency of L1 use. Most responses fell between two of the three positions identified by Macaro (2001), namely the “virtual position” and the “maximal position”: they supported limited use of L1, viewing it as necessary given the challenges of the ESAP context, but remaining cautious of its likelihood to hinder acquisition of the L2.

In general, the students' views were in line with the work of Altalhab and Said (2024), who found that Saudi students majoring in English held beliefs shaped by monolingual linguistic ideologies and thus did not consider the L1 a valuable resource. Like their teachers, the students tended not to see the merits of translanguaging as an effective means of leveraging their full linguistic repertoire to support their L2 learning. Rather, their references to and dependence on translation and code-switching represented a more traditional view, one that neglects the cognitive, academic and emotional benefits of translanguaging, particularly in classrooms involving challenging and specialised content, like ESAP. Hence, I argue, as previously discussed (see 4.2), that greater awareness and targeted training might help them understand the significance of translanguaging in supporting various aspects of language learning, enabling them to favour employing it effectively rather than avoid its use.

5.3 Attitudes towards the frequency of L1 use

This section partly responds to RQ2, exploring students' preferences concerning the frequency of Arabic use. Similar to the teachers, the students' views concerning the frequency of L1 use seemed mostly to vary between “sometimes” (65%) and “rarely” (23%), as shown in Figure 5.2. Some thought Arabic should be used in their ESAP classes but not frequently, while others expressed a preference for very limited use of the L1. These results are in line with other studies, such as that of Tang (2002), who found that most students favoured their teachers using the L1 sometimes (60%) or rarely (38%), and Kovačić and Kirinić (2011), in whose study 56.1% of the students selected “sometimes”.

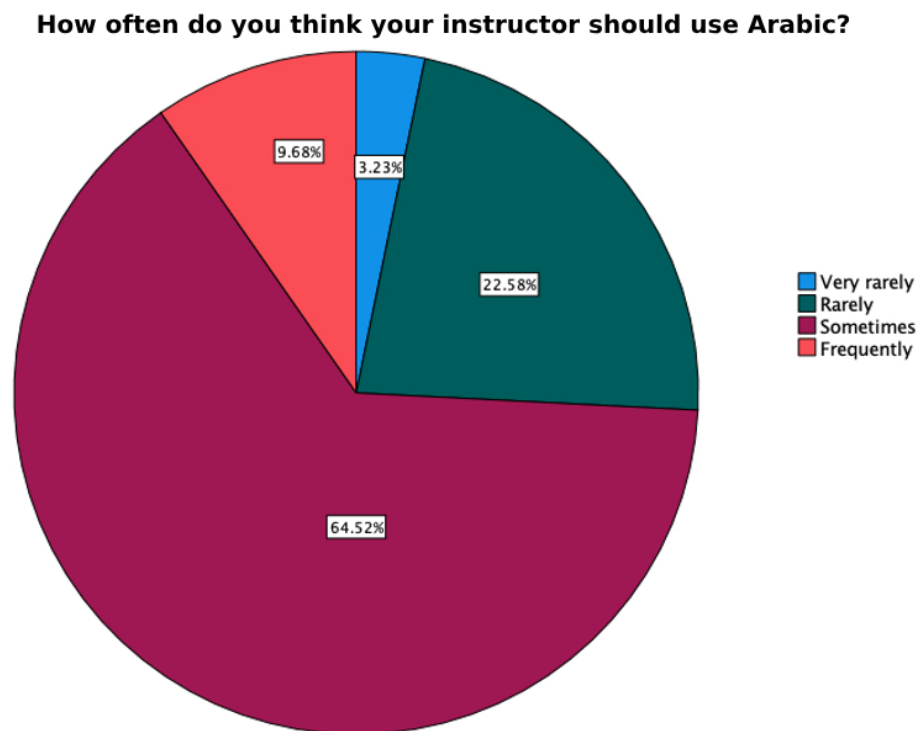


Figure 5.2. Preferred frequency of teachers' use of the L1.

Unlike the responses in the teachers' follow-up interviews, the students reported preferring L1 use for up to 50% of ESAP class time. In contrast, in general or academic English classes in Tang's (2002) study, most participants said they would like the L1 to be used 5%; some chose 10% and none chose 30%. It has been argued by researchers such as Cook (2001) and Turnbull (2001) that the L1 should not be used more than 5% in language learning, although Shapson et al. (1978, as cited in Turnbull, 2001) considered that 25% was acceptable. The discrepancy between these figures and that in this study might be attributed to the challenging nature of ESAP content and the students' low proficiency in the L2, a point that will be discussed below.

One student, S17, commented on his preference, stating "perhaps 30%, but only if it helps the student understand", adding "because this is the nature of the module is to use English. So, if your practice of English does not reach 70%, I do not expect that you will not learn it". S24 shared the same view but gave a different reason, stating "I think it would be boring if it is used more". He added "if it is less, there will be some difficulty in learning English". S22 noted "I think the teacher should use Arabic for 30% or 20%, but 89% of class time and

above should be in English because if there is a word that I could not translate or know its meaning, I could ask the teacher to translate it”.

While S23 shared a similar opinion to S17, he seemed to prefer a lower percentage of L1 use, saying “maximum 25% because we are actually coming to learn English to understand English not Arabic, so you should receive more English in order to learn”. He added “I don’t prefer much of Arabic use to avoid destroying the goal of the module”. S19 took a relatively similar view, saying “20% is reasonable because the module is actually English language and most of it is about reading and listening, so you don’t need more than 20%”. Equally, S12 stated, “perhaps nearly 20% because the listener can benefit from the language of the teacher and can understand and gain many English words from the teacher”. S14, like S25 and S12, maintained “about 80%, 85% or 90% [should be] in English because this is an English lesson it won’t work if the lesson is mostly in Arabic”.

However, S21 believed that it depended on the circumstances, saying “in the beginning of the term, 50% in English and 50% in Arabic that is the maximum”. He continued “If the teacher notices that there is an interaction, he should decrease Arabic a little”. In contrast, S15, although accepting some use of the L1, said “if the teacher is interested in teaching English to his students, then I think he should not use Arabic at all”. Perhaps these variations could be attributed to the students’ level. However, they seemed to acknowledge the importance of maximising English while at the same time recognising the usefulness of L1 in aiding understanding.

Overall, the students advocated maximising the use of the target language. Their views on the amount of L1 use seem to be based on different factors or situations. One of these was the students’ level; as discussed earlier, low-level students tend to favour higher amounts of L1 use. Moreover, preferring limited use of the L1, they suggested teachers should use it only when they did not understand. While some maintained its use would help them understand, they took the view that it would not lead to language acquisition. In a similar context, Altalhab and Said (2024) investigated the attitudes of 42 Saudi male students majoring in English and stated that “students fail to see L1 as an asset and seem to have formed their ideologies based on monolingual theories of linguistics” (p. 434). Perhaps

students largely advocate maximum use of the target language because they consider it necessary in ESAP classrooms.

This view is further strengthened in contexts where English is considered a foreign language and students have few opportunities to practise the language. As a result, they favour maximising the time spent employing the L2 and limiting the use of their own language to fulfil certain functions. In the context of this study, this reflects a rather narrow perspective on bilingualism, viewing the L1 as a separate entity that competes for time with the L2 or hinders L2 development rather than being an effective learning tool. Moreover, this undervalues the potential positive effects of own language use in terms of psychological aspects and levels of engagement with ESAP content. S24 summarised most of the responses, calling for a balanced approach that could facilitate learning while allowing the students to engage with the L2. As previously noted, these findings demonstrate the need for greater awareness among teachers and students with respect to the various benefits of translanguaging as a dynamic and strategic tool that could be particularly useful in such a linguistically and cognitively demanding context.

5.4 Students' practices and attitudes regarding the purposes and reasons for L1 use in ESAP classrooms

Building on the preceding sections, which examined the students' attitudes towards the inclusion and frequency of L1 use in ESAP classrooms, the focus of this section is on exploring classroom practices. It responds primarily to RQ1 through analysing and discussing the results of the classroom observations and the stimulated recall interviews to understand how and why students used the L1 in practice. In addition, this section partly contributes to addressing RQ2 and RQ3 through drawing attention to the students' attitudes concerning the purposes, factors and situations underpinning students' use of the L1. This involves integrating the data obtained from the different phases of the research to provide a deeper understanding of the students' views and allow comparison with the teachers' reported beliefs and classroom practices.

Similar to the teachers, although the students favoured maximising use of the L2, they frequently used their L1 for different purposes – pedagogical, interpersonal and instructional. They largely used Arabic for pedagogical purposes, specifically to address technical terms.

The use of Arabic was predominantly evident among the students to request clarification or explain points to each other. They attributed such uses to various reasons, including their low L2 proficiency and limited confidence in using English. This section therefore highlights the purposes for which the L1 was used and the underlying aspects influencing such usage in ESAP classrooms.

5.4.1 Pedagogical-related purposes

Here, I explore who used the L1 and when for pedagogical purposes in the ESAP classroom. This was very common among the students, with the observation data demonstrating that the students used their own language for explaining technical, general and metalinguistic vocabulary, as well as clarifying grammar. However, the predominant use was for explaining technical terms. These uses were motivated by various factors, such as the students' proficiency in the L2 and confidence, as well as its efficiency in requesting and responding quickly and accurately.

Similar to teachers' section on the pedagogical-related purposes of the L1 in ESAP classrooms, the presentation is structured around the main themes, sub-themes, and codes that emerged from the data which allowed for a detailed examination of how students employed Arabic for a range of pedagogical functions. For the purposes of guiding the analysis of the data and address the different pedagogical purposes for which the L1 was used, Table 5.1 shows the themes, sub-themes and codes related to the pedagogical functions that emerged from the observation data whereas the underlying reasons (e.g., low-level of proficiency and motivation) for these various uses embedded throughout the discussion. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 5.1. Pedagogical-related purposes for L1 use.

Theme	Codes
Pedagogical-related purposes	Vocabulary
	Technical terms
	General vocabulary
	Metalinguistics
	Grammar

I explore these below, starting from the most frequently observed function: explaining technical vocabulary.

Explaining technical terms

The use of Arabic for explaining specialised vocabulary was one of the most frequent purposes observed across the ESAP classroom. Similar to the teachers, the students were observed using their own language very frequently to explain technical terms. This specific purpose repeatedly emerged as a key L1 use to facilitate the discussion. This included explaining the meaning of specialised vocabulary to their peers, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 5.1

T5: Glaucus, what is glaucus ?	In this technical group, the teacher started reading the title which was “Healthcare companies” and read a sentence saying the company produces blood glucose monitor. Although one student explained what this monitor does/did, the teacher started translating blood glucose monitor word for word.
S1: sugar	
T5: sugar, yeah. Level, level yaany? [means?]	
S2: limit	
S3: Mostawa [level]	
T5: Mostawa alsokar fe aldam [the level of sugar in the blood].	It was not clear in the audio-recording whether S4 was asked to explain the meaning of monitor. However, he explained it to his classmate.
S4: Jehaz yagees alsokar [a device which monitors the level of sugar in the blood].	

In this example, while S1 was responding to his teachers’ question by translating the specialised vocabulary, S3 switched to Arabic to explain the meaning of a blood glucose monitor to his peer, who seemed unable to grasp the meaning of this specialist term. As studies have found, students may use the L1 when they think what is being said is difficult for their peer (Aoyama, 2020), but he might also have wished to confirm his own understanding (Storch & Aldosari, 2010) to his teacher, who was standing in front of them. In the section on the teachers’ use of the L1 to address technical terms, it was noted that they also used Arabic when their students struggled to understand the meaning, demonstrating its importance in such situations.

The stimulated recall interviews helped uncovering the exact reason behind the use of the L1 in this particular example which matches the analysis. The student, S4, stated that “my classmate did not understand the point and wanted to ask the teacher about its meaning [the meaning of blood glucose monitor] so I explained it to him”. Hence, S4 drew on the shared language to help his classmate make sense of the input. However, looking at the entire

conversation, one can observe how the teacher and students engaged in translanguaging until the meaning of the technical words were understood. Alsawayhiri (2024) also documented similar patterns and usage of the L1 in ESAP classroom. This indicates its significance for both teachers and students in such contexts.

The observation revealed that both the teachers and students used the L1 to provide equivalence, a practice that increased when reading texts (see also 4.4). The questionnaire responses were informative in revealing the similarities between students' and teachers' preferences for use of the L1, demonstrating that, similar to teachers, more than half of the students favoured using Arabic for this purpose. In particular, most students favoured their teachers using the L1 when the target language item had an equivalent in their language, choosing "strongly agree" (52.7%), "agree" (21.5%) and "neutral" (18.3%), as shown in Figure 5.2. Taskin (2011) also found that 72.8% of students believed that providing equivalence in the L1 helped them remember vocabulary.

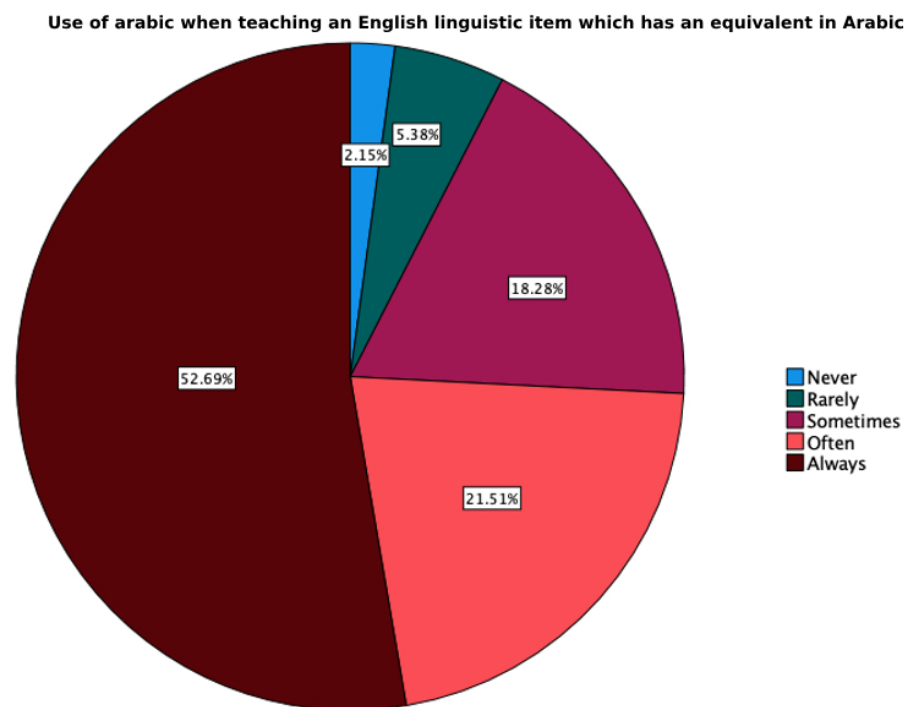


Figure 5.3. Use of the L1 to teach an English linguistic item with an equivalent in Arabic.

The follow-up interviews provided additional insights into how the students interpret the need to use the L1 for providing equivalence. While S14 thought L1 use should depend on

whether the students understood the word, S15 favoured using Arabic for terms with an equivalent, stating “the student would find the explanation of those that do not have an equivalent anywhere, but for those that have some equivalents or a number of meanings, [the teacher] should explain them”. S16 echoed this, saying “the teacher should explain each word because each word might have several meanings”. Taskin (2011) also found that students had positive attitudes to explaining vocabulary in the L1, believing that it helped them understand easily and remember the meaning better, although others disagreed. It can be concluded that both the teachers and students viewed using the L1 to provide equivalents as an effective and efficient way of learning vocabulary and employed it accordingly.

Together, these results highlight that using the L1 to provide equivalence is not only viewed positively by teachers but also strongly endorsed by students, especially during reading passages. Building on this, both used Arabic in similar situation to explain vocabulary, but students showed much higher preference towards such use than their teachers. In particular, most of students chose “sometimes” (32.3%), “often” (36.6%) and “always” (18.3%), indicating their preference for this function (see Figure 4.30). This indicates their need for the L1 in this particular situation whereas teachers might use the L1 for such purposes only when students do not understand.

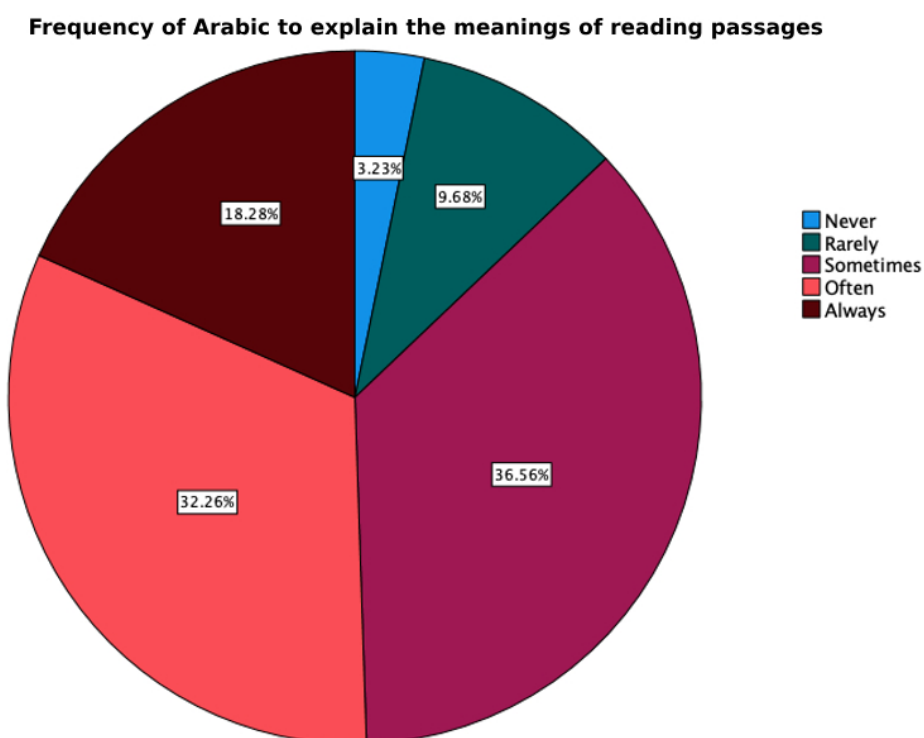


Figure 5.4. Use of the L1 to explain reading passages.

The follow-up interviews provided a deeper insight into the students' responses. Among those who disfavoured the use of Arabic in such situations, S21 commented "I can read the text and understand a word from here or there, or from previous sources". S23 thought his teacher should only use Arabic "when the level of the book reaches a point which is difficult for the students". S21 was of the view that Arabic was important "when the reading text include lots of scientific terms". S16 also said that he preferred Arabic to be used "after difficult terminology or long vocabulary like those words that are not short". Similarly, Taskin (2011) found that 71.5% of students viewed their teachers' use of the L1 in reading positively, with 73.5% thinking teachers' use of translation promoted better understanding. Thus, translanguaging may be perceived positively when difficulties arise.

The findings indicate that the teachers and students shared similar views. In addition, the teachers' actual practices in terms of using the L1 during reading passages to provide equivalence matched the students' preferences. The above classroom examples of using the own language to explain vocabulary offer empirical support for its use as shared knowledge plays a critical pedagogical role in the ESAP context. The examples of translation in Extract

5.1 illustrate the dynamic and fluid use of both languages to co-construct meaning, confirm comprehension and also enhance the L2 development of peers. Previous EFL and EAP research has highlighted the role of L1 use in facilitating understanding and developing academic literacy. This study demonstrates that the significance of L1 use extends to the ESAP context and shows that it is an efficient means not only of clarifying general vocabulary but also technical terms. Moreover, it helps maintain engagement with challenging content. Thus, there is a need for a novel framework that promotes awareness of the value of L1 use and identifies effective practices.

Explaining general vocabulary

This section turns to the use of the L1 to address general vocabulary. The students frequently used their own language to enquire about or respond to questions concerning the meaning of different types of vocabulary, including general vocabulary. An example related this use is provided in the following extract:

Extract 5.2

S3: Esh scaring [What is the meaning of scaring].	In this English for medical purposes class, the students were asked to work in groups and discuss some statements and rank them according to the most worrying one before doing the listening exercise.
S4: Alkhowf [scaring].	

During the discussion, S3 overheard another student and the teacher discussing the word “scaring”, which was in an exercise. He then switched to Arabic to ask his classmate to explain its meaning, which resulted in S4 providing the equivalence in Arabic in the form of a direct translation. Barton et al. (2005) also found the L1 was used between peers to ask and answer questions and Anton and DiCamilla (1998) observed students using the L1 to provide equivalent terms in the L1. Students can engage in such translanguaging practices for various reasons. One student attributed his use of the L1 to his proficiency level and other factors, saying:

“...sometimes, I don’t know how to construct a question in a good way and also you could say that I feel lazy to translate my question into English then ask my classmate, so I just use Arabic to save time.”

Sato's (2023) study, which examined code-switching and translanguaging, he identified this type of use as code-switching because the students attributed it to limited proficiency. Many students consider proficiency an important factor motivating the use of the L1 (Çelik, 2020), although some, similar to this student, may also use their own language to save time and maintain the flow of the lesson (Pablo et al., 2011), specifically as a convenient way to communicate (Turnbull, 2018). Thus, while this use might be regarded as related to a deficit from the translanguaging perspective, it can be viewed as deploying one's full linguistic repertoire to fulfil communicative needs: the stronger language can be used to support the weaker. Hence, use of the L1 can be considered an important and effective learning tool that should be positively viewed and endorsed.

Having examined how students used their own language practically to explain technical and general vocabulary, it is worth exploring the questionnaire results, which provided valuable insights into their attitudes towards their teachers' use of the L1 for such purposes. The findings illustrate that the students preferred their teachers to use the L1 more in dealing with technical words than other types of vocabulary. Similar to the teachers, Figure 5.5 shows that the students leaned towards their teachers using the L1 to explain abstract or specialised vocabulary, choosing "always" (35.5%), "often" (31.2%) and "sometimes" (23.7%). In terms of using the L1 to explain other types of vocabulary, Figure 5.6 shows that they broadly favoured it, selecting "always" (28%), "often" (31.2%) and "sometimes" (29.9%). This indicates a very high preference for such use, especially for specialised vocabulary. These results are in line with Tang (2002), who found that 69% of EFL students believed the L1 helped define new vocabulary, and Rushwan (2017), in whose study 75% of the students regarded translation as a good teaching tool in ESAP classes. In addition, Tuyen and Van (2019) reported that three quarters of students favoured their teachers using the L1 for difficult, abstract or ESAP terminology.

Frequency of Arabic to explain specialised vocabulary

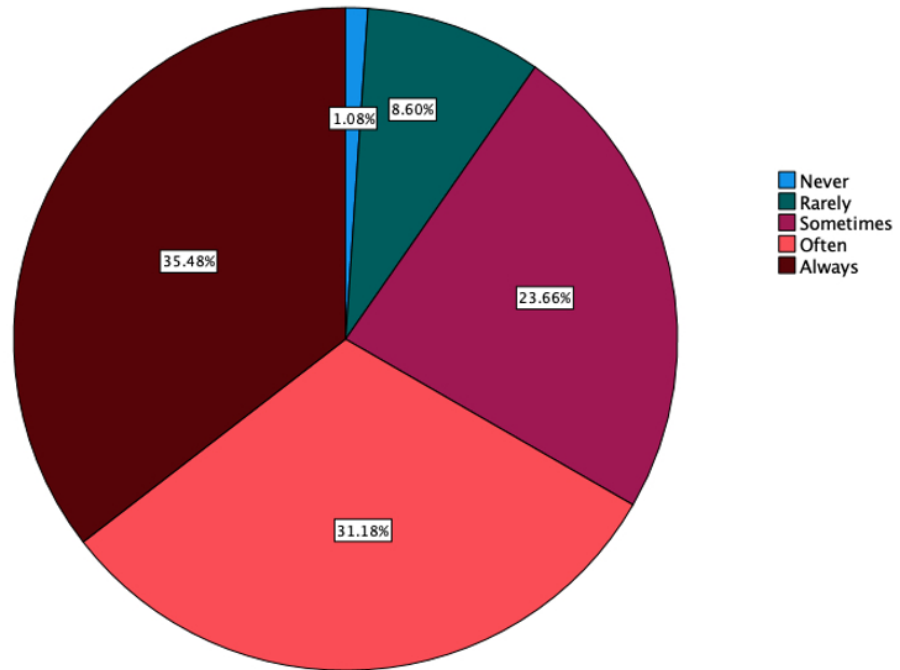


Figure 5.5. Use of the L1 to explain abstract and specialised vocabulary.

Frequency of Arabic use to explain vocabulary

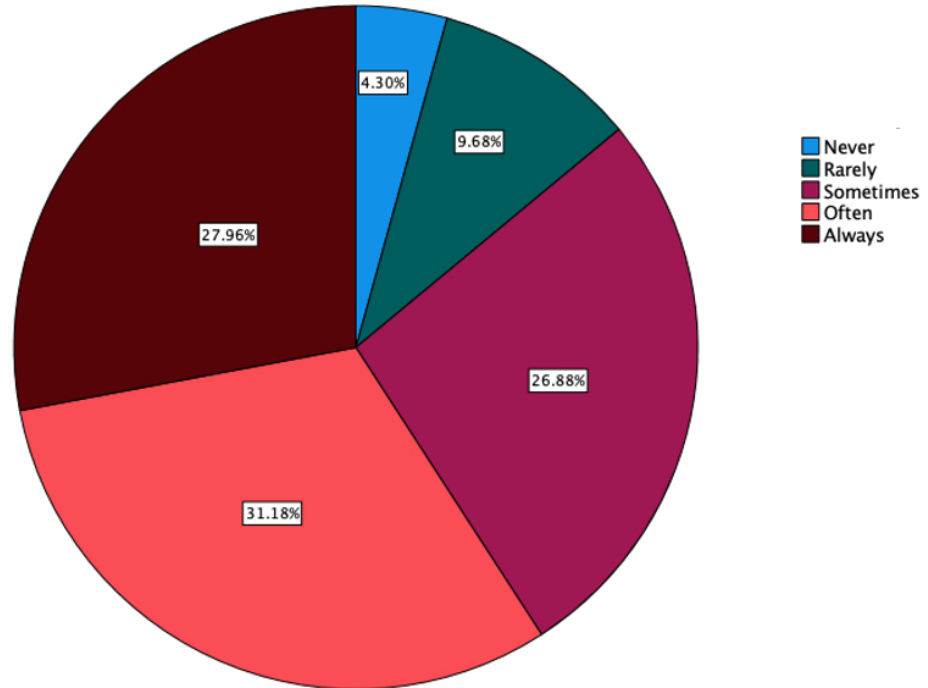


Figure 5.6. Use of the L1 to explain vocabulary.

The follow-up interviews helped gain a deeper understanding of the rationale for these preferences. S14 stated, “it is difficult to use online dictionary to find the accurate meaning... if you look it up by yourself at home, you would not find the exact meaning of the word because it could be a very specialised one”. S18 seemed to be in favour of L1 use, stating:

“...as for the common words, 70% of the students would know them. A student can ask his classmate about the frequent vocabulary whereas in terms of the scientific terms, they are new to all of us. So, the teacher needs to explain them in Arabic.”

S12 echoed S18's view, stating “these words [general vocabulary] are frequently used but those abstract ones would not be very clear” and argued that explaining technical terms in Arabic helped students remember them. S21 thought it depended on the difficulty of the word, but revealed “I would appreciate it if the teacher explains and translates the vocabulary”. S24 also favoured Arabic, saying “because it helps understanding the difficult information”.

However, S17 revealed that he would rather his teacher did not use Arabic, noting:

“I think if the teacher translates it for the students, they will depend on him. I think it is better if he gives it to them as a homework and then in the next day asks them to explain the words in English.”

He thought using English “will motivate them more”. This student, similar to others, seemed to be looking for opportunities to use the L2 rather than opposing use of the L1 per se. S24 stated that he preferred his teacher to use the L1 “only to translate words because [he's] very good at English but there are some words that might not be clear”. Similarly, Taskin (2011) found that many students viewed the L1 as effective in understanding vocabulary and recalling meaning, although only a few suggested that it would help them know how to use the words.

Although the students, similar to their teachers, favoured use of the L1 in certain situations as it helped them understand difficult vocabulary, they also seemed concerned with opportunities to use the L2. Hence, one way of addressing negative attitudes to use of the L1

could be resolved by ensuring sufficient opportunities are offered to practise English, potentially leading the students to appreciate use of their L1.

In addition, these interviews confirmed Rushwan's (2017) finding that explaining the meaning of ESAP vocabulary in the L1 is necessary since using a dictionary can sometimes lead to the use of an inaccurate translation. Like teachers, the students' attitudes and practices seemed to acknowledge the benefits of using translanguaging to explain and make sense of information, helping them process it. The results of this study are in line with those of Vyshnevskaya et al. (2021), who found that translanguaging can be a useful pedagogical tool for addressing difficult ESAP terms, enhancing deeper comprehension of the content and consolidating the knowledge of the learners, especially at lower levels.

In addition to the use of the L1 for explaining these two types of vocabulary, the students expressed a strong preference for its use to provide direct equivalence. In response to the questionnaire, most students favoured their teachers using the L1 when the target language item had an equivalent in their language, choosing "strongly agree" (52.7%), "agree" (21.5%) and "neutral" (18.3%), as shown in Figure 5.7. Taskin (2011) also found that 72.8% of students believed that providing equivalence in the L1 helped them remember vocabulary.

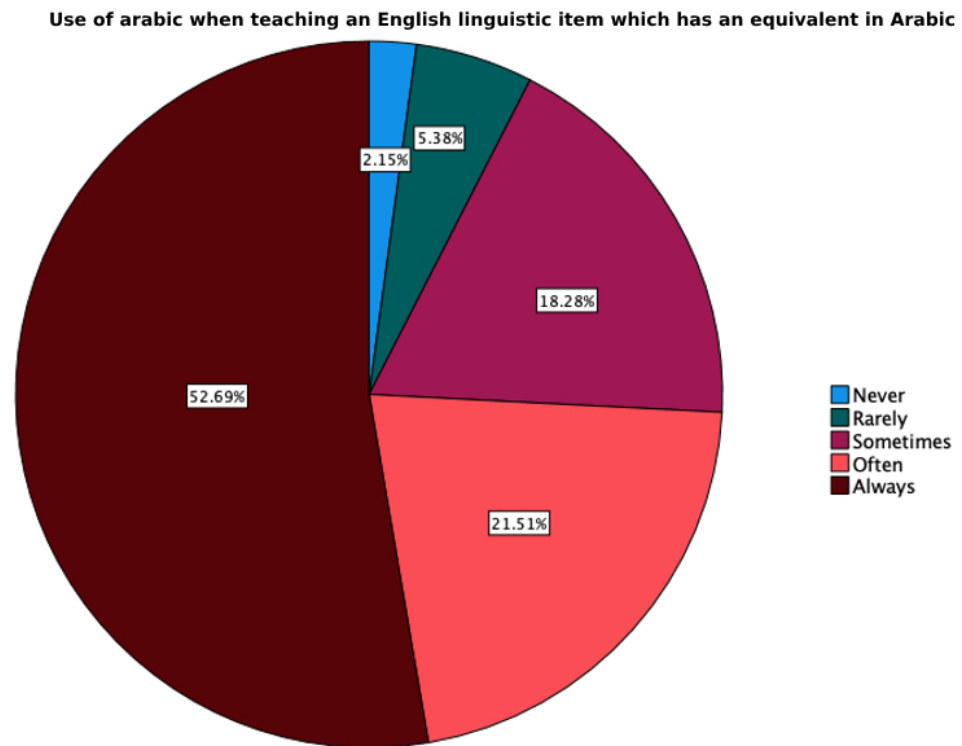


Figure 5.7. Use of the L1 to teach an English linguistic item with an equivalent in Arabic.

The follow-up interviews helped understand the students high preference for such use. While S14 thought using the L1 should depend on whether the students understood the word, S15 favoured using Arabic for terms with an equivalent, stating “the student would find the explanation of those that do not have an equivalent anywhere, but for those that have some equivalents or a number of meanings, [the teacher] should explain them”. S16 echoed this, saying “the teacher should explain each word because each word might have several meanings”. Taskin (2011) also found that most students had positive attitudes to explaining vocabulary in the L1, believing that it helped them understand easily and remember the meaning better, although others disagreed. It can be concluded that both the teachers and students viewed and used the L1 to provide equivalents as an effective and efficient way of learning vocabulary.

The stimulated recall interviews illustrated that the reason for teachers’ and students’ use of the L1 to explain vocabulary was its perceived efficiency in managing time, especially given the intensive nature of the ESAP classes and the time constraints. The questionnaire data showed that while the teachers had a lower preference for using the L1 in this regard, most

students favoured their teachers using it “sometimes” (39.8%), while about 20% favoured its use “always” and “often” (see Figure 5.8). This might be attributed to the fact that they had a heavy schedule of eight hours of classes, four hours per day, allocated for the English module. However, S22 thought it depended on how much time the teacher had, stating “if there is too much time then the teacher should decrease its use because it’s an English language module”. Taskin (2011) found many students viewed using the L1 to save time positively. In this study, while acknowledging the usefulness of their own language, the students still advocated maximum use of the target language.

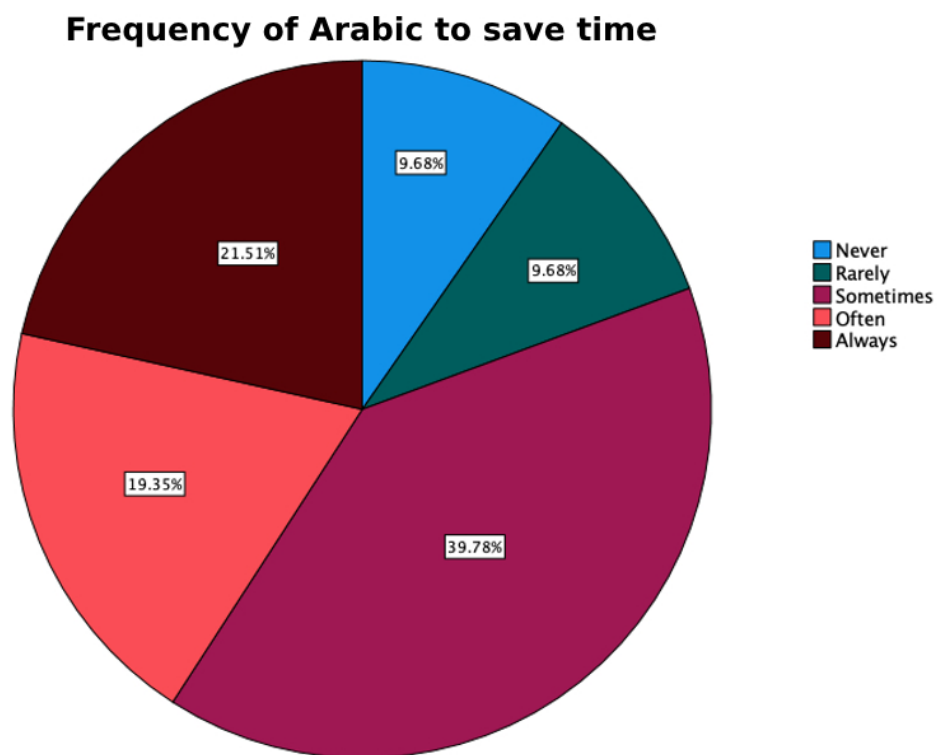


Figure 5.8. Use of the L1 to save time.

Explaining metalanguage

This section now explores another related use of the L1: explaining metalinguistic terminology. The students were observed using the L1 to clarify metalinguistic vocabulary, similar to teachers, often in response to classmates’ questions in Arabic. Another similarity with the teachers’ use of the L1 for such purpose is that they explicitly attributed this use to the lack of adequate proficiency level. Similar to Aoyama’s (2020) results, the L1 was observed being used to explain metalinguistic terms, describing the structure of the language

before doing an exercise, although only once. The students used Arabic to explain the meaning of “subject”, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 5.3

S4: ya ayal active hathe eash manaha? [Guys, what is the meaning of active?]	After explaining the passive, the teacher started doing the exercise and asked whether the sentence is active or passive. The student immediately asked about the meaning of active.
S5: active yaani fee subject [Active means there is a subject.]	
S4: eash yaani fee subject [what does this mean?]	
S5: yaani ygoolk: tebghaha bel Arabic? [this means:: do you want it in Arabic?]	
S4: eewah [yes]	
S5: active yaani ana thahabtu ela almadrasah [active means I went to the school]	
S4: ana thahabtu ela almadrasah [I went to the school]	
S5: eash golt hena? [what did you say?] eewa fee subject [There is a subject here]	
S4: eash subject [what is subject?]	
S5: feeh shakhs hena elle howa enta enta wa alveeil enak rooht almadrasah [there is someone here which is you, you and the verb. You went to the school]	

Here, S4 switched to Arabic to ask about the meaning of *active* and then *subject* and S5 used Arabic to answer. S5 in turn used code-switching to give an explanation, along with examples to demonstrate the meaning. Similar to previous examples, the students used Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary. However, it is worth noting that S5 wanted to explain in English, but his classmate preferred the explanation in Arabic. Due to certain circumstances noted earlier, it was not possible to interview S4, but several students attributed asking questions in Arabic to their low proficiency level (Extract 5.2). Similar results were found by Çelik (2020). It was interesting to interview those who responded to questions initiated in Arabic. S5 made an interesting point, saying that peers with lower levels of proficiency forced him and other members of the groups to use Arabic. Thus, even if a student has a good command in English, he might not use it when talking to his peers at lower levels. Another student who experienced the same situation revealed that he felt demotivated, saying “I may speak in English, but the issue is my classmate does not keep up

with me. In addition, when we are in a group where the three of us use English, whereas the fourth uses Arabic which is a frequent issue”. In other words, he regarded this as a demotivating factor. There might be a group of three or four students who could speak in English, but if one did not have adequate knowledge to communicate in English, this led them to use Arabic.

This suggests that the presence of a single low-level student could lead to the whole group using Arabic, undermining their ability to interact in the L2. In Extract 5.3, S5 wanted to use English but S4 seemed unable to keep up with him. Similar to S5, another student noted, “I could ask my classmate in English where we could both learn from each other and practice the language, but most students are not able to respond in English or provide a correct answer”. Thus, similar to the teachers, the students seemed to consider the proficiency level of their interlocutors (Çelik, 2020). Hence, the students were motivated to use the L2, a recurring point, but felt forced to use the L1 for their peers to understand (Aoyama, 2020). Such use is viewed negatively, and this will be discussed in further detail in the next section.

This is interesting in light of the students’ responses to the questionnaire concerning use of the L1 in relation to their level of English proficiency. Figure 5.9 illustrates that a large proportion of the students chose “strongly agree” (24.7%), “agree” (36.6%) and “neutral” (33.3%) concerning their teachers’ use of Arabic when they were at a low level of proficiency. Likewise, Alsuhaibani (2015) found that most students favoured their teachers using the L1 at lower levels, choosing “always” (21.5%), “often” (26%) and “sometimes” (31.6%).

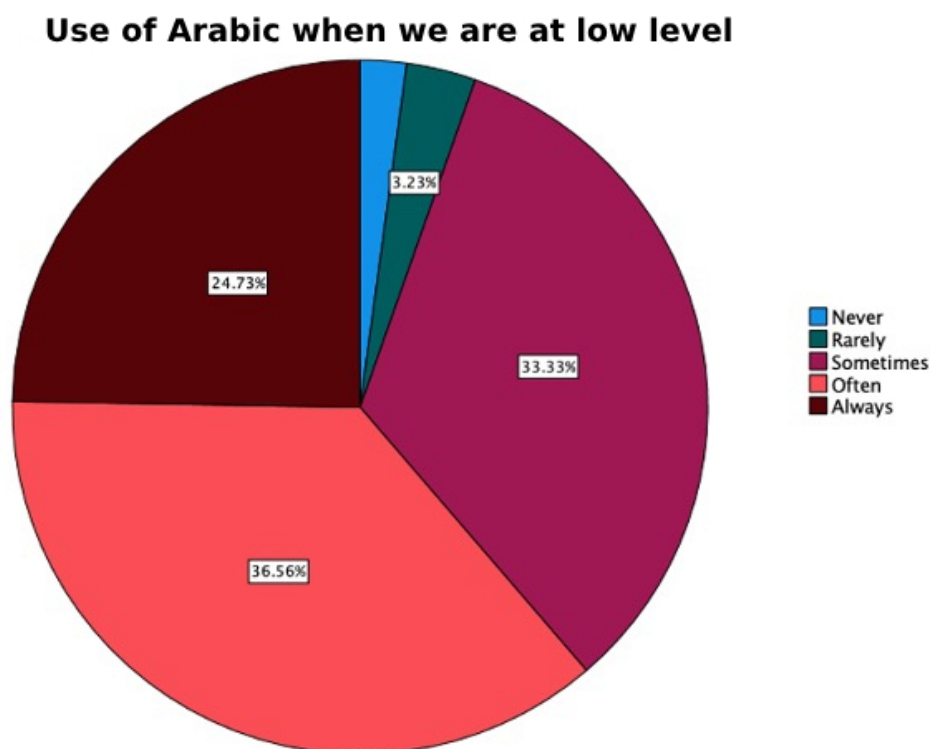


Figure 5.9. Use of the L1 with low-level students.

However, the follow-up interviews showed that most of the students favoured their teachers using English with low-level students. S23, in line with S12, stated “the teacher can use those good ones to help him and to motivate the others”. S16 took the same view but also remarked “those who cannot understand, can be offered remedy classes or something like that in order to help them understand”. S14 preferred the use of English, believing that “if the teacher uses Arabic the students will not learn, because he offers them something ready”. However, S22 had a different opinion, stating “even when you are at a high level, there are difficult words that you may face, and you might not be able to understand it”. S21 noted “those who do not understand, they can understand it in Arabic while also listening to English and therefore they will learn English too”. It is interesting to see the same point repeating, as many of them differentiated between learning and acquisition and thus favoured using English as an essential means for language acquisition. In addition, they did not recognise their level as an obstacle but rather discussed the L1 as a facilitative tool.

Similar to the teachers’ responses, use of the L1 when a student asked for translation or clarification, for example of metalinguistic vocabulary, was influenced by the proficiency

level, as evidenced in the data. Looking at the above extract, it is clear that the student's level influenced his peer's choice of language as the latter clearly asked his classmate if he wanted the clarification in Arabic. The questionnaire responses shed light on the students' views concerning their teachers' use of the L1 in similar situations: when a student asked for translation or clarification. First, concerning use of the L1 when students asked for translation, most preferred their teacher to use Arabic, choosing "strongly agree" (57%) and "agree" (20.4%) (see Figure 5.10). Second, regarding use of the L1 when they asked for clarification, most of them chose "strongly agree" (32.3%) and "agree" (34.4%) (see Figure 5.11). These results show that the students shared the same view as the teachers, valuing the use of the L1 more when asking for translation than for clarification. Nonetheless, both teachers (see Extract 4.4) and students viewed the L1 as useful for clarifying points, thus avoiding any misunderstanding, as also found by Pablo et al. (2011).

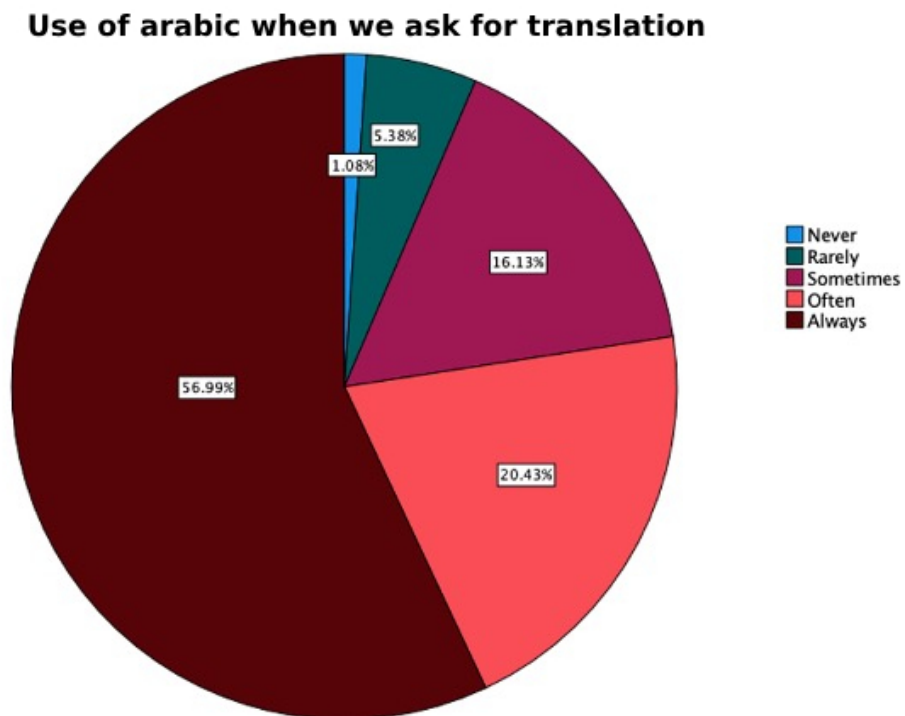


Figure 5.10. Use of the L1 when students ask for translation.

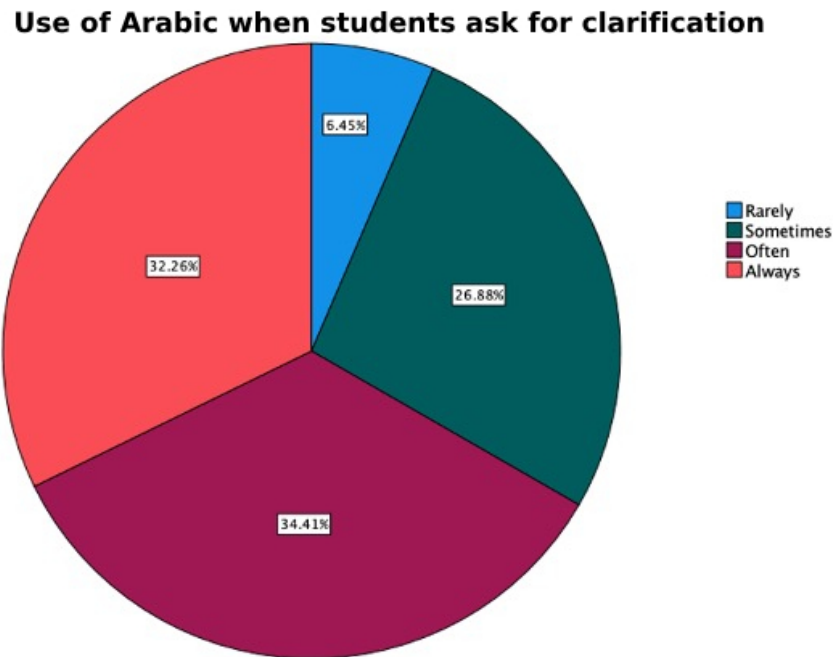


Figure 5.11. Use of the L1 when students ask for clarification.

The follow-up interviews helped gain deeper insights into the students' views. For example, S24 said that it depended on what was being addressed. As S19 stated:

“I think the teachers would generally know if the point is difficult and most teachers would immediately use Arabic. They would explain the point in English and then explain in Arabic because they know it would be difficult for the students.”

Several students considered use of L1 when asking for translation highly important. S21 took this view, saying “you have too many points that they don't understand...so the teacher should explain in Arabic for everyone to understand”. He continued:

“There are students who are shy [to ask]. They don't want to talk in front of their peers. Some of them are not accustomed to speaking English and therefore they are afraid to blow it and then perhaps his classmates will laugh at him. As a result, he would remain silent and accept what he could understand.”

S14 and S18 also commented on the students being shy about asking for help and the latter noted:

“...the student are always shy. Most of the students who studied with me are afraid of talking publicly and cannot say I don’t understand this. They are afraid or shy that the teacher would look at them differently and therefore they fear to ask.”

Perhaps this is why S25 stated “I think with the scientific terms, the teacher should translate them whether the student asks or not”. S12 expressed a similar view but stressed that:

“...if it is uncommon word for the students and they asked about it then the teacher should explain it to them. Or he could ask the other students who know the meaning of the word so they can become more active with him”.

These results further support the use of the L1 in pinning down the specialised meaning of the words. Given that the teachers reported difficulties in knowing the meaning of ESAP terms, it is understandable that the students would express the need for their own language. This has implications for L1 use in ESAP contexts for both teachers and students.

Explaining grammar

Building on the discussion concerning metalinguistic vocabulary, this sub-section illustrates students’ use of Arabic to explain grammar. As indicated earlier, the observation revealed that this was less frequent as only one ESAP lesson included the teaching of grammar. Similar use was also documented in studies (e.g. Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008). Examples of such use are shown in Extracts 5.4 and 5.5. When S4 had grasped the metalinguistic term discussed in the previous section, S5 moved on to explain the passive. This included how to structure a sentence using the passive to help his classmate understand:

Extract 5.4

S5: “Fe albasaive fe albasive. Ana roht- thoheb ela almadrasah hatha albasive fe alEngleezy tebda belsubject [in the passive, in the passive. I went- was brought to the school. This is the passive in English you start with object]”.

Extract 5.5

S4: yeseer mafool beh [it becomes an object]

S5: La tebdah bel almafol beh. Almadrasah: ma yenfah teaawedha bealEngleezy. Enta tegol almadrasah= [no, you start with the object. The school, you cannot translate it to English. You say the school=]

S4: =Yani mathala koser aljawal [you mean, for example, the phone was broken]

S5: Ewa, ketha eash elle enkasar? [what was broken?]

S4: aljawal [the phone]

S5: bealEngleezy [in English]

S6: the phone

S5: the phone, kosera fe almadadhy wala thahena? [so broken in past or present?]

Extract 5.5 shows S5 using code-switching to scaffold S4's knowledge. S4 then immediately grasped how to structure an English sentence using the passive. When S4 understood the meaning of *active*, *passive*, *subject* and how to use the passive, S5 started to expand the explanation to cover the use of the passive voice in different tenses, along with examples. Hence, the L1 can be used to discuss difficult grammar (Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008), which allows less proficient students to initiate and maintain discussions about L2 content with more proficient students, resulting in the former accessing the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978).

Looking at this conversation from another angle, it could be said that it helped both students, S4 and S5. Concerning S4, the L1 use enabled him to ask for more explanation, along with follow-up questions, to ensure he understood and mastered the grammatical point. In other words, the L1 allowed him to produce output, negotiate meaning and make the input more comprehensible. However, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) argued that providing explanations in the L1 might also be beneficial for the one who is explaining the point, in this case S5. That is, such discussions concerning similarities and differences in concepts between the L1 and L2 could promote their *noticing* (Schmidt, 1990). Extending these aspects together with the concept of ZPD, these acts could be classified as translanguaging, as both S5 and S4 used their full linguistic systems, including their knowledge of the L1 structure, to explain and make sense of the grammatical point. Although high-level students seem to view such interaction negatively, especially in EFL contexts, believing that it takes away opportunities to interact in the L2, as discussed by Hall (2020), these practises offer a great opportunity to ask questions that could lead to deeper knowledge of the L2 (García et al., 2017). This was

evident in S4's interaction in Extract 5.5, in which he used his whole linguistic repertoire to understand the grammatical point.

Perhaps this is why many students viewed their teachers' use of the L1 positively when teaching grammar. The questionnaire responses, as shown in Figure 5.12, illustrate that most students favoured their teacher using the L1 judiciously, choosing "sometimes" (31.2%) and "often" (25.8%), while fewer chose "always" (19.4%). Similarly, Tang (2002) found that 72% of EFL students wished their teachers to use the L1 when explaining grammar.

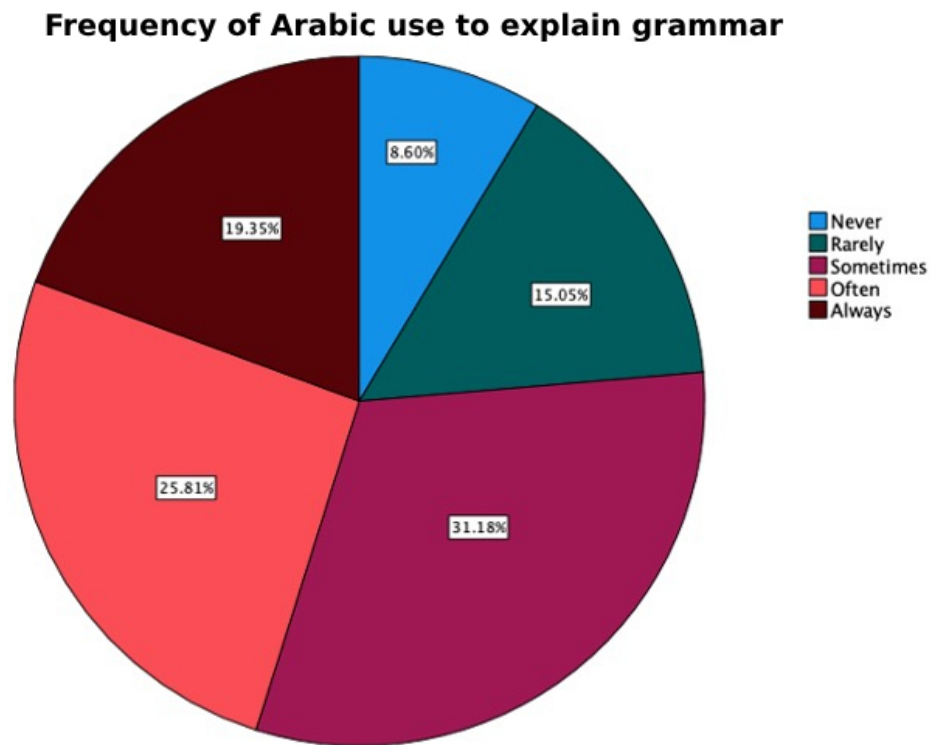


Figure 5.12. Use of the L1 to explain grammar.

The follow-up interviews were effective in unpacking the reasons underlying the students' responses. For instance, S18 talked about grammar rules, saying "they are the most things that I need Arabic with. If you build the bases correctly and if my bases are good and if I understood the information about those bases, I would continue in the right path". S23 touched upon the same point, stating "when explaining grammar, how would you expect me to understand it when I am not very good at English? If the teacher explains a little bit in Arabic, the information will stick in my mind and then he could build on it in English". S21

favoured L1 use “with the difficult points like grammar”. Similarly, a student in Pablo et al.’s (2011) study noted that using the L1 was necessary when explaining grammar because it facilitated understanding. Likewise, Taskin (2011) found that most students were in favour of using the L1 when explaining grammar rules, although the reasons for their views varied. He concluded that they could be divided into two groups: the first group valued the use of the L1 when teaching grammar to draw on similarities with the L1, which could help them build on their prior knowledge, whereas the other group was more cautious about the use of the L1, stressing that it should be used only when necessary. Thus, it was concluded that neither group favoured total exclusion of the L1.

However, S23 disagreed with the use of L1 to explain grammar, stating:

“...generally, you cannot explain grammar in Arabic because it will not deliver the same meaning. It might result in a confusion because there isn’t much connection between them. Therefore, mistakes will occur in grammar unlike when you use it with vocabulary where you give the meaning of the word in Arabic in order to understand it later in English.”

As indicated earlier, the L1 should be used with caution as there are several points to consider. These include the students’ level and preference for using the L1. Perhaps one of the main points to consider is the students’ knowledge of metalanguage, which the students only really need to understand so that they can comprehend the grammatical point.

Students’ views and uses of the L1 provide evidence of the importance of translanguaging practices for learning unfamiliar metalanguage and grammatical rules. It seemed particularly valuable for grasping and internalising metalinguistic concepts, such as the passive voice. It built the basis for comprehending the grammatical rule. These translanguaging practices enabled both lower and higher proficiency learners to operate within their respective ZPDs, facilitating the negotiation of meaning and the construction of knowledge. That is, translanguaging practices can be viewed as a powerful resource for scaffolding ESAP students’ learning of grammar. While similar uses have been documented in various EFL and EAP classrooms, it might be more necessary in ESAP classroom, where students are required to understand both academic language and technical disciplinary content. This underscores a key contribution to the field of ESAP, recognising L1 use in ESAP not as a crutch but as a

pedagogically purposeful practice that supports deeper engagement and understanding of grammatical form and function.

Summary

Overall, the findings illustrate that the students, similar to their teachers, recognised the importance of own language use for pedagogical purposes in learning ESAP content, especially for understanding specialised vocabulary. Although the students' preferences varied based on proficiency level and context, most viewed Arabic as an instrumental tool that could facilitate understanding of complex academic and scientific terms. They were observed using the L1 very frequently for pedagogical-related purposes, especially for learning technical vocabulary, and liked their teachers to use it for such purposes, in line with the teachers' views and practices. This usage was driven by different factors, including the students' proficiency level and efficiency. The students' views and practice demonstrated a strong preference for using their own language to provide equivalents and save time, particularly when confronting difficult terminology. These uses were not compensatory but rather part of strategic translanguaging, allowing them to communicate and understand content effectively, as well as leading to better engagement. However, they did not conceptualise these acts as part of a legitimate and effective practices. That is, while they used their own language fluidly to make sense of content, they still undervalued the L1 as a linguistic resource.

5.4.2 Instruction-related purposes

This section examines students' use of their own language in instruction-related purposes, namely for task instructions. The findings illustrate that while the teachers used the L1 for various instructional-related purposes, such as managing the classroom and gaining attention, the students were observed using their own language only for explaining task instructions. Similar uses have also been observed in different contexts, including EAP classrooms (see Alsuhaibani, 2015). The students tended to use their L1 to request or explain instructions to each other. Among the reported reasons this was a lack of confidence and knowledge of the L2. This section explores both the purpose and the reasons for such usage. To guide the analysis of the data, Table 5.2 presents the main theme and the code related to the examples discussed in the following sections. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 5.2. Instructional-related purposes themes and codes.

Theme	Code
Instructional-related purposes	Task instruction-based

Task instructions

The students frequently requested clarification of instructions for an exercise, using the form “what to do” as a clarification request or providing an explanation. An example of this can be seen in the following example:

Extract 5.6

S17: Esh yebana nesawy? [what does he want us to do?].

S18: Wahed ygraa wa wahed yesawy alrebert wa wahed yektob [one read, the other prepare the report and one writes it].

In this example, S17 did not understand the instructions and switched to Arabic, seeking help from his peer and asking about the instructions in the L1. S18 then switched Arabic to respond to his classmate. Hence, the L1 can be used to ask peers to clarify instructions (Ma, 2019), explain the requirements of the task and assign roles to undertake the activity collaboratively (Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Bhooth et al., 2014). This use of the L1 facilitates understanding of the aim of the task and its achievement which also matches teachers’ attitudes and practices. One student commented on this, noting that:

“...sometimes the teacher speaks in English when explaining the exercise. When I don’t understand, I ask my classmate because I want to know what has the teacher said. I do not have a good vocabulary bank to help me understand and this is why I ask my classmate to explain something to me.”

When asked why he would not ask his classmate in English, he stated that “I lack the courage to speak in English, you feel like you are going to make mistakes if you speak”. That is, he shares the same reasons as those discussed above, fearing to speak in English because he did not want to make a mistake in front of his classmates, although it seems that he could use English in different situations, as he explained “I have no problem with using English when we are alone, but not in the lecture hall in front of my classmate”. In contrast, Pablo et al. (2011) found that students used the L1 due to lack of L2 knowledge and avoided the L2 when they did not know enough vocabulary to maintain speaking in the L2 or when they felt

they would make a mistake which their classmates might laugh at. Knowing that there are those who might laugh at the mispronunciation of a word can create an unsafe environment for them. Therefore, students use translanguaging as a natural and convenient means of communication. A similar use was documented by Wang (2023), who noted that students would normally use translanguaging for reasons such as convenience and safeguarding. Thus, it could be said that denying students the use of their own language might restrict their contributions in the classroom and consequently affect their learning. While similar reasons were noted in previous studies as indicated earlier, the presence of technical terms in the instructions or exercises might further complicate the issues making the L1 use of the L1 essential in such ESAP context.

The comment above indicates that the instructions for classroom tasks and activities are sometimes unclear. The students' responses to the questionnaire also reflect this, although the teachers showed a higher preference. Figure 4.44 shows that most students favoured their teachers using Arabic to give instructions during classroom tasks and activities, choosing "always" (19.4%), "often" (16.1%) and "sometimes" (36.6%). Alsuhaibani's (2015) study found mixed responses in this regard, with choices fluctuating between "always" (19.3%), "often" (22.7%), "sometimes" (23.9%), "rarely" (14.2%) and "never" (19.9%). This indicates that students might need the instructions for activities to be explained in Arabic to be able to understand what is required of them.

Frequency of Arabic use to give instructions to students during classroom tasks and activities

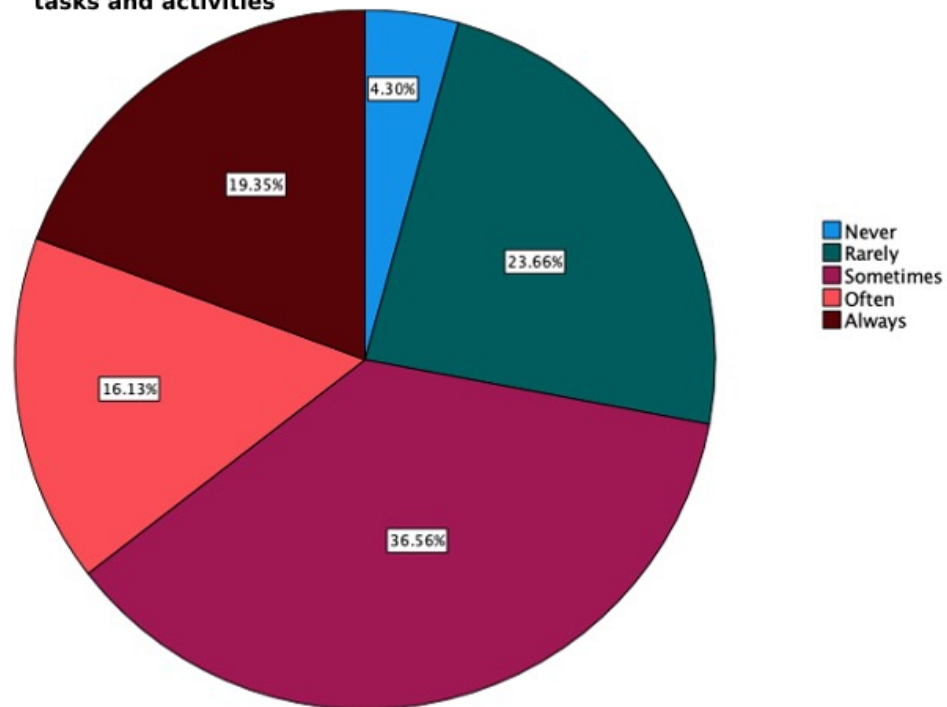


Figure 5.13. Use of the L1 to give instructions during classroom tasks and activities.

The follow-up interviews confirmed this analysis. S6 explained the reason for preferring Arabic, saying it was “in order not to do it a wrong way and lose marks”. The student further linked understanding the instructions to instrumental goals. That is, understanding the instructions might help meet different learning goals. In contrast, S11 disfavoured Arabic, saying “we are studying English and the module is actually in English”. This might also show that other students expect the teachers to use English in class. Thus, using the L1 for such purposes might depend on the students’ objectives and expectations.

Overall, the findings illustrate that the students used their L1 to discuss and clarify instructions. These uses helped reduce the students’ anxiety when lacking confidence that they had adequate knowledge of the L2. This was a natural use and emerged as a practical response to compensate for their linguistic deficiency or fear of making mistakes in front of peers. This ultimately would help them understand and engage more with the task and achieve its goal, consequently promoting the development of their L2. These practices and reasons highlight the important role of translanguaging in clearing up any misunderstandings and making sense of instructional input that might be complex or contain unfamiliar

technical terms, hence helping them achieve their learning objectives. This further supports the value of acknowledging translanguaging as resource, not only for pedagogical purposes but also for understanding instructions, which can enhance L2 learning.

5.4.3 Feedback-related purposes

This section explores the students' own language use for feedback-related purposes in ESAP classrooms. The observation revealed that while the teachers used the L1 for feedback-related purposes, such as correction or praise, the students used it for correcting and checking and comparing answers, particularly during collaborative work. These findings are in line with other studies that have reported students using their L1 in discussions about content (DiCamilla & Anton, 2012) and providing feedback to their peers (Macaro, 1998). It was revealed that such uses reflected a natural and spontaneous means of communication. To guide the discussion and analysis of students' feedback-related functions, Table 5.3 presents the main themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 5.3. Feedback-related purposes themes and codes

Theme	Codes
Feedback-related purposes	Correction
	Checking and confirming answers

Correction

Students were observed using Arabic to correct or provide a more accurate answer on an exercise or related to the meaning of a word. Students noted that such use was rather spontaneous. Examples can be seen in the following extracts:

Extract 5.7

S15: Salas elle howa allaeradi sah? [incontinence is voluntary, right?].

S16: La la mo elle laeradi [no, no not voluntary].

T8: It is useful vocabulary, so try to understand.

Extract 5.8

S9: Hathi belt, hezam [this is belt, belt].

In Extract 5.8, S15 was unsure of the meaning of a technical term and wanted to clarify that he was correct in thinking incontinence was voluntary urination. S16 switched to the L1 to correct him, saying it was not voluntary. Although the students were working individually on the exercise, they used their L1 to ask questions of each other. This means in addition to using the L1 during group work, they also used it when working individually (Ma, 2019). Both examples show that Arabic could be used to scaffold students' understanding of English, especially in terms of ESAP vocabulary. Moreover, it helped them understand the content and explain it to each other, reducing misunderstandings (Fitriani & Zulkamain, 2019).

Arabic was also used to highlight and correct mispronounced words, as can be seen in Extract 5.9. S9 used Arabic to correct his classmate, who was asking about the meaning of the word *belt* but pronounced it *pullet*. He first corrected the pronunciation and then provided the meaning. The correction of the mispronunciation of the word did not entail sarcasm or bullying. S16 could have simply given the meaning but might have thought that he should correct the pronunciation as his classmate might recognise the meaning when he heard it pronounced correctly. S9 clearly stated the reason for using Arabic in this situation, saying "it has become a habit, unfortunately talking in Arabic has become a habit". This might be because, as another student put it, "we are not accustomed to using English".

This dynamic nature of interaction and switching between languages, where students use a word in one language and draw on the other language to make sense of its meaning, can be identified as translanguaging. It should be noted that while such practices might have been identified in other studies in EFL and EAP contexts (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015), they could be more important in ESAP classrooms, enabling students not only to negotiate the meaning of general and academic vocabulary but also to engage in greater depth and understand technical and discipline-specific content. Hence, these findings demonstrate that translanguaging can play an important role in ESAP classrooms in scaffolding and promoting students' understanding, thus enhancing learning.

However, while students might benefit from their own language and knowledge, they might not recognise these as powerful assets. Similar results have been found in several studies (e.g. Alqahtani, 2020) that many Saudi students might not recognise the significance of their

language. That is, students benefit from using their full linguistic repertoires, yet still have a sense of guilt about using Arabic in situations when could have used English instead. They touched upon an important point concerning the potential for over-reliance on the L1 and it becoming a habit, which might result in a lack of practice in the L2. Although it seems that some students felt that the L1 was generally overused in group work (Alsuhaibani, 2015), other students seemed to benefit from asking about and discussing the content in the L1, which resulted in more pushed output (Swain 1985). In later studies, such as that conducted by Wang (2023), such uses were also observed but viewed as translanguaging practices. The study found students using translanguaging to provide or receive feedback which enabled them to produce more output, negotiate meaning and make the input more comprehensible, thus enhancing L2 understanding. Thus, while translanguaging offers a great advantage to students, it may also deprive them of valuable opportunities to practise the language.

The questionnaire offered a valuable lens into students' perceptions of their teachers' use of the L1 for giving corrective feedback to understand how such practices were received and interpreted by the students. In particular, the students were surveyed about their attitudes towards the use of Arabic for correcting spoken and written errors. In terms of spoken errors, Figure 5.14 demonstrates that the students' views differed but they broadly considered it favourable, as they chose "strongly agree" (18.3%), "agree" (23.7%) and "neutral" (26.9%). In contrast, the teachers strongly disfavoured such use in theory but frequently used it in class for such purposes. While this might indicate that the teachers' and students' views differed, the teachers' practices were in line with the students' preferences.

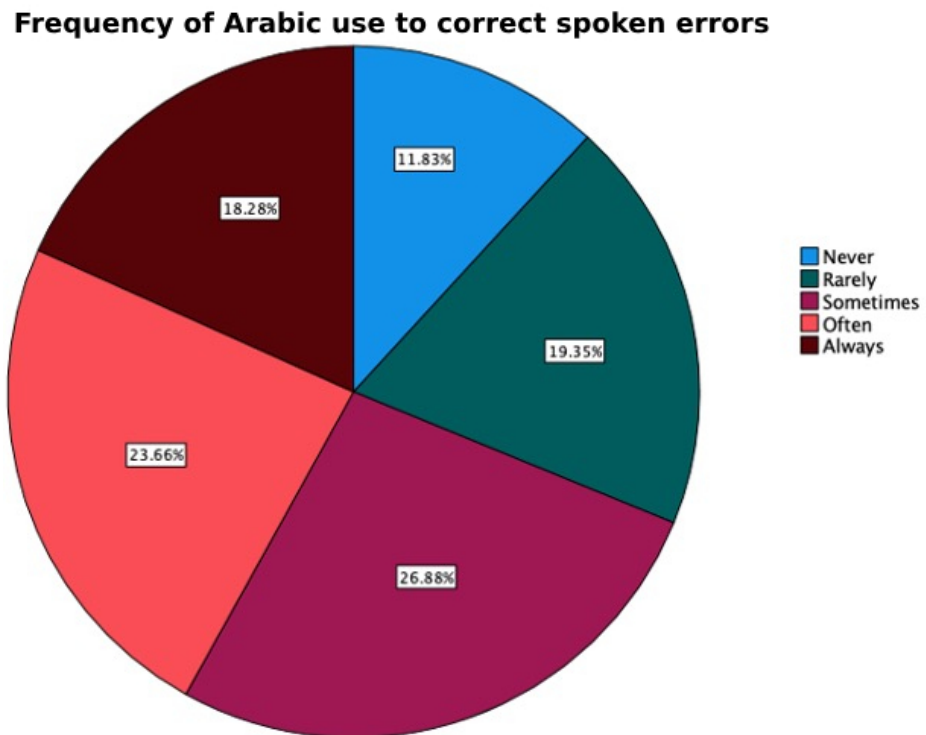


Figure 5.14. Use of the L1 to correct spoken errors.

Figure 5.15 demonstrates that the students tended more towards disagreeing with the use of Arabic to give feedback on written work, as most selected “sometimes” (28%), “rarely” (24.7%) and “never” (15.1%). Similarly, Taskin (2011) found that only 34.6% of students agreed with teachers’ use of the L1 in writing.

Frequency of Arabic use to give feedback on written work

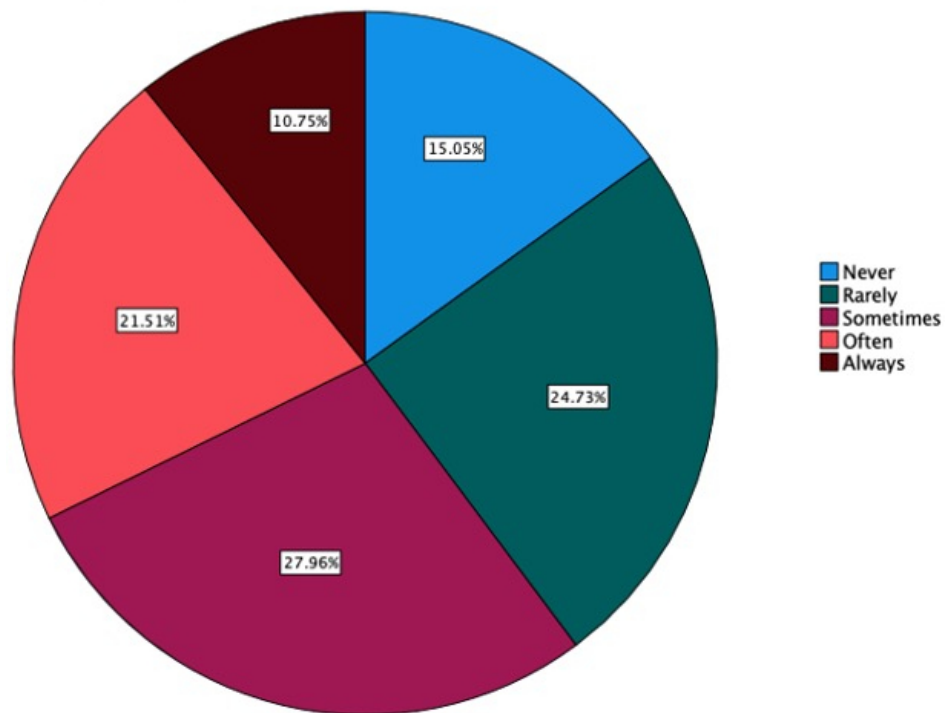


Figure 5.15. Use of the L1 to provide feedback on written work.

The follow-up interviews provided greater understanding about their preferences and the reasons for them. For instance, S21 seemed to prefer Arabic, saying “because it helps me understand. It is good that I reached this level of understanding and have written in English, but with Arabic, I can understand more”. S19 was among those who thought it depended on the difficulty of the assignment, saying “there are easy homework and there those that have a set of requirements which require the teacher to explain them in Arabic”. S14 felt “the teacher should try to explain in English first then in Arabic”. However, S12 favoured English, saying:

“...when the teacher comments on the homework on the blackboard, he writes the comments in English. If I don’t understand these comments, I copy them and translate them using an online dictionary. This means that I don’t need the teacher to use Arabic.”

Likewise, S22 preferred English, explaining “because I have written the homework in English and if there is anything that I don’t understand I would ask him to use English”. Thus, some of them believed that since they already knew how to write, they would be able to understand the teachers’ feedback and therefore they did not need Arabic. This confirms

that students' level is an important factor that should be considered when deciding to use or avoid the L1. Students at higher levels might not wish their teachers to use their own language when providing feedback.

It is worth noting that the teachers thought using Arabic was appropriate when providing feedback because it helped students feel less stressed. The students were asked whether they preferred their teachers to use their own language when they appeared stressed. The questionnaire data showed that they favoured such use, choosing “strongly agree” (22.6%), “agree” (33.3%) and some “neutral” (29%), as shown in Figure 5.16. This suggests that using Arabic did help them feel less stressed, although the teachers showed a higher preference for this usage.

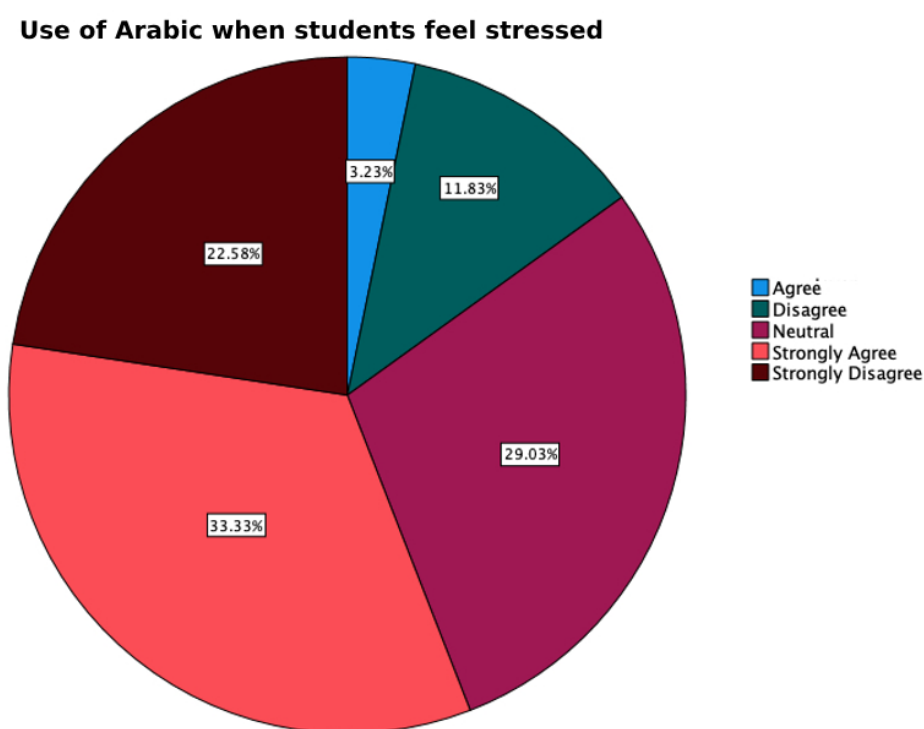


Figure 5.16. Use of the L1 when students are stressed.

Checking and comparing answers

Another frequent and unique use of the L1 by the students was checking and comparing answers. Such findings are in line with various studies (e.g., Anton & DiCamilla, 1999; Bhooth et al., 2014). The students used Arabic to check and compare their answers with each other, as can be seen in the following example:

Extract 5.9

S19: Awal wahda? [the first one?].

S20: Awal wahda, elle badaha D [yes, the first one and then the next one is D].

Regardless of whether the students were doing an exercise individually or in groups, they tended to check and compare their answers. This helped them stay on task and likely gave them a sense of reassurance that they were learning. When they made mistakes, their peers corrected them and articulated why certain answers were correct or incorrect. S19, akin to S15 and S16, felt “it is part of our culture that we speak Arabic and even when we want to speak in English, the first thing that comes to my mind is Arabic”. It seems that the students used the L1 as they regarded it as natural and as part of their identity, as also found by Liebscher and O’Cain (2005). That is, students bring to the target language numerous tools and resources, including the L1, which cannot be disconnected from their personalities and identities (Bruhlmann, 2012).

The above response also confirms Cook’s (2001) argument that students feel using the target language does not reflect their true identity and the L1 helps them relate to who they are. In other words, students are not merely learners but have complex emotions. Thus, denying their language might mean denying the tools naturally available to them and their identities, which could have negative consequences for their learning. Anton and DiCamilla, (1998) concluded that banning the L1 would prevent students from using two powerful learning tools, namely the L1 and effective collaboration, which students rely on to complete tasks. Thus, translanguaging offers a great opportunity to draw on their full linguistic resources for various purposes, such as negotiating meaning and sense-making.

In sum, these findings illustrate the students’ own language use for correction and feedback. Uses included checking and comparing answers, demonstrating their attempts to ensure accurate understanding of ESAP content. Although these uses were frequently motivated by necessity or peer support, they can be viewed as translanguaging practices which helped them negotiate understanding and scaffold knowledge, particularly when tackling complex ESAP content. However, they seemed cautious about overreliance on their own language, which highlight the need to raise students’ awareness of the potential benefits of

translanguaging, not only as a crutch but as a powerful and effective resource for learning and collaboration in ESAP classrooms.

5.4.4 Religious-related purposes

This section explores the use of the L1 for religious-related purposes. This includes the familiar religious expressions which supported students' emotional environment and cultural relevance within the classroom. While teachers acknowledged and endorsed such uses, students' uses seemed more spontaneous and natural uses. To guide the discussion and analysis of these religious-related functions, Table 5.4 presents the main themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 5.4. Religious-related purposes

Theme	Code
Religious-related purposes	Religion

Religion

Similar to the teachers, another use of Arabic was to discuss religious aspects. Religion is part of the students' culture and identity, and they tended to revert to Arabic whenever they discussed topics related to or in contravention of their religion, Islam. This was very common in the lessons observed. An example is given in Extract 5.10:

Extract 5.10

S12: In Islam no, [this is considered] **ajor** [a good deed].

S13: No, **haram** [it is forbidden].

The topic of this lesson was about donating organs but then included discussing selling organs and hunting as a sport. S12 noted that while donating organs is acceptable in Islam, selling organs is forbidden. S13 responded to the teacher's point about hunting as a sport as forbidden, too. Unfortunately, these students could not be interviewed due to the commencement of the examinations and then the holiday. Looking at the two instances of L1 use, it could be said that both students seemed to switch to their language in the face of a gap in their L2 vocabulary. Thus, this interchange could be viewed as code-switching.

However, based on the observation and the field notes, it seemed that S12 had a good command of English and was probably able to say that it was not acceptable in his religion if he did not know the word *forbidden*. In this instance, both students seemed to use Arabic to comment on or express their religious views.

While this use of Arabic could be viewed as indicating the seriousness represented in their disagreements, even teachers who are non-native speakers of Arabic noted that using Arabic to discuss religious aspects was more appropriate. One way of viewing this is to consider the connection between Arabic and Islam (see section 1.2). These uses fall under the category of translanguaging. The students used translanguaging to express themselves and make sense of the topic being discussed, while the teacher did so to draw on the shared language and knowledge the students brought to the classroom (Li, 2014). Using their full linguistic resources in fact reflects high knowledge and skill of those bi/multilingual speakers (Dutton et al., 2020; Li, 2018) when socialising and exchanging values, ideologies and knowledge (Li, 2018). Thus, translanguaging has several advantages in the classroom, for example encouraging students' participation, discussion and production, which are significant aspects of the learning process.

These results highlight the importance of the L1 in serving various purposes, including communicative functions. In this case, it aided the students' discussion on religious points, which are sensitive and deeply embedded in their cultural and personal identities. The above examples of translanguaging underscore its significance for students' linguistic knowledge, as well as their ability to evaluate and engage critically with the content and the learning process. Thus, translanguaging is not only a tool for promoting understanding but also a natural and dynamic practice that enables students to draw on religious discourse to question, discuss or expand on the lesson content. These features highlight the intellectual depth and agency that translanguaging affords, especially in ESAP classrooms, where academic and subject-specific content may intersect with cultural norms or religious beliefs and practices. Therefore, these findings extend the role of the L1 beyond the EFL and EAP contexts, offering a significant contribution to the literature and reframing its use in ESAP classes as not only academically and disciplinarily purposeful but also socially and culturally meaningful.

5.4.5 Interpersonal-related purposes

The students were observed using Arabic frequently for interpersonal purposes, such as chatting and mocking and adding personal comments. The classroom is part of the students' lives and thus they joked, chatted and commented on the topic or vocabulary being discussed. It seemed that when students were left to do an exercise in groups, they generally chatted and joked in their L1, although there were some students who worked together and used English. These functions of L1 use were generally believed to motivate students and create a positive atmosphere. To guide the discussion and analysis of these interpersonal-related functions, Table 5.5 presents the main themes and codes that emerged from the observation data. For the full list of themes and codes, see Appendix J.

Table 5.5. Interpersonal-related purposes

Themes	Codes
Interpersonal-related purposes	Chatting
	Mocking
	Personal comment

Chatting

The students were observed using the L1 when chatting with each other. Chatting in the L1 occurred in all classes and during different phases of the lesson. One particular moment was when students were collaborating in a group work for a presentation. Each student should have been working on a particular aspect, such as searching for information, writing up the points or presenting them. An example of this use can be seen in the following example:

Extract 5.11

S7: Hamalt esh? Pubg? [what did you download? Pubg?]. (While working in groups)

S8: Yakhi eash harjat alkokez, kokez eash harjatha? [what do the cookies do?] (While teacher is explaining a point)

While some students were absorbed in searching for information and writing up the points to present them, S7, as shown in Extract 5.11, switched to the L1 to chat off topic, talking about downloading and playing games with another student. One possible reason for this, as Pablo et al. (2011) observed, is that students may start chatting after completing a task when others have not finished. One student reasoned his use of Arabic, stating “I felt bored”, and

another also noted “maybe we felt bored or did not understand”. Thus, one main reason for chatting off topic is boredom. However, it can also be due to lack of understanding. One student used Arabic to chat with his classmate while the teacher was teaching. He clearly noted that this was “because I do not understand what the teacher is saying so I end up chatting with my classmates”. Similarly, S3 used the L1 to chat with his classmate, saying “eashbk mnzl alkamamah? [why are you not wearing your facemask?]”. This was because, as he put it, “I am not focusing with the teacher”. It appears that he was not following the lesson and rather than requesting clarification from the teacher, like other students, he switched off and started chatting in Arabic. Other students responded to their peers in Arabic, for example S8, who replied to a classmate who asked him if he knew what cookies were, which was not relevant to what their teacher was explaining, to avoid losing attention.

Overall, using the L1 to chat off topic could be a sign of switching off. When students lack understanding or interest, they tend to chat. This might have a negative impact on other students as they could be distracted, a point discussed by Hellermann and Doehler (2010). It may be that not all students feel able to ask the teacher for additional explanation or clarification and follow up with multiple questions to maintain their comprehension or interest in the lesson. However, single use of the L1 might be beneficial in facilitating understanding or promoting motivation. This could be done by encouraging the students to request clarification, either in the L1 or the L2, or through the teacher checking their comprehension.

These types of chats or side discussions have been found in other studies as noted above. While the L1 was generally viewed negatively, as the students would use it to chat off task, recent understanding of the experience of bi/multilingual speakers has brought new insights into such use. Viewing them as translanguaging practices (e.g. Parkash et al., 2021) casts them as a natural and realistic use of one’s own language, especially during off topic talk. While such off-task chat might not be even a sub-goal of the L2 classroom, these interactions may have a valuable effect on students’ learning process. For example, Bista (2010) found that students use their own language when bored, considering it a way to make the lesson more interesting. Thus, allowing students own language use in class might not always be negative as is generally considered. Students in other sections also identified that their own language could positively impact motivation and anxiety.

Although the teachers used the L1 for instructional purposes when they thought their students felt demotivated, lack of motivation led the students to disconnect and begin chatting. The questionnaire responses provided valuable insights into how the students viewed the teachers' uses of the L1 in these situations. When the students felt demotivated/out of mood, the results showed that they preferred their teachers to use their own language. They opted for “strongly agree” (20.4%) and “agree” (24.7%), although some chose “neutral” (34.4%) or “disagree” (14%), as shown in Figure 4.41. Taskin (2011) found that more than 50% of students believed that the teachers' use of the target language all the time did not motivate them, concluding that L1 played a vital role in motivating the students.

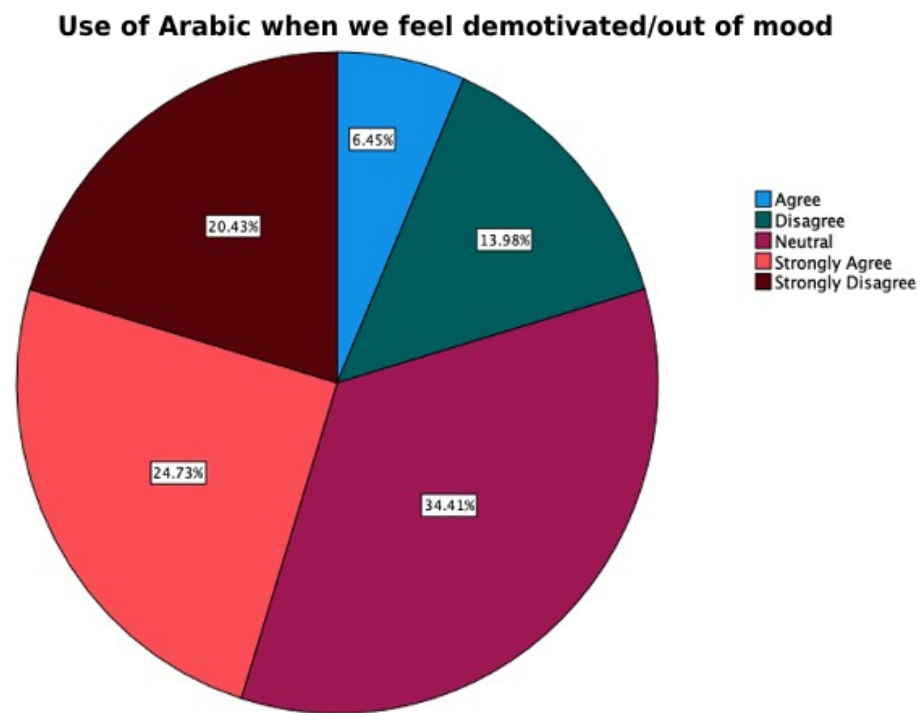


Figure 5.17. Use of the L1 when students are demotivated.

The follow-up interview helped gain deeper insight into these preferences. Although only S12 commented on this use, perhaps summarising the views of his peers, saying “when students feel bored, the teacher should joke in Arabic in order to motivate them and then continue the lesson because they will feel bored if it is only in English”. This further confirms the points discussed concerning the positive impact of L1 use on the students' motivation, which could in turn enhance their learning. It might be that such use reduces the students'

affective filter and brings down the anxiety resulting from being immersed in an English-only environment. This signifies the importance of its inclusion in the classroom.

Mocking

Students were observed using Arabic negatively to make sarcastic comments about those who mispronounced English words or to mock others. This was only observed twice and the comments were laughed at privately among a few students. One example of this use can be seen in the following example:

Extract 5.12

S10: Printing yegol paining wahsh [it is printing but he said painting. Well done!]

Although this code-switching to make a sarcastic comment was not loud enough to be heard by the student who mispronounced the word, it seems that the students were aware that spoken errors, such as mispronunciation, would be laughed at, creating a sense of fear of speaking in the L2 (Çelik, 2020). This was frequently discussed during the stimulated recall interviews as one reason for avoiding the use of English when speaking to the teacher, which is mostly loud enough to be heard by the rest of the class. One student attributed his avoidance of speaking in English to a past experience and continued problems, recounting “I might have developed this fear from the past, but my classmates still bully me”. It seems that he was bullied at school due to a mistake he made when speaking in English, which had a great effect on him and he continued to feel bullied, resulting in his avoidance of English and use of Arabic. Teachers in Baeshin’s (2016) study noted the same phenomenon, namely that students used the L1 to avoid being laughed at. The same student stated that “I may speak in English only if I know what I am going to say. If I am not sure, I would be afraid of mispronouncing it”.

This fear might be eliminated or reduced when the student knows he can speak accurately and with good pronunciation. Thus, a major reason for the avoidance of the L2 is a lack of knowledge in the target language (Çelik, 2020). Due to this, students tend to use the L1 to express what they want to say, increasing their contribution in class without being afraid of looking foolish (Bhooth et al., 2014). Importantly, students should be offered a safe space

and given the opportunity to produce output and negotiate meaning to test their hypotheses as key processes in language acquisition.

Providing personal comments

Similar to the teachers, the students were observed using Arabic to discuss a topic or an idea from their own perspectives, especially when they really wanted to comment on points in the lesson that seemed interesting to them. This use of Arabic is demonstrated in the following example:

Extract 5.13

S11: Takhayal yswoon lak amalyah wa tehes be alalam [imagine that you undergo a surgery in which you feel the pain].

This is an excerpt from a lesson in which the students were asked to discuss which hypothetical situations they feared the most. The one S11 alluded to in discussion with his classmate in Extract 5.13 concerned what was possibly a very personal fear of feeling pain during surgery. It seems that S11 used translanguaging to personalise the topic and fully engage in it. While Arabic has been found to be used as a brainstorming tool (Harris, 2001, as cited in Turnbull, 2018) or to personalise the topic, S11's comment on his use of Arabic in this situation was that "lectures are generally formal so those little talks lighten the mood". This extract was taken from the first few minutes of the lesson, so was not related to the length of the lesson but to its formality. Thus, both teachers and students viewed the L1 as a tool to break the ice and create a friendly atmosphere.

Further, as Parkash et al. (2021) noted, such translanguaging practices enable students to share their viewpoints. It promotes attention, understanding and creates an informal environment. Thus, translanguaging empowers students to express emotions and their personal opinions in a more comfortable and natural way that would not be possible in their L2. This fluid and dynamic use enables them to interact, discuss and make sense of the content, consequently promoting their learning of the L2.

Concerning creating a positive environment, the questionnaire results shown in Figure 5.18 show that they greatly preferred the use of the L1 for their teachers to joke with them and create a good classroom atmosphere, selecting "always" (36.6%), "often" (23.7%) and

“sometimes” (28%). This in line with Alsuhaibani (2015), who found more than half of students liked their teachers to joke in the L1. The results of this study demonstrate that the students rated this function higher than the teachers, in contrast to Shimizu’s (2006) research, which found that the students rated it very low.

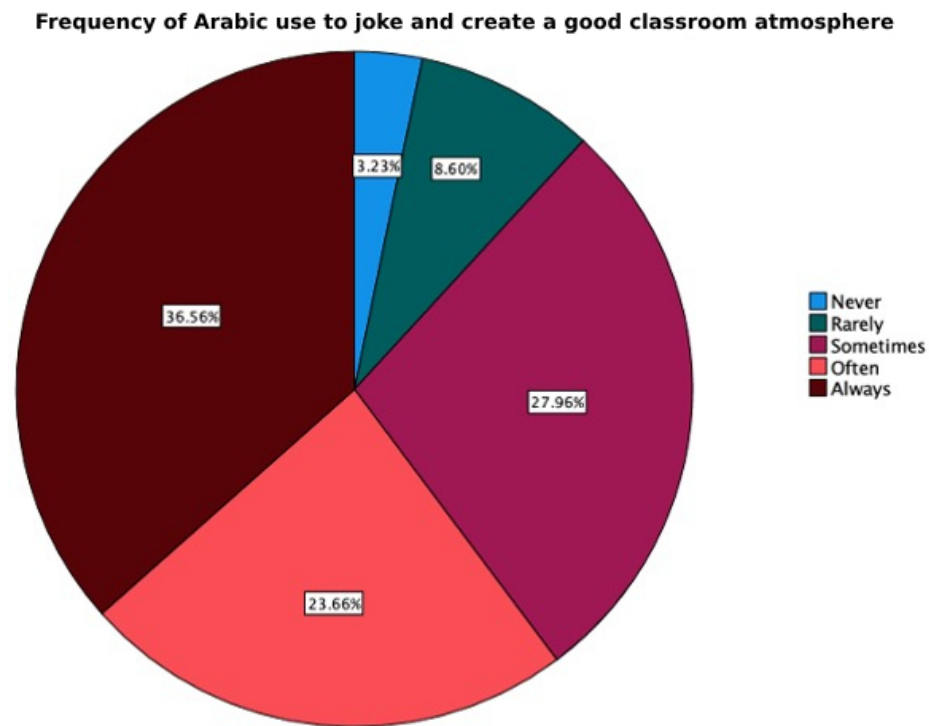


Figure 5.18. Use of the L1 to joke and create a good classroom atmosphere.

S14 said “it should be in Arabic because it makes them feel comfortable, I mean relax. It makes you understand, focus with the teacher, but if he speaks English and I don’t understand the first couple of words, I won’t understand the rest”. He added the use of Arabic could break the ice between the teacher and the students. S24 felt “the lesson would be too formal if it is only in English” and S12 noted “most of the students would understand the teacher and what he meant”. S23 stated “you can joke in English or Arabic it won’t make a difference”, but thought Arabic “creates friendly atmosphere to make the student love the module”. Likewise, Taskin (2011) concluded that students’ preferences for the L1 when joking was because they believed it promoted a friendly learning atmosphere and increased their motivation.

However, S6 recounted, “I prefer English because it can make you love the module and the language, and it will increase your interest in the language”. Similarly, S12 favoured English because it might motivate the student to try to understand the joke, saying “if the students do not understand in English and laugh, they would use Arabic to look up meaning of the joke”. S21 also favoured English because “it’s an English lesson and we need to understand English because most students play video games and therefore they should have an idea about joking in English”. Moreover, S16 pointed out:

“...if the teacher, for example, translates a new word, you would understand it but if you hear it elsewhere in English you might misunderstand it and therefore it is much better if the teacher speaks in English to improve your level. Also by joking in English, it means the teacher will not stick with the book.”

Similarly, S18 believed that using English would help him improve. S22 greatly favoured English, explaining “for me, when he uses English, it would make me laugh more because I know English and Polish. English makes me laugh more. Arabic won’t help me learn English”. Hence, they seemed to believe that being exposed to English was vital to help them improve their linguistic skills, a point also stressed by the students in Shimizu’s (2006) study. Generally, as discussed previously, using translanguaging to joke is more natural and understandable. Similarly, Parkash et al. (2021) concluded that using translanguaging to joke is important for several reasons. First, students consider it a natural means of informal conversation. In addition, such use normally entails culturally specific uses or sounds, which are essential components of jokes. Finally, the study found this the second most used function of translanguaging and one that would enhance learning, especially as the students’ attention span is short (Parkash et al., 2021). This makes the use of translanguaging unique and important in L2 classrooms.

Summary

This section has highlighted students’ own language use for interpersonal-related purposes, such as chatting, mocking and making personal comments. Some of these uses were off task, many driven by boredom and demotivation or lack of understanding. However, these spontaneous informal uses also had an impact on motivating students and creating a positive atmosphere. Such natural and cultural uses fall under the definition of translanguaging practices, as they enabled the students to draw on their full repertoire to sustain connection,

share personal opinions, lighten the mood and develop a more inclusive environment. Some uses, such as mocking, had a negative impact on students' participation, whereas others lowered the affective filter, promoting students' motivation and fostering an inclusive atmosphere. These findings suggest that supporting appropriate and effective interpersonal uses of Arabic, while addressing other uses that hinder participation, can contribute positively to students' academic and emotional experience in their ESAP classrooms and thus lead to better outcome.

5.5 Students' Attitudes Towards Broader Aspects of L1 Use: Purposes, Factors and Situations Beyond Observed Practices

Drawing on the practices of teachers and their related views on these uses, this section explores the unobserved but nevertheless important views drawn from the remaining questionnaire and follow-up interview data. These views help understand students' broader attitudes towards their teachers' L1 use, shedding light on various other purposes, factors and situations either not observed in classroom use or not discussed during the stimulated recall interviews. These include discussing course/lesson objectives and the length of the syllabus. The order of this section follows the sequence of the items in the questionnaire (see Appendix C).

5.5.1 Functions of L1 use

This sub-section explores the students' attitudes towards their teachers' use of the L1 in their ESAP classrooms. It aims to examine not only how often students would like their teachers to use Arabic for particular purposes but also to explore the underlying reasons for their views. This offers valuable insights into students' views of the unobserved purposes of L1 in their ESAP classroom. As discussed in Chapter 4 (see 4.5), these different uses seemed to fall outside the scope of the teaching process.

Discussing course/lesson objectives

The first statement in the questionnaire was concerned with teachers' use of the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives. Most students were neutral or expressed disfavour about their teachers' use of the L1 for this purpose, as shown in Figure 5.19.

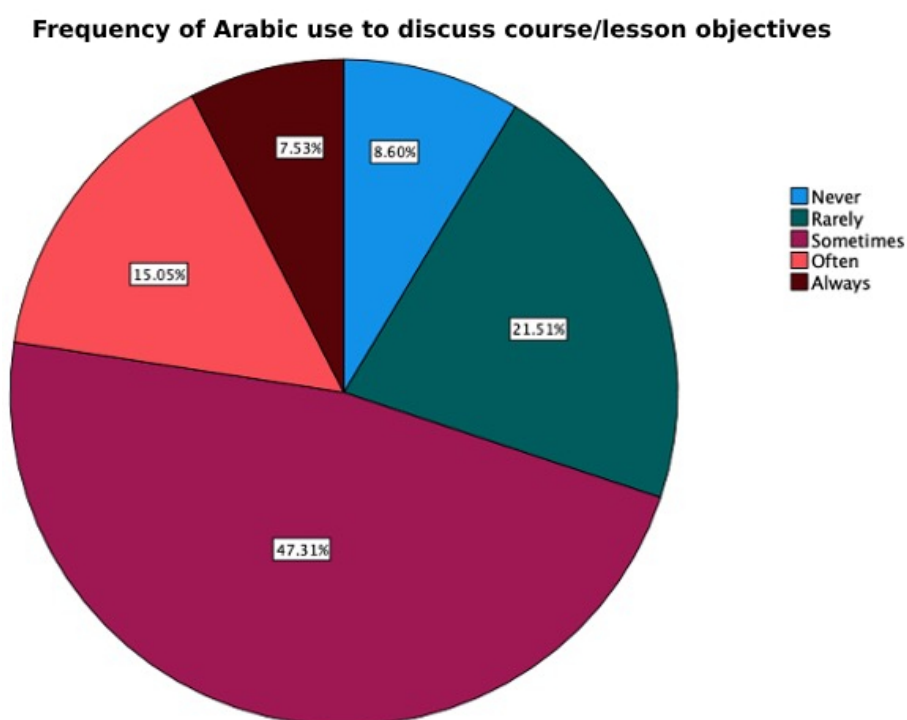


Figure 5.19. Use of the L1 to discuss course/lesson objectives.

During the follow-up interviews, several students, including S17, S19 and S23, expressed a preference for English in this regard, stating “you are coming to teach English, if you explain the course objectives in Arabic you would lose the goal of the module”. S16 also favoured using English but noted “it should be in English, but we sometimes do not understand and therefore he should explain it in Arabic for us to understand and then use English”. S18 was neutral, saying “as long as it is easily understood whether in English or in Arabic, the student would benefit”. However, S21 favoured Arabic because it helped build, as he put it, “their bank of vocabulary”. These results conflict with those of Taskin (2011), who found that introducing new topics in the L1 was favoured by 76.3%, as unfamiliar topics increased their anxiety and impeded their learning. Perhaps using translanguaging and drawing on the learners’ shared knowledge or own language before starting the lesson can enhance their understanding and confidence, with the language in which they are strong helping prepare them for what the teacher will say in their weaker language.

Checking comprehension and summing up a lesson

Another purpose of the L1 was to check comprehension. The students thought their teachers should “always” (10.8%), “often” (25.8%), “sometimes” and “rarely” (29.8%) use it for checking comprehension, as shown in Figure 5.20.

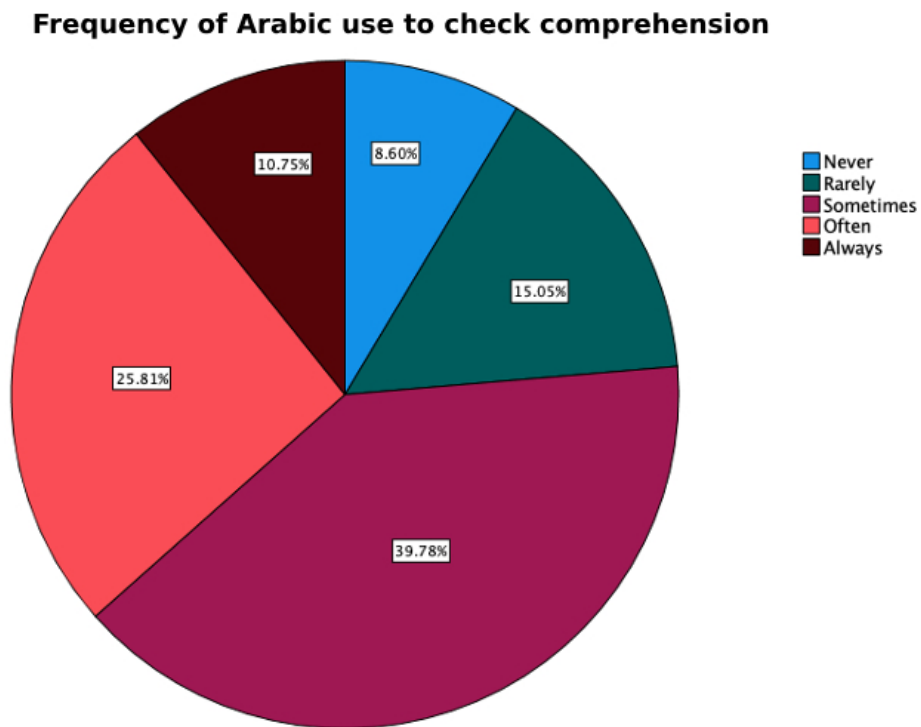


Figure 5.20. Use of the L1 to check comprehension.

Another rather similar function of the L1 in the questionnaire was to sum up a lesson. The results showed that the students were ambivalent concerning this use, choosing “often” (33.3), “sometimes” (26.9%) and “rarely” (19.4%), as shown in Figure 5.21.

Frequency of Arabic use to sum up a lesson

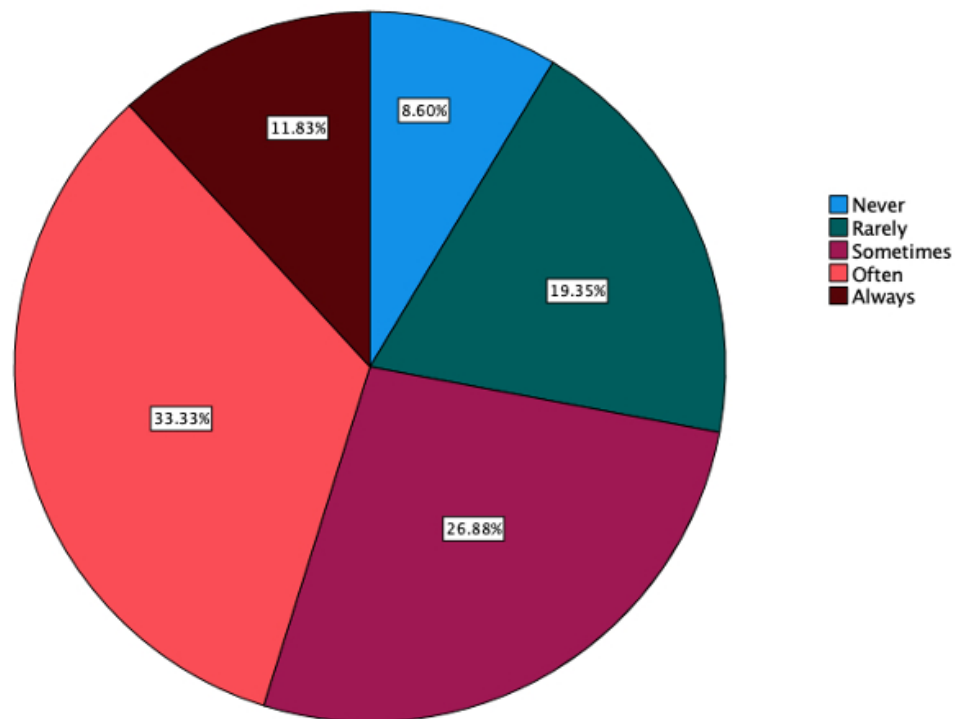


Figure 5.21. Use of the L1 to sum up a lesson.

The follow-up interview results were surprising, as the students' views differed when asked about the two fairly similar functions. They leaned towards preferring their teacher to use Arabic to check their understanding immediately rather than summing up the lesson at the end of a class. Unfortunately, the students did not comment on certain functions. Their views focused more on immediate explanation in the L1 than other uses, such as checking comprehension or summing up a lesson. Taskin (2011) found that 73.2% of students were in favour of using the L1 for checking comprehension, whereas they viewed its use to summarise lessons negatively, which might indicate that they needed the L1 when learning new materials but favoured the L2 when they faced such items later. This further confirms the point made earlier, namely that once students understood an item, they would not need the L1 again. That is, once they comprehended and internalised an item, they favoured use of the L2. Thus, it could be argued that L1 use gives way to understanding, learning and practising the L2. Similar arguments have been put forward by other authors (e.g. Auerbach, 1993; Hall & Cook, 2012; Rolin-Ianziti & Varshney, 2008; Shamash, 1990), who believed

that the use of the learners' own language can facilitate the learning process rather than hinder it.

Teaching speaking rules

Although this was discussed under teachers' use of the L1 for pedagogical purposes, the students were not observed using their own language to address speaking rules and therefore it is discussed here. When asked about their preferences concerning teachers' use of the L1 for this purpose, most of the students chose "often", "sometimes", "rarely" and "never" (around 20% each), as shown in Figure 5.22. Similarly, Taskin (2011) found that only 34.8% of students thought the L1 improved their speaking skills. These moderate responses indicate that students are not greatly in favour of their teachers using the L1 much for this purpose.

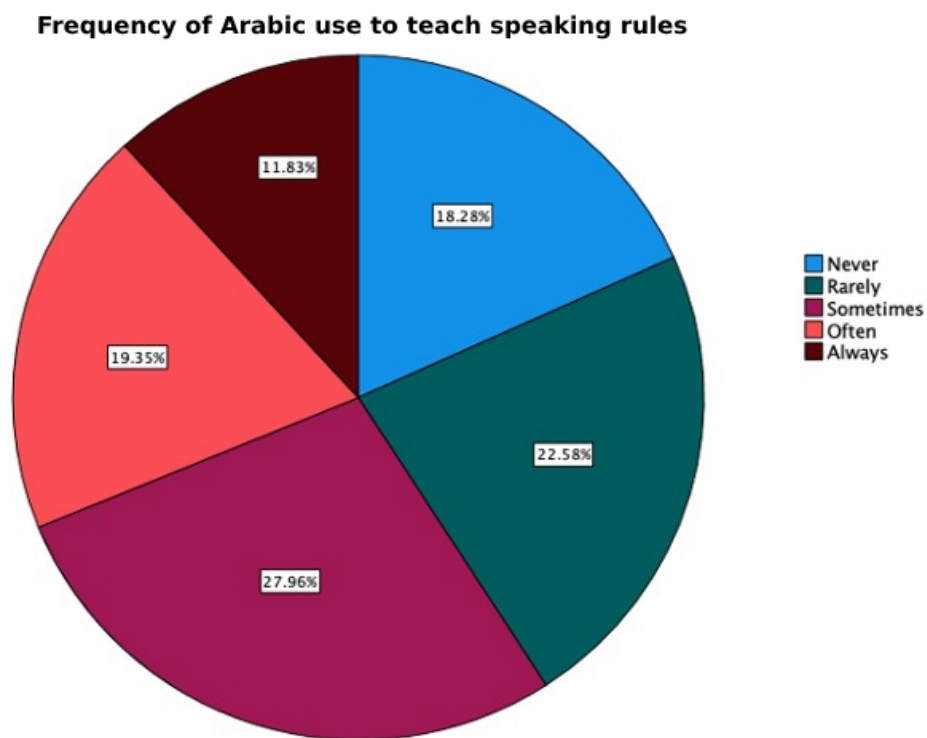


Figure 5.22. Use of the L1 to teach speaking rules.

During the follow-up interviews, all three students indicated that they favoured the use of English to teach speaking rules. S22 said, "if you say the rules in Arabic, students will not benefit". S16 noted "Arabic is important in order to understand, but I think if you start listening to English you would improve how you can say something and get used to saying

it". S12 preferred English "because I can understand how to pronounce". However, in Extract 4.7, the teacher used Arabic to discuss certain phonological rules for some words and drew on the students' own language to highlight the sounds and the pronunciation of each word. Nonetheless, akin to Taskin's (2011) results, the students seemed to favour the use of English for such purposes, including how to pronounce words correctly.

Giving suggestions on how to learn effectively

Another function of the L1 concerned teachers' use of Arabic to give suggestions on how to learn effectively. When surveyed, the students showed that they broadly favoured use of the L1, choosing "always" (23.7%), "often" (31.2%) and "sometimes" (26.9%), as shown in Figure 5.23. This might demonstrate their eagerness to learn English or to understand the most effective ways to master the language. Likewise, Alsuhaibani (2015) found that students preferred their teachers to use the L1 to make suggestions on how to learn more effectively, opting for "always" (19.8%), "often" (17.5%) and "sometimes" (28.8%).

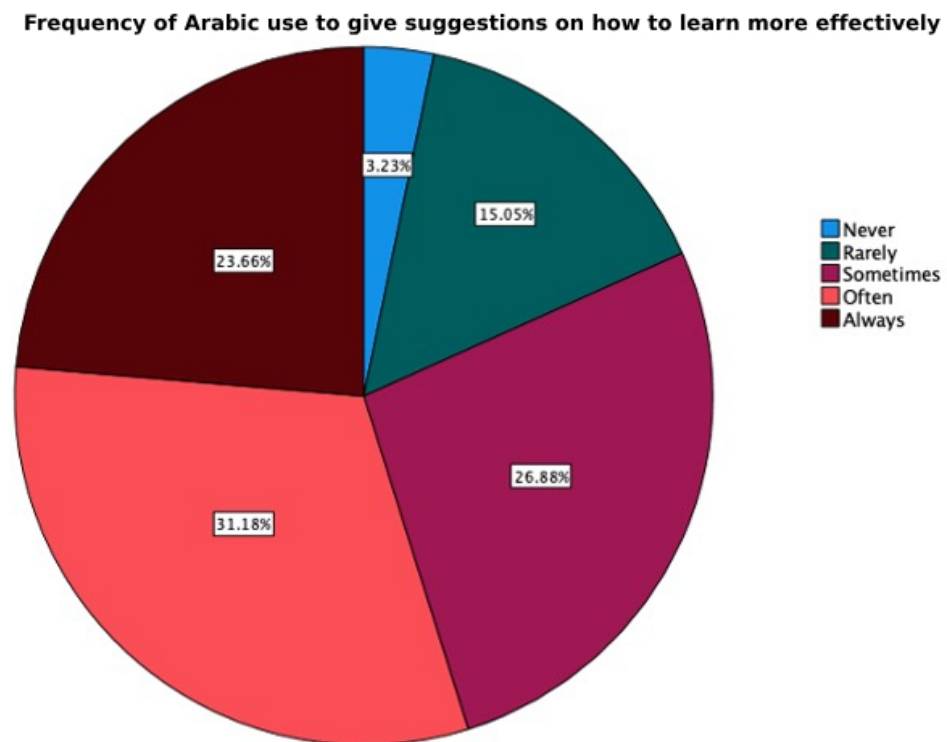


Figure 5.23. Use of the L1 to suggest effective learning strategies.

The follow-up interviews helped understand students' reasons for their preferences. S17 explained his preference for L1 use, saying "because our language is Arabic so how would you teach the students to do this or that in English. The students would not be able to understand because they are not proficient enough". Equally, S14 said, "some students come to class with zero knowledge of English, so the teacher has to use Arabic to simplify things for them and show them the way because they won't understand if he uses English". S23 preferred the use of Arabic to help low-level students but cautioned that "the teacher should not use Arabic too much". S21 considered that Arabic could be used at the beginning of the semester, saying "after that the student can understand by himself". However, there were students who favoured English. S24, reflecting the same view as S16, said "it would be better if he uses English to learn from him". While the students favoured Arabic for this purpose, it seems that their proficiency level was a significant factor in determining the choice of the language. Thus, teachers should consider this factor when discussing effective learning strategies.

Giving instructions to students when administering tests

Another surveyed purpose of L1 use was to give instructions during tests. As shown in Figure 5.24, most students preferred their teacher to use Arabic for giving instructions when administering tests, opting for "always" (35.5%), "often" (22.6%) and "sometimes" (28%).

Frequency of Arabic use to give instructions to students when administering tests

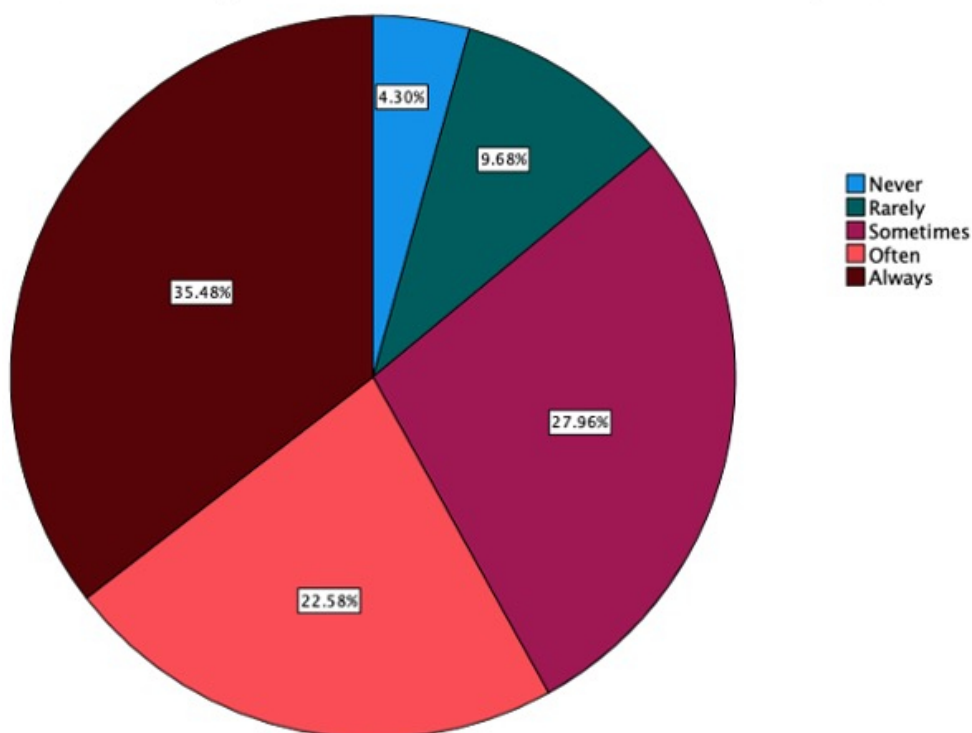


Figure 5.24. Use of the L1 to give instructions during tests.

During the follow-up interviews, it was felt that Arabic put them at ease as S17 said “coming to a test is totally different from coming to learn English”. However, their reasons appeared to be pragmatic. S18 stated “you want me to understand the instructions not to test me on the instructions”. Similarly, S25 preferred Arabic but added, “everyone will understand when the teacher explains the instructions in Arabic. But if he uses English, students won’t understand and consequently might lose marks”. S17 was neutral, reporting “in the mid-term maybe you can use Arabic, but not in the final because the students have studied English, and he should be able to understand the instructions”. Surprisingly, S21 preferred English, stating “Arabic might result in more and more explanation which makes the students feel lost”. The students seem to be more concerned with the understanding the instructions of the test rather than being put at ease. While the students’ views differed, some of them seemed to consider examinations outside the scope of learning and thus the teacher should use Arabic to ensure the instructions were understood. This aspect has been noted to affect both teachers’ and students’ views.

Maintaining discipline

Another function concerned teachers' use of the L1 for maintaining discipline. Figure 5.25 shows that the students predominantly favoured their teachers using Arabic to maintain discipline, choosing "always" (23.7%), "often" (17.2%) and "sometimes" (37.6%). This is in line with Taskin (2011), who found half of students preferred the use of the L1 for this purpose, believing that it delivered the message better.

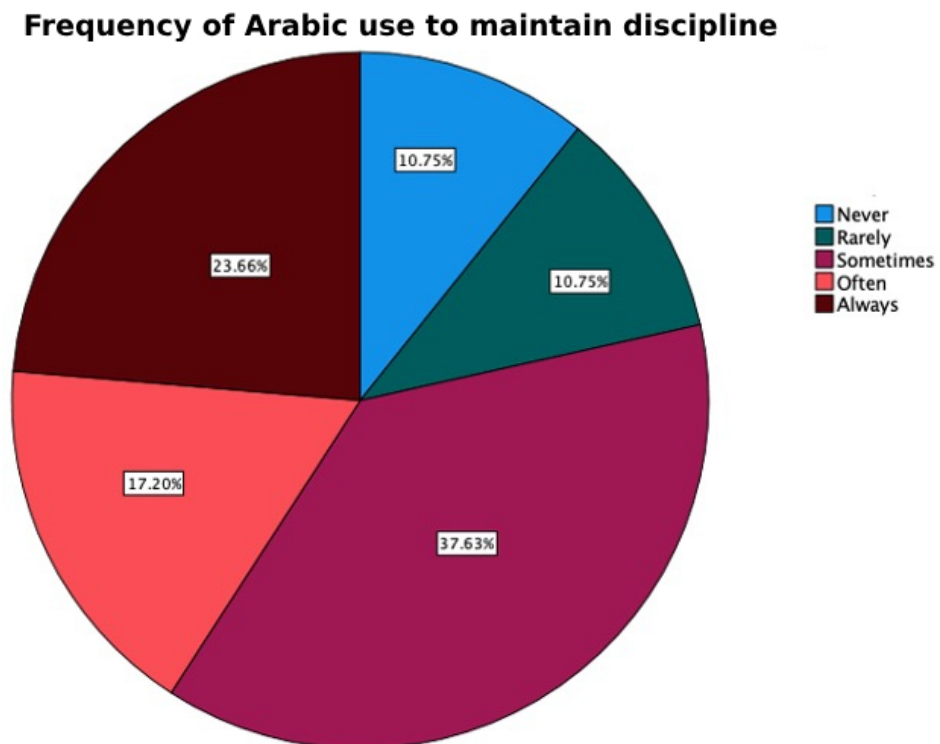


Figure 5.25. Use of the L1 to maintain discipline.

Checking attendance

Another function identified in the questionnaire was the use of Arabic for taking students' attendance. This purpose could also be considered outside the scope of learning. The participants' views concerning using the L1 to check student attendance varied, as shown in Figure 5.26. Most favoured using the L1 for this, selecting "always" (20.4%), "sometimes" (26.9%) and "never" (25.8%), while fewer chose "often" (10.8%) and "rarely" (16.1%).

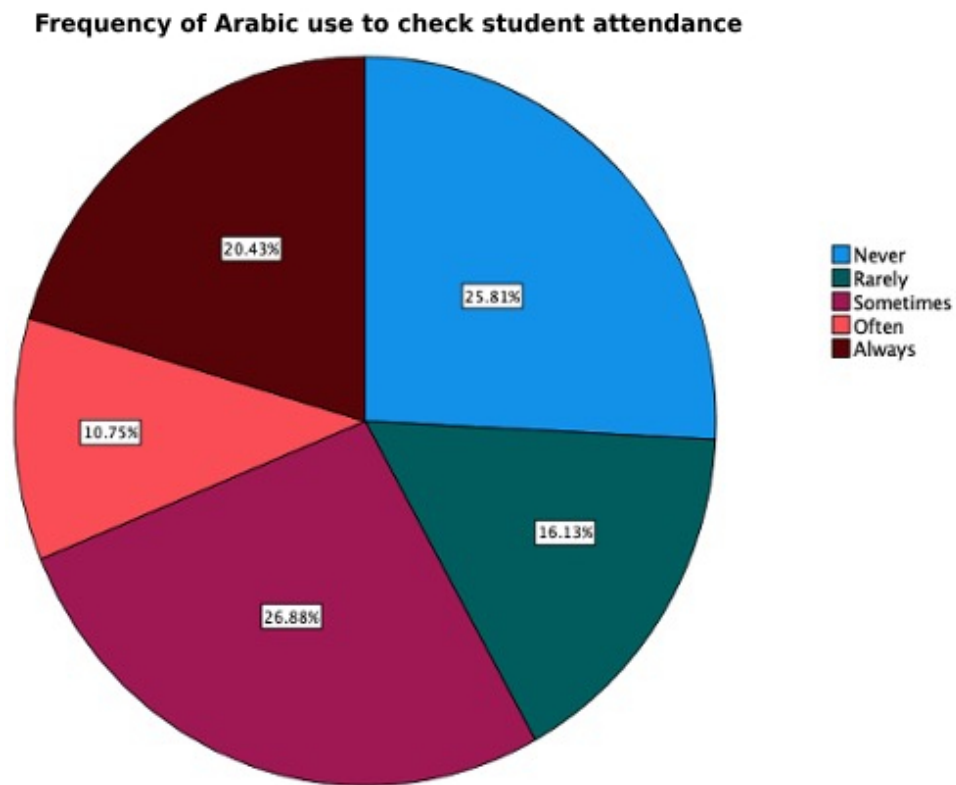


Figure 5.26. Use of the L1 to check attendance.

During the follow-up interviews, while S18 and S11 seemed to neutral opinion and did not prefer either language, S2 said “in English, but I don’t know because it depends on the students and their willingness to speak in English”. Two students favoured Arabic. S14 stated, “although I understand English, I don’t know how to respond in English”. Similarly, S25 gave an example arguing that some students might be able to explain their reasons for being absent in English. However, S23 disagreed and made an important point, saying:

“I prefer the teacher to use English here in order to give the students a chance to respond in English. Even if the student was absent, he should think and try to say the reason for being absent in English. The student can take advantage of this and try to put some words together in a sentence and speak to the teacher.”

S21 took the same view, saying “the student should get used to speak in English”. S16 noted that using English for such purposes can help students learn and use certain phrases, such as *I am absent because*. S8 and S12 shared a similar view, suggesting that the teacher should use simple English phrases. These could help them understand and learn those phrases.

Overall, the students favoured English and consider such situations a valuable opportunity to learn and practise the language.

In sum, the students' attitudes generally leaned towards the use of the L1 for pedagogical purposes. However, this section demonstrates that they also accepted use of their own language for other purposes. These include administering tests, teaching how to learn effectively, creating a friendly atmosphere and checking attendance. Interestingly, the interviews revealed that students actually opposed such uses in practice. This discrepancy might indicate that the interviewees represented a minority disavowing such uses. However, my view is that these responses illustrate the influence of negative attitudes towards L1 use on views expressed in person, in contrast to being asked anonymously, hiding their positive attitudes towards its use.

5.5.2 Factors influencing L1 use

Building on the previous sub-section concerning the students' attitudes towards their teachers' uses of Arabic, here I shift the focus to the broader factors which might influence its use in their ESAP classrooms. In particular, this sub-section examines the circumstances in which the students felt their teachers should use the L1. These include the impact of the room type and number of students in class on the use of Arabic.

Teaching in a lecture hall and teaching large numbers of students

Although teaching in a lecture hall and teaching large numbers of students are two separate factors, the students perceived them as interlinked. This was mainly because large numbers of students are typically taught in lecture halls. First, when teaching in a lecture hall, the students' views of their teachers' use of Arabic were primarily "neutral" (45.2%), although some of them chose "agree" (18.3%), "disagree" (12.9%) and "strongly disagree" (15.1%), suggesting they did not consider it an important factor. However, in terms of using the L1 when there were large numbers of students in class, which would usually be in a lecture hall, most students were "neutral" (43%), while somewhat fewer chose "agree" (30.1%), as shown in Figure 5.27. This indicates that they considered the number of students in class exerted a greater influence than the size or type of the classroom.

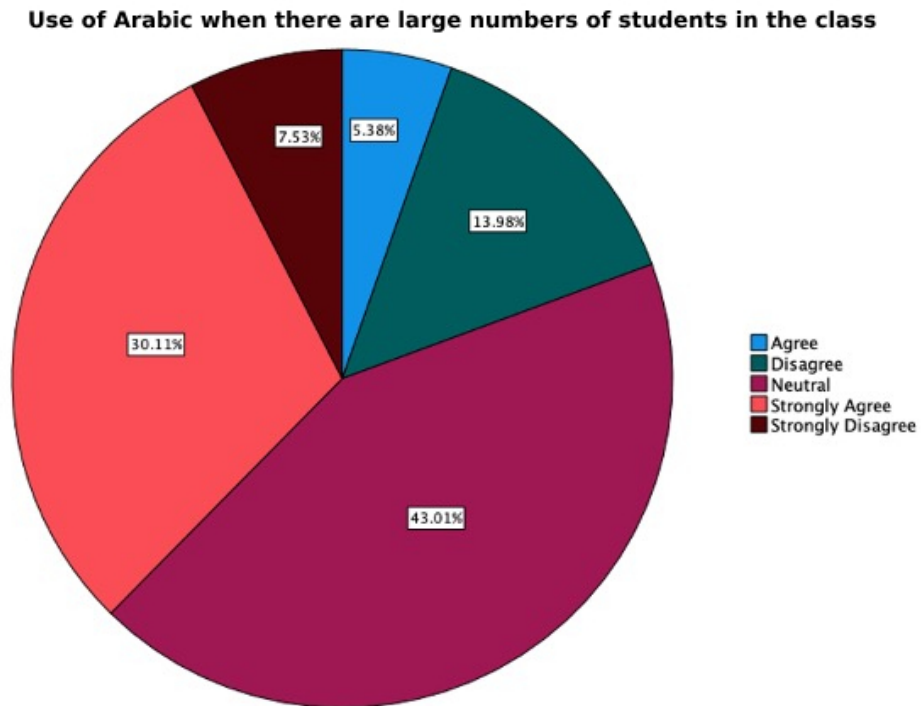


Figure 5.27. Use of the L1 to cope with large numbers of students in class.

The interviews were important in understanding the participants' views. S23 preferred the use of English, stating "the teacher should have his own ways to teach in English". He added that his teacher could use examples or other students to explain the point. However, S24 noted "whether there is large number of students or not, we still need Arabic sometimes". S14 explained one situation in which Arabic could be used when there were large numbers of students, stating "I believe the only one way of using Arabic is when chatting with the students but when the lesson begins, the teacher should use only English". However, S21 maintained that "if the teacher speaks Arabic, those at the back, will understand the Arabic" and S18-I pointed out "the large number of students in class kills the process of learning English". He continued "because with fifty students, the teacher would not be able to manage them, especially when they are at different level". Thus, he preferred Arabic to be used so everyone could understand. Overall, the students seem to understand the role of the L1 when teaching large classes.

Teaching an overloaded syllabus

Another factor was the use of the L1 when the syllabus was very long. Figure 5.28 shows that most students chose “neutral” (41.9%), while fewer chose “strongly agree” (24.7%), indicating a slightly higher preference for English. This suggests that students did not perceive it as an important factor.

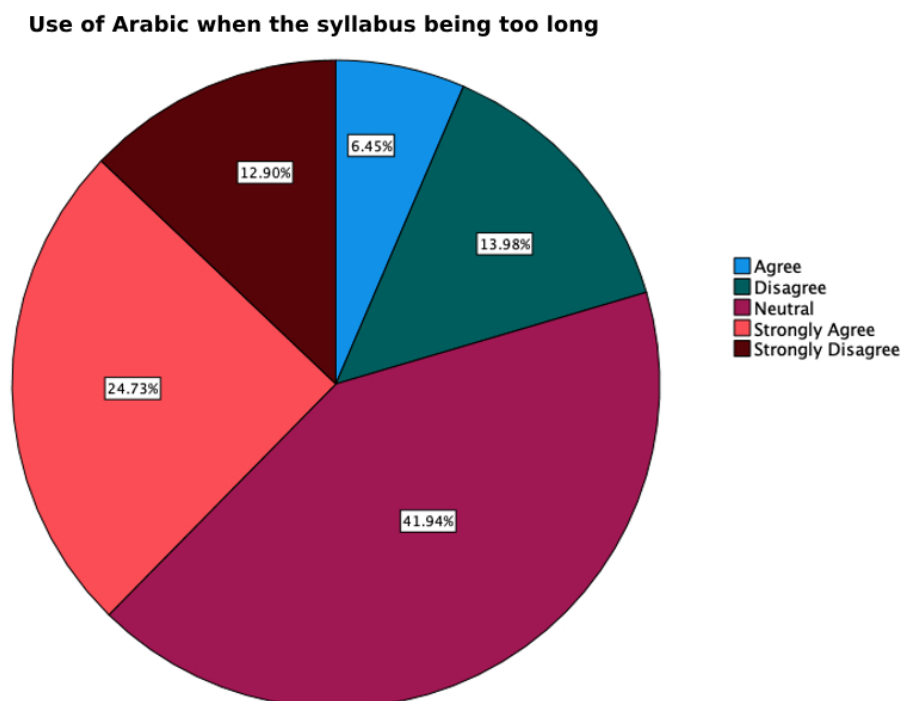


Figure 5.28. Use of the L1 to cope with an overloaded syllabus.

When asked during the follow-up interviews about their preferences and the reasons for them, S21 said “Arabic could be a shortcut to understand a paragraph, grammar and vocabulary”. S14 stressed that “the long lessons make us feel bored while Arabic increases our focus on English”. Similarly, one student in Taskin (2011) noted that the total use of the L2 could lead to a loss of focus and thus the teacher should use some L1 to maintain attention. This might suggest, as discussed earlier, that the L1 could help attract and maintain students’ attention throughout the lesson and the semester.

To summarise, the students seemed to have a stronger preference for the use of the L1 due to factors other than those mentioned above (cf. 4.3.3). Factors such as the length of the syllabus could nonetheless influence L1 use. They thought it could save time and maintain

their attention, which could positively affect their learning. However, the data indicate that L1 use is more influenced by specific situations than these factors.

5.5.3 Situations in which L1 use might be appropriate

Having explored the broader purposes and factors concerning L1 use, this sub-section explores the students' attitudes and reasons related to the use of the L1 in specific classroom situations. Hence, this section is predominantly concerned with students' views of when their teachers should use the L1.

Students feeling lost

The students were asked whether their teachers should use the L1 when they feel lost. Many selected “strongly agree” (52.7%), “agree” (24.7%) and “neutral” (15.1%), as shown in Figure 5.29. This demonstrates the significance of the L1 use in this situation. Likewise, Shimizu (2006) found that more than half of the participants favoured the L1 as it helped them not feel lost. The use of the L1 helps students digest information and maintain focus and attention in the lesson. Therefore, the use of the students' own language in such situations can be of great value for the learning process.

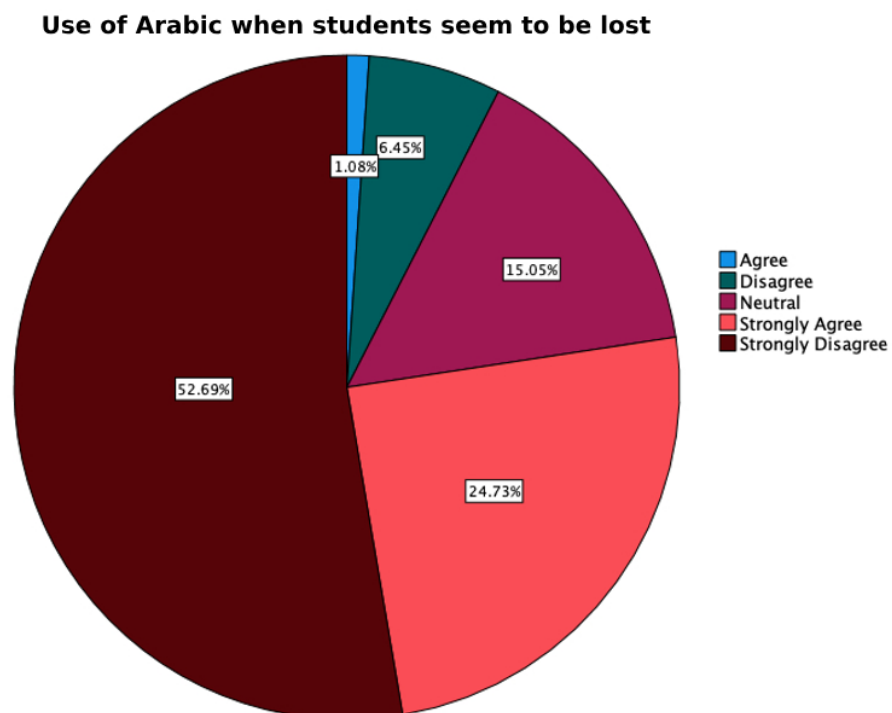


Figure 5.29. Use of the L1 when students are lost.

Students feeling tired

Another situation in the questionnaire concerned students' preferences for teachers' use of the L1 when they felt tired. Figure 5.30 shows that the students' responses regarding such use varied, as they chose "strongly agree" (16.1%), "agree" (21.5%), "neutral" (39.8%) and "disagree" (12.9%).

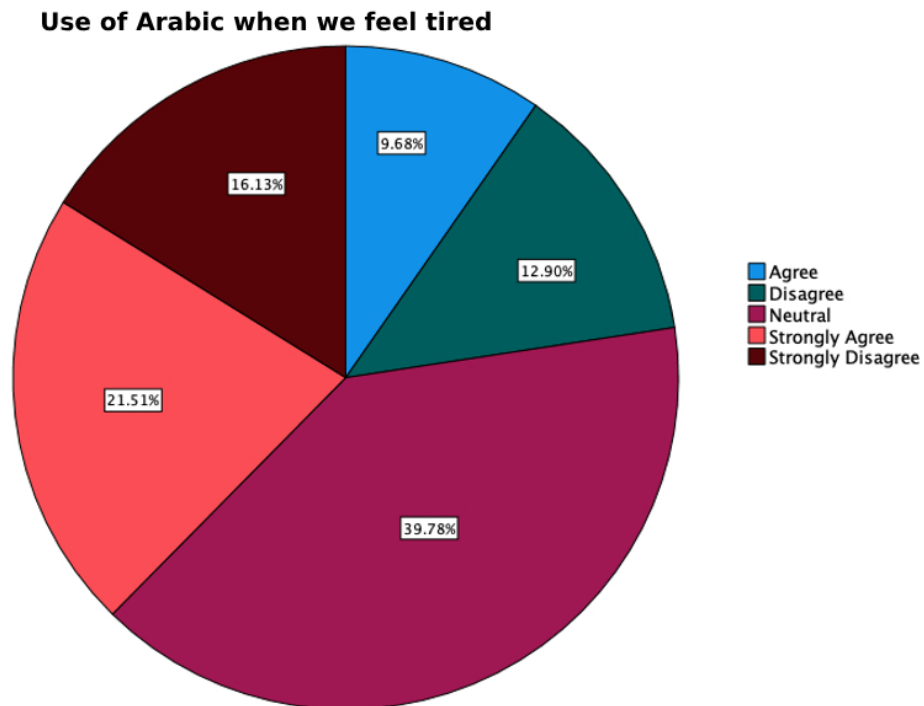


Figure 5.30. Use of the L1 when students are tired.

In the follow-up interviews, some remarked that it depended on the difficulty of the point being explained. That is, some of them might just need additional explanation in English to understand the point. The main reason for the students' responses seemed to concern the level of understanding. That is, they thought the teacher should use English as long as they were able to follow the lesson.

Teachers' inability to simplify

Another situation which might influence the use of the L1 was when the teacher could not express himself more simply. As shown in Figure 5.31, most students (48.4%) chose "strongly agree" when asked if their teachers should use Arabic when they could not simplify. Fewer chose "agree" (30.1%) and "neutral" (16.1%), suggesting they valued the

use of the L1 in such situations, as the teachers' explanation could be difficult to understand and lengthy explanations could be confusing.

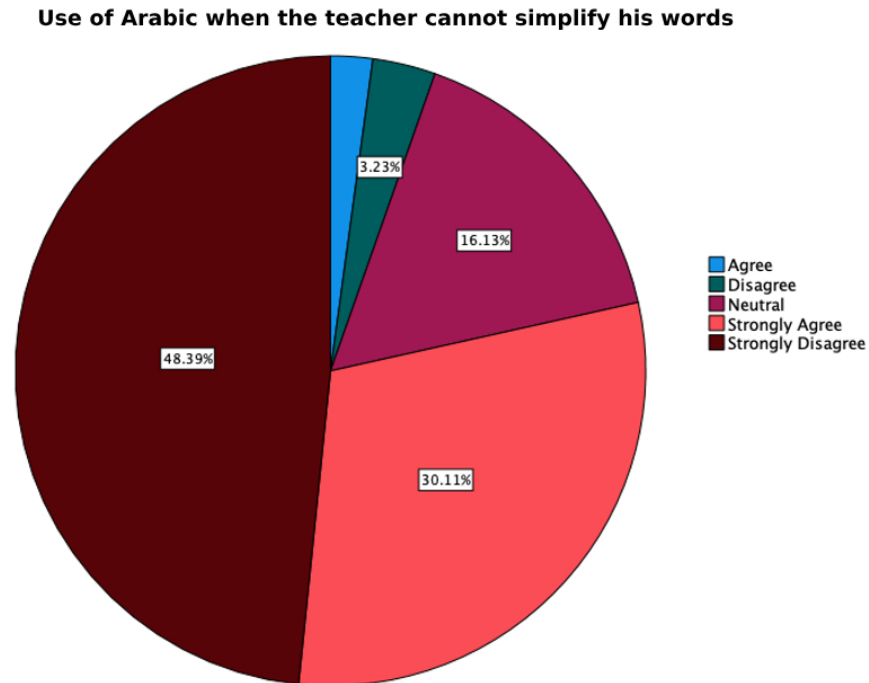


Figure 5.31. Use of the L1 when the teacher cannot simplify terms.

During the follow-up interviews, S23 revealed that he preferred the use of Arabic in this situation, stating that “when the teacher cannot deliver something in English, he should explain it in English first and then use Arabic so the students understand the point he was trying to deliver”. S16 remarked that “if he explains a line only in English without following it with an Arabic explanation, the students will not understand”. S21 did not favour using Arabic but stated that “the teacher should switch to Arabic when the point is difficult in English and no one was able to understand it”. S15 made the same point, noting “the teacher should try in English first, but when students fail to understand, he should use Arabic to facilitate the point”. S17 was the only student who favoured English, stating that “if the teacher speaks English and I don’t understand, I use Google”, although he also acknowledged that Arabic should be used as a last resort.

Teaching students largely focused on the examination

Another situation in which the students might prefer their teachers to use Arabic was when an item was likely to appear in the examination. Most chose “strongly agree” (37.6%), “agree” (24.7%) and “neutral” (19.4%). While this might indicate that the students were focused on examinations, it could also be that they considered the use of Arabic a valuable means of ensuring understanding.

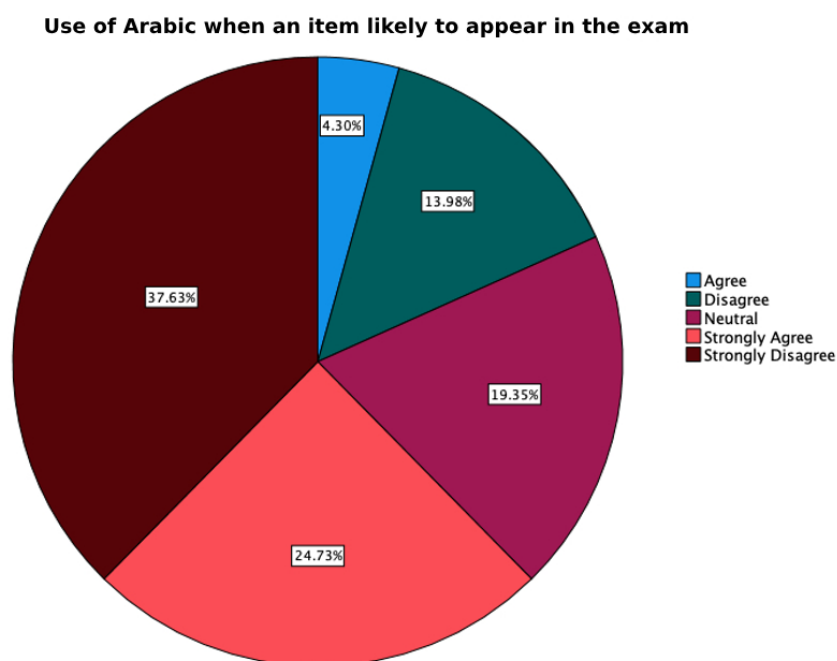


Figure 5.32. Use of the L1 when an item is likely to be in an examination.

The follow-up interviews shed light on the reasons for the students' views. S8 stated that he preferred Arabic to be used within “the requirements of the module and the curriculum”. He gave an example, stating “if I need to understand the grammar and the rules, for example present perfect and present simple, these should be explained in Arabic because they are part of the requirements”. He specifically stated, “the teacher should use Arabic to explain the important parts in the module”. S15 thought it depended on whether the teacher was preparing them for the examinations. If so, he believed that “the teacher should use Arabic for everything. This means translating every single word”. It could be argued that using the L1 to understand a point that would appear in the examination does not necessarily eliminate the possibility of learning it to use beyond the classroom. That is, students might favour their teachers using Arabic in such situations to ensure understanding and help them attain high

grades, which are vital for enrolment to study their future subject. Thus, the use of the L1 is necessary to meet students' various needs and objectives, as also noted by many researchers (e.g. Shimizu, 2006), including the goal to function bilingually (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Overall, the students' responses seemed to be influenced by their ability to understand, reflected in their preferences for using the L1 in situations in which the teacher was unable to simplify what he was saying. During the observation, the L1 was generally used in the case of a lack of understanding or inaccurate responses. This suggests that the L1 may often be needed to clear up any confusion that would negatively affect the students' affective filter and comprehension. Linking this with other points put forward by the teachers and students, the L1 can facilitate and accelerate comprehension, giving more time to use and learn the L2 in practice stages. Thus, learners' own language could be considered an effective teaching and learning tool.

5.6 Main findings and implications

This section discusses the key findings of this research with respect to L1 use in ESAP classes in the Saudi higher education context. It offers a comparative analysis and discussion of teachers' and students' attitudes and actual classroom practices, as well as examining the reasons given for them. It also presents the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the findings.

Both the teachers' and students' attitudes generally seemed to represent the maximal position, stressing the significance of L2 use for language development, a view that is in line with the general guidelines concerning the need to be exposed to and use English as the dominant or only language in class (Baeshin, 2016; Hall, 2020; Hall & Cook, 2013). This is consistent with prominent SLA theories that support exposure to and use of the L2 (see Krashen, 1981; Long, 1981; Swain, 1985). However, both teachers and students acknowledged the need for the L1 in supporting vocabulary and grammar learning in specific situations, as also noted by prior studies (e.g. Alsuhaibani, 2015; Macaro, 1998, 2000). Most responses seemed to fall between two of the three positions identified by Macaro (2001), namely the "virtual position" and the "maximal position", as can be seen in Sections 4.2 and 5.2, suggesting that the participants mostly held an instrumental view of L1 use, considering it a device that could be used to address comprehension issues related to vocabulary or

grammar (Hall & Cook, 2013; Lu & Fehring, 2015; Pablo et al., 2011). This reflects Macaro's (2005) point that a "preference for including the L1 is not based on a perception of its value in terms of cognitive development but because teachers believe the perfect conditions, which would allow the total exclusion of the L1, do not exist" (p. 68). In other words, ideologies that support maximising the L2 tend to neglect the linguistic realities and demands of specialised academic contexts.

One cannot rule out that the prevalence of an instrumental perspective might be due to the L1 being prohibited in the teaching context, whether explicitly or implicitly (see Almayez, 2022; Baeshin, 2016; Bukhari, 2017). Although some teachers might be aware of discussions concerning the value of L1 use and implicitly agree with the principles endorsing it, the potential influence of the literature and ideologies in support of English only may well have shaped their tendency to stigmatise Arabic use in English language classrooms or prevent them from explicitly accepting and supporting such a valuable resource (Cook, 2010; Hall, 2020).

Nonetheless, both teachers and students utilised a wide range of spontaneous and purposeful L1 practices that can be perceived as translanguaging. Although these practices were not recognised as such, they reflected the core principles of translanguaging, such as using both languages fluidly for various purposes, including constructing meaning, shaping experiences, and gaining understanding and knowledge (García & Lin, 2016; Lewis et al, 2012). This research thus contributes to an emerging literature which suggests that translanguaging practices are often pervasive, even in ideologically monolingual contexts, although they might not be recognised or acknowledged as such (García, 2016).

The key finding of this research is the centrality of L1 use in ESAP classrooms. Both teachers and students actively engaged in Arabic use for a wide range of purposes, specifically to explain, translate, or elaborate on specialised terms, which they deemed to be a key barrier to understanding. This were attributed to several factors, for instance the teachers experiencing difficulty explaining technical definitions using English alone, particularly as many lacked subject-specific knowledge. Equally, the students, especially those with limited proficiency, often struggled to understand specialised vocabulary without the support of the L1. The students' own language is thus seen not only as an instrument or a convenient means

of explaining but as an essential resource for scaffolding and sense-making. Indeed, translanguaging can be seen as a powerful resource for both teachers and students to draw upon when clarifying meaning, providing accurate equivalents or pinning down the exact meaning of specialised vocabulary, in turn supporting the students' access to and engagement with subject-specific content. Unlike EAP or EFL settings, the findings of this research are consistent with previous ESAP studies (e.g. Alsuwayhiri, 2024), which argue increasingly that translanguaging is not only justifiable but necessary due to the intersection of language learning and domain-specific knowledge; this demands greater precision and clarity in meaning-making.

In addition to using it the L2 to address vocabulary, natural and fluid translanguaging practices in the ESAP classes extended to a range of other purposes that were equally significant. These included teachers' and students' use of Arabic for clarifying task instructions, correcting peers, and expressing emotions and personal views, especially when the topics touched on religiously or culturally sensitive content. Most of these uses were natural and spontaneous, reflecting students' full repertoires in terms of their linguistic and cultural identities. The L1 was frequently drawn upon to reduce stress, maintain attention, promote motivation, enhance participation and foster a friendly and safe environment, which ultimately sustained the students' L2 development. These findings reinforce arguments that the significance of translanguaging extends beyond content comprehension to encompass affective support and identity affirmation. While similar uses have been observed in previous research in EFL settings (e.g. Schweers, 1999) and EAP contexts (Alsuhaibani, 2014), these findings highlight the significant role of L1 use due to the challenging nature of ESAP content. Unlike other educational contexts, ESAP entails learning highly specialised content and at the same time developing L2 proficiency; in this case, drawing on students' full linguistic recourses is necessary to foster understanding and maintain engagement.

The discussion so far has explored the participants' views and classroom realities, illustrating a clear mismatch between what the participants believed and what they actually did in their ESAP classrooms. While most of them supported maximising use of the L2, they frequently used Arabic for a wide variety of purposes from feedback and error correction to peer support and conveying humour. Discrepancies between teachers' preferences for L1 use and practice have been documented in previous studies (e.g. Kang, 2008). While the teachers supported

using the L1 for limited functions, primarily pedagogical (e.g. explaining vocabulary and grammar), they enacted translanguaging practices beyond what they openly endorsed. This highlights the multifaceted nature of teachers' decisions, such that beliefs, practical realities and other factors, such as institutional policy, intersect. They seemed to wish to "hide" these effective translanguaging practices by reporting their encouragement of monolingual principles (García, 2016).

The findings present ample examples of effective translanguaging practices that were not only compensatory but also responded to the students' various needs and goals. While several factors appeared to account for this discrepancy between the views expressed and practice, it may be that institutional and sociocultural expectations among teachers and students, which endorse monolingual ideologies, shaped their attitudes and led to them downplaying their use of the L1. By doing so, the teachers showed their adherence to what was perceived as "best practice", although acknowledging the practical limitations of a monolingual approach in the ESAP context. Therefore, they privately recognised the value of L1 use but publicly discouraged it. This shows the teachers' struggle between the dominant monolingual ideology and their response to the practical challenges they faced, which led them to adopt effective practices. I argue that a more coherent and reflective teacher development model is needed that legitimises translanguaging as a means of enhancing students' outcomes.

Several key factors were observed as primary drivers of teachers' L1 use in practice, in particular the perceived need to correct errors and students' proficiency levels. First, the teachers were observed over-correcting students' oral errors using the L1. This occurred largely when the students mispronounced words or provided inaccurate meanings. This tendency might be attributed to the influence of a behaviourist view concerning teachers' practice, aimed at preventing the fossilisation of incorrect language usage (Amara, 2015), in other words, errors becoming permanent (Hall, 2011). It might also reflect a pedagogical focus that prioritises form and accuracy, seeking to support students' ability to engage with and succeed in learning challenging specialised content. Hence, it could stem from teachers' beliefs concerning the value of correction in developing the students' L2. Alharbi (2020) concluded that 94% of EFL Saudi university students favoured their errors being treated but without interruption, illustrating the significance of ensuring both linguistic accuracy and

affective security. Hordiienko and Batiuta (2016) argued that whether teachers should correct students' errors or not remains debatable and advised against interrupting students' communication as it might develop the fear of making mistakes and being ridiculed. Indeed, this concern was evident here, as the students reported resorting to own language use due to the fear of making errors or being laughed at.

In addition to error correction, the students' proficiency level was a factor that influenced the perceptions and behaviours of both teachers and students. The teachers revealed that they drew on the L1 to ensure understanding, making sure that everyone was following. Likewise, the students used their own language particularly when struggling with complex vocabulary. Similar findings have been reported in previous EFL and EAP studies (e.g. Baeshin, 2016; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Tang, 2002) and also in Saudi ESAP research (i.e. Alsuwayhiri, 2024). Both teachers and students appeared to use translanguaging to compensate for the latters' limited lexical and grammatical knowledge, especially when the students faced difficulties with both language and specialised content.

In this regard, Vyshnevskaya et al. (2021) argued that the ESAP context creates a paradox because it requires students to "learn something unknown with the help of the unknown" especially when dealing with "professional vocabulary whose semantization in a foreign language can take a long time" (p. 5). Translanguaging seems to occur both naturally and responsively to ensure comprehension across various levels of language proficiency. Similarly, the students used their own language as a natural communicative resource to compensate for their limited L2 (Cook, 2001; Liebscher & O'Cain, 2005). This enabled them to initiate and maintain their interactions (Storch & Wigglesworth, 2003) and access their ZPD, achieving higher levels of understanding (Morahan, 2010). Therefore, I consider that translanguaging offers a dynamic and responsive resource to bridge conceptual gaps and support students' understanding and engagement through allowing them to access meaning through their full linguistic repertoire (Wang & Li, 2022).

Despite its advantages, both the teachers and students appeared reluctant to accept translanguaging as a legitimate practice. While translanguaging occurred consistently and purposefully in the ESAP classrooms, it was largely unrecognised and often undervalued. In the ESAP context, translanguaging emerged not only as a facilitative resource for complex

and specialised content but also as an effective means of enhancing communication, fostering motivation, lifting the students' mood and encouraging engagement, all of which contribute to promoting learning. However, both teachers and students viewed the L1 largely as compensatory tool to be drawn on when necessary. This narrow lens might reflect or further contribute to the influence of a monolingual ideology embedded in institutional expectations and endorsed by teacher training programmes which argue that an English-only approach is the ideal. It is important to note that resistance to translanguaging has been documented among both teachers and students in the Saudi ESAP context (e.g. Alsuwayhiri) and other settings (e.g. Wimpenny, 2022). It is often viewed as a threat to creating an immersive environment and its use is resisted due to the fear of being seen as less proficient (Fransiskus et al., 2022).

Such attitudes suggest that many teachers and students do not fully accept translanguaging as a legitimate and effective means of developing the L2. Hence, there is a need not only to highlight the importance and effectiveness of drawing on students' full linguistic repertoires as a pedagogical resource to scaffold knowledge and help access challenging content, negotiate meaning and co-construct understanding (García & Wei, 2014; Li, 2018). Moreover, there needs to be recognition that it is a legitimate practice that may offer a more inclusive and effective learning environment in which linguistic form and disciplinary content intersect, especially for less proficient ESAP students.

One way of achieving this goal is through the inclusion of translanguaging in teacher training programmes. This could help teachers recognise such classroom practices as of value, reframing them as purposeful and legitimate strategies aligned with current advocated practices. Desmond (2024) argues that targeted teacher training can be vital in helping teachers employ translanguaging practices more confidently and effectively, thereby fostering both the normalisation of such approaches and increased professional assurance in their classroom use. Baeshin (2016) provided evidence in this respect, showing that guilt and rejection concerning L1 use was eased following such training. Once empowered, teachers can model and explain the rationale and the benefits of translanguaging to their students. This can further reduce the stigma surrounding own language use and foster a more accepting classroom environment. Eventually, such efforts aimed at increasing acknowledgment of and support for these practices would not only promote the effectiveness

of teaching but would also affirm students' identities, support emotional well-being and foster equitable access to disciplinary knowledge.

Overall, the teachers and students accepted own language use for pedagogical purposes. However, their classroom practices demonstrated that it was widely utilised for other purposes, both instructional and interpersonal. While these uses were motivated by various factors, such as the difficulty of terms, students' errors and levels of engagement, the students' L2 proficiency was considered the main factor influencing language choice. Despite being considered effective, the participants had negative perceptions concerning use of the L1 in the classroom. Hence, a change in attitude is needed, which I argue could at least in part be achieved through targeted training programme to legitimise translanguaging practices, helping teachers and students explore and use them in their own context.

Chapter 6. Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will first revisit the goal of the research and the methods employed. Next, I will revisit the research questions and the main findings. Moreover, I will discuss the limitations of the study. Finally, I discuss some implications of the study and make several suggestions for future research.

6.2 Research aims

Despite the increasing number of studies on students' own language use in the target language classroom, its use in ESAP contexts has been significantly underexplored. This research, therefore, aimed to examine teachers' and students' attitudes towards and actual use of the L1 in the ESAP classroom and the reasons for their views and practices. These included investigating the frequency, functions and motives of L1 use and the reasons for teachers' and students' preferences, as well as actual use. Furthermore, it sought to establish whether there was indeed a discrepancy between teachers' attitudes and actual use.

This study utilised a mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative methods. There were four data collection instruments, implemented in two phases to gain both a broad perspective and in-depth insights into the issue from different angles (Cohen et al., 2018). The first phase consisted of collecting data on teachers' and students' actual use of the L1 using semi-structured observations in ESAP classrooms. This was followed by stimulated recall interviews to examine the factors and situations motivating L1 use. The second phase involved an online survey to explore participants' attitudes to L1 use, with a follow-up interview aiming to understand the reasons for their views.

6.3 Research questions and main findings

6.3.1 Attitudes towards the use of the L1

For the sake of clarity and consistency with the discussion in the previous chapter, this section starts by revisiting the second phase of the study, which focused on the following questions:

RQ2. What are teachers' and students' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses for medical/technical fields of study?

- (a) What are teachers' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses in terms of the frequency and functions of use, the factors driving its use and the situations in which it is used?*
- (b) What are students' views of the use of Arabic in ESAP courses in terms of the frequency and functions of use, the factors driving its use and the situations in which it is used?*
- (c) What factors affect teachers' and students' perceptions of the use of Arabic in class?*

RQ3. What are the reasons behind teachers and students' perceptions regarding their preferred frequency and functions of use and their motives for using the L1?

Online questionnaires were used to explore the teachers' and students' views concerning the use of the L1 in ESAP classrooms. The data demonstrated that both sets of participants were inclined towards accepting use of the L1. The follow-up interviews, employed to investigate participants' views and their reasons for their responses, revealed that they favoured the use of the L1 primarily for pedagogical functions. This acceptance was generally governed by one condition, namely when students failed to understand grammar or vocabulary, especially difficult terms.

The participants favoured the use of the L1 only when other methods and techniques failed, otherwise they would adopt an English-only policy. That is, in the ideal classroom, teachers preferred to adhere to the "virtual position" proposed by Macaro (2001). This approach was accepted by native speakers of English, confirming Macrao's point that "The L1 can be excluded from the FL classroom as long as the teacher is skilled enough" (p. 535). However, this position neglects the students as part of the classroom. They affect the process of teaching and the language choice. Hence, due to reasons of practicality, such as the students' proficiency level and time constraints this position is considered unattainable leading teachers to accept more flexible approach. Teachers, therefore, accepted the L1 use for pedagogical purposes, reflecting the "maximal position" (Macaro, 2001), according to which the L1 is perceived to have little value but is drawn on when facing a difficulty, for example in comprehending an item. This approach has been confirmed in various studies (e.g. Kovačić & Kirinić, 2011). I believe that such answers are not surprising as many teachers were noted to underestimate their practices (Hall & Cook, 2013) to avoid being perceived less proficient and lacking L2 knowledge (Fallas-Escobar, 2020; Macaro 1998), especially

as they were taught to adhere to the monolingual approach as good and valuable teaching techniques (García, 2009). One key point is that they base their views on the comprehension rather than the acquisition, a point also documented by Macaro (2005).

While the teachers could not identify an optimal percentage of L1 use, as this depended on their students' comprehension, the students favoured up to 50% of class time being conducted in Arabic due to their limited L2 proficiency. Whereas previous studies have reported participants having preferences for different uses of the L1, the interviews revealed that in this study, somewhat surprisingly, the students were primarily concerned with the L1 being used to explain vocabulary and grammar. This may reflect an instrumental view of the L1, perceiving it to have no value for other purposes. As well as indicating the participants' views of how language should be taught and learned, the data show that both teachers and students were very concerned with vocabulary and grammar. This focus is likely because comprehension in these areas is crucial for students' success in examinations and their enrolment in their future subjects. The students' success could also reflect teachers' success in teaching the module leading them focus on teaching to maximize comprehension rather than promoting acquisition.

6.3.2 Actual use of the L1

In the first phase of the study, the research questions were as follows:

- RQ1. How do teachers and students use Arabic in ESAP classes?*
 (a) *In which situations do teachers and students use Arabic in class?*
 (b) *Why do teachers and students use Arabic in class?*

To answer these questions, semi-structured observation was employed, determining how and when the participants actually used the L1 in the ESAP classrooms. Classroom observation was followed by stimulated recall interviews, in which the participants were invited to explain the reasons for their uses of the L1. All the ESAP classrooms exhibited the use of L1 for a variety of purposes and to various degrees.

The observations showed the use of the L1 for a wide range of purposes, although the stimulated recall interviews revealed that the teachers mainly used the L1 to ensure students' understanding of grammar and vocabulary. Explaining ESAP vocabulary was by far the most frequent use. Teachers reported challenges in understanding and teaching specialised terms,

while also believing that many students would struggle to understand them. A sense of difficulty in communicating the meaning of specialised vocabulary was observed due to its specific use, which requires detailed explanation. However, the L1 was also used to teach other types of vocabulary (e.g. general, academic and metalinguistic).

Moreover, the L1 was used for other pedagogical purposes, including revisiting previously taught items and teaching grammar and pronunciation. Another frequent use was for instructional and management purposes. The students' L1 was commonly used for giving different types of instructions, such as explaining task instructions and procedures, to help students achieve the goal of an exercise. Moreover, it included managing the classroom, maintaining students' attention and discipline. Furthermore, the L1 was used for feedback-related purposes, included providing comments in the form of praise and correcting students' responses after each utterance. Other uses included confirming and repeating students' contributions. The main goal behind these uses, as also stated by the teachers, was ultimately to aid comprehension and promote L2 learning.

The L1 is considered an effective means of making input more comprehensible, as well as facilitating retention. It was thought that its use would facilitate the process of learning through enabling the students to leverage their full linguistic resources for sense-making and gaining knowledge, consequently developing their L2. Part of its usefulness, as observed and reported by the participants, was that it would typically result in greater participation and output from the students, potentially indicating increased knowledge or motivation, promoting a positive and learning environment. The use of their language might also have signified acceptance of their identities as bilinguals, positively affecting their learning process. Therefore, this thesis asserts that instructors need to be aware of the importance and benefit of integrating students' own language in teaching and learning to maximise the effectiveness of the process. In this regard, I echo García's (2009) point that translanguaging is part of effective teaching and this could be further stressed in the ESAP context. In the ESAP classroom, own language use can accelerate the process of teaching and learning and make input more comprehensible (Krashen, 1981), especially with respect to understanding the meaning of specialised terminology. It also helps reduce the cognitive load and lowers the affective filter (reducing anxiety), consequently enhancing students' proficiency in the

L2. Thus, teachers and students should be encouraged to take advantage of their students' linguistic repertoires to aid L2 acquisition.

In addition to the value of students' own language use for input, its positive effects extend to students' output. That is, students own language use enables them to engage in situations in which they might feel anxious about using the target language. It also allows them to produce output and negotiate meaning. In this study, the students were observed translanguageing naturally for various purposes and in different situations. The major finding concerning the students' use of their L1 was that translanguageing empowered them to draw on their full linguistic resources to negotiate meaning and make sense of the input being taught. Translanguageing enables students to initiate and sustain interaction and to request more information, deepening their understanding and knowledge of the L2, especially with respect to ESAP vocabulary; specialised terminology requires a degree of negotiation of meaning to arrive at the precise meaning. The students were seen also translanguageing during activities to explain the instructions, assign roles and achieve the goal of the task.

Therefore, own language use can be considered a powerful tool for scaffolding students' L2 knowledge, thus promoting their learning (Anton & DiCamilla 1999; Swain & Lapkin, 2000). During activities, students were observed benefiting from L1 use in various ways, such as gaining an understanding of vocabulary, grammar and instructions, all of which aided in fulfilling the ultimate goal of learning the language. The students were also seen personalising the topics and activities, helping promote and sustain motivation and interest in language learning. In various instances, translanguageing enabled students to share their religious, cultural and personal experiences. That is, the students' lived experiences were validated by enabling them to integrate their entire resources as a natural means of bilingual communication. I believe that excluding the students' own language would constrain them from acting normally and taking control of their learning. They would most likely remain silent and perhaps switch off. Thus, students should be encouraged to use their resources and the benefits of their own language for the learning process should be acknowledged. Furthermore, teachers should be aware of their students' attitudes towards the inclusion and the benefits of the L1 as decisions surrounding its use might have considerable consequences for their learning.

One prominent factor behind the use of L1 was the students' proficiency level, as reported by the teachers and students. The teachers indicated that they would use the students' own language for pedagogical purposes as a last resort. However, the L1 was largely used as the first choice to cope with the students' limited knowledge. That is, the L1 was regularly used when communicating with students who were at lower levels of proficiency or with competent students aiming to ensure everyone could understand. The teachers were aware that a lack of understanding could have negative consequences for students' engagement and anxiety. The teachers repeatedly reported that using the own language to provide clarification and ensuring comprehension also put the students at ease, as also found in previous studies (e.g. de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009) also in the same context as this study (Alsuwayhiri, 2024; Baeshin, 2016; Bukhari, 2017). Research has consistently highlighted the benefits of own language use when dealing with students whose levels are below what might be expected. Both teachers and students advocated reducing use of the L1 when the students progressed to higher levels of competence. As seen in section 4.3, some students reported a preference for less L1 use as they reached a level at which they could cope with greater exposure to English. Yet, when it comes to ESAP vocabulary, even students at higher levels of proficiency reported that they might need the L1 to understand the specialise meaning. Moreover, what is important is that while teachers used the L1 to cope with students' various needs, there were also clear instances of translanguaging. The teachers revealed the importance of drawing on the shared knowledge and experience to promote learning. This demonstrates the importance of translanguaging in the ESAP context for both teachers and students.

Another notable factor was teachers' tendency to correct every error. Explaining the two main schools of error correction, Hussain et al. (2020) noted that there is the traditional view which argues that all errors should be corrected, whereas the modern school adopted by the CLT approach abandoned this practice. According to Hussain et al. (2020), the choice between these schools depends on teachers' pedagogical approach and view of errors. The teachers in this study were observed implementing the textbook approach, namely CLT, but also employing other approaches, particularly when it came to error correction. The majority of L1 instances concerned inaccuracies in students' contributions (e.g. mispronunciation), although both teachers and students were opposed to correcting spoken errors.

I consider that while the teachers might have been influenced by their training or past experiences, the findings seem to be in line with those of Hussain et al. (2020), who noted that the tendency towards error correction could be shaped by students' short-term objectives (e.g. passing examinations and getting high grades), although the teachers acknowledged its negative effect on the students. In this study, there was evidence of effects on students' self-esteem as they avoided communicating in the L2 due to their fear of committing errors, despite some recounting they were able to use the L2. They reported that error correction, especially in Arabic, drew other students' attention to their errors, which made them feel embarrassed. This clearly demonstrated the impact of error correction on L1 use by both teachers and students. Therefore, teachers should consider aspects of error correction such as quantity, time and manner, which might require special training programmes (Hussain et al., 2020). Moreover, students should be given sufficient time to reflect on their errors, giving them the opportunity to self-correct (Hussain et al., 2020).

Another factor that influenced the use of Arabic was the teachers' linguistic background. Native Arabic speakers and native and non-native English-speaker teachers were found to accept and use the L1 very frequently. They used the L1 for various functions, including pedagogical, instructional and personal. However, L1 use varied considerably from one teacher to another. Surprisingly, although some native speakers of Arabic used the L1 more than others, it was notable that generally non-native speakers of Arabic and English used the L1 more than their colleagues. These teachers seemed to value the students' own language and thus used it for various purposes, particularly for humour and rapport building. They also valued the effect of using Arabic on students' attention and motivation and employed it to sustain students' engagement and interest in the lesson. Interestingly, their uses of the L1 also included discussing shared cultural and religious aspects. These uses were documented in previous studies (Baeshin, 2016; Bukhari, 2017; de la Campa & Nassaji, 2009).

Although the teachers who were native speakers of Arabic also used the L1 for similar purposes, multilingual teachers seemed more capable of and interested in drawing on the students' full linguistic and cultural resources to help them make sense of English, as well as developing their multilingual identity. This also enabled the teachers to exercise a degree of autonomy, adapting teaching techniques and materials to meet their students' needs (Calafato, 2019). This was evident in various examples, when the teachers used

translanguaging to personalise the topics, drawing on their students' shared knowledge and cultural background for various reasons, including maintaining motivation and promoting learning. According to Calafato (2019), teachers may be regarded as multilinguals, but their use of their knowledge depends on different aspects, such as experience and beliefs and pedagogical approach. Teachers who share the L1 can promote the teaching and learning processes. This knowledge of the L1 allows them highlight similarities and differences between the languages, draw on culturally relevant examples and to bridge the gap between students' knowledge and the L1. Moreover, they can help students overcome difficulties and obstacles they confront during their learning process. Thus, teachers who share students' L1 can offer great benefits which would promote the learning of the L2.

6.4 Study contributions

The scarcity of research on the use of L1 makes conducting this research a contribution in itself. In addition, undertaking the study in the ESAP context provided new insights into how the L1 is used, marking another valuable contribution. Moreover, this study employed mixed-methods research to investigate ESAP teachers' and students' attitudes towards and actual use of the L1 in the Saudi context, thus addressing the limitations of previous research. While several studies (e.g. Hall & Cook, 2013) have examined L1 use from the perspective of teachers, this research went beyond this by also recruiting students. This was due to the belief that teachers and students may influence each other's views and uses of the L1. In addition, the application of mixed methods made it possible to gain both a broad perspective and an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. It included not only observing and surveying the participants, but also utilising stimulated recall interviews and follow-up interviews to explore the reasons for their responses and uses of the L1 from various angles. This aimed to provide a holistic view, investigating teachers' and students' views and uses, in addition to their reasons for using the L1. The results of such comparisons contribute to a field lacking empirical research, both within Saudi Arabia and internationally. The results of this research are valuable due the scarcity of studies conducted on the use of L1 in ESAP classrooms, especially in the Saudi context.

Moreover, the results of this study can contribute to the ongoing debate concerning the use of the students' L1 in the classroom. With the recent recognition of the value of bilingual teaching and learning (e.g. Hall, 2020), the results of this research can help inform and

balance the discussion regarding the use of the L1 and the English-only approach. The investigation of the teachers' and students' attitudes to the use of L1 provides in-depth insights into the factors, both positive and negative, influencing their views, which could lead to a broader discourse on the use of the L1 and attitudes towards language teaching and learning. The findings link to various points discussed in the literature (see Chapter 2). The study found the use of the L1 to be essential for language teaching and learning, particularly in ESAP classrooms. The study highlights the usefulness of translanguaging where drawing on the shared knowledge and experience could play a vital role in promoting the learning process. The study also illustrates the significance of the L1 in promoting comprehensible input and output, as well as fostering a positive atmosphere. Moreover, it sheds light on the significance of teachers who share the students' L1 in teaching and learning the target language. Moreover, the findings concerning the use of the L1 provide valuable information on the realities of the classroom, including the challenges teachers and learners face (e.g. low proficiency). Both aspects offer a valuable resource for policymakers, curriculum designers and those developing teacher-training programmes, within the Saudi context and internationally.

6.5 Research implications

One of the main implications of this study is that it highlights the significance of L1 use in facilitating understanding of input. The data obtained from the various instruments indicate that own language use is effective and necessary for aiding comprehension, especially in terms of ESAP vocabulary. This is particularly important when teaching and learning complex and specialised vocabulary, specifically when students do not have prior knowledge of it in their own language. In such situations, the use of the students' own language aids by bridging the gap between the terms being taught and existing knowledge. It clarifies the nuances of meaning in ESAP vocabulary, facilitating understanding and consequently fostering learning. This also applies to teaching grammar and other language skills, aspects where translanguaging can facilitate learning.

Moreover, the teachers seemed to acknowledge that the students' level of comprehension affected their anxiety and motivation. That is, a lack of understanding could lead to demotivation and switching off, thus necessitating the use of the L1 to facilitate comprehension. Using the L1 also creates a more inclusive environment for learners,

encouraging them to become more motivated and engaged with the learning process. These results challenge the traditional view, suggesting that own language use can facilitate rather than impede teaching and learning. Integrating the students' languages, knowledge and experiences can be seen as valuable resources for effective learning.

The findings support teachers' judicious and strategic use of the L1. They seem to be in the best position to decide for their classrooms. While some uses might be unprincipled, using the L1 to ensure everyone understands seems to benefit those students who are shy about asking for clarification. However, a discussion between teachers and students concerning the appropriate uses of the L1 is needed. For example, students favour the use of the own language to address vocabulary but only when they face new terms and experience difficulty. Yet, the teachers sometimes used the L1 immediately after explaining new or previously taught words. Thus, the teachers and students should decide on the how and when the own language should be used and for what purposes. This is in line with other studies (e.g. Schweers, 1999), which suggest that teachers and students should decide on the policy of own language use.

Despite teachers' principled use of the L1, the findings show they lacked training at different levels, particularly teaching challenging courses, such as ESAP; these include subject-specific terminologies requiring appropriate knowledge, as also pointed out by Ferreira and MacDiarmid (2019). Therefore, training programmes should include appropriate techniques and strategies for explaining such vocabulary. The data suggest various effective uses of the L1, especially with respect to ESAP vocabulary. Hence, teachers should be trained how and when to use the L1 rather than using it as an easy option and a short cut (Macaro, 2001; Turnbull, 2001; Turnbull & Dailey-O'Cain, 2009). Thus, teachers need specialised training programmes to help them foster effective techniques.

Clear guidelines on use of the L1 should be established to highlight its effectiveness for both teachers and students. This study agrees with Alsuhaibani (2015), who noted that there could be an unofficial policy viewing it negatively and perhaps leading students to overuse it. He explained that this could be shaped by society and overuse of the L1 during school. I believe that establishing policy for the effective use of the L1 can promote learning. For example, as in several previous studies, this research also suggests that both teachers and students

would benefit from a guideline of up to 30% of own language use. However, this would depend on various factors, such as the students' proficiency level. Students reported needing the L1 less as they progressed and therefore the decision on L1 use should be revised constantly to ensure effective learning. Thus, the guidelines should allow a degree of flexibility for teachers and students to decide on how and when it should be used.

Another relevant and recurrent issue raised by the teachers – and one that has persisted for a long time – is students' poor previous learning experience. The students seem to have inadequate knowledge of the L2 despite learning English for at least six years and having taken a EGAP course. One reason for this is the students' view of the module as one in which they can memorise vocabulary and grammar rules only for the sake of passing their examinations rather than learning the language as a means of communication. Perhaps this also relates to students fears of using the target language to avoid being laughed at. This results in students' over-reliance on the L1, which can further negatively affect their learning. Thus, students should be encouraged to effectively use their full linguistic repertoire in order to promote their learning. This entails offering a safe place in which to take risks and test their hypotheses without being laughed at. Once students see their peers are willing to use either the L1 or the L2 and feel the benefit of using it, others will soon follow. Thus, attention needs to be paid to this matter to improve the students' learning outcomes.

6.6 Study limitations

The delay in gaining site permission affected the study plan. This research was supposed to take place over a period of three months, starting with a month for the pilot study in January, at the beginning of the ESAP course, followed by the main study from March onwards, beginning with observing a group per week. Observing classes in mid-term was thought to be appropriate as the participants might over-rely on or avoid use of the L1 in the first or final weeks (Edstrom, 2006). Therefore, the aim was to give the participants time to get acquainted with each other and observe use of the L1 in the natural course of the lessons. The changes gave rise to several issues.

First, the pilot study took place from the middle of April to early May, leaving little time to undertake the main study before the end of the semester. Therefore, instead of observing eight ESAP groups over eight weeks (one week each) and up to six lessons for each group,

I had to make changes, observing two groups for two lessons per week, which allowed me to observe all eight groups as planned. Consequently, these changes might have influenced the data collected, as the participants might not have had the time to become accustomed to my presence, thus leading them to alter their behaviours and perhaps use the L1 less frequently. Thus, reducing the number of observations might have negatively affected the data. Although the study gathered a large amount of data within a short time, it could have benefited from observing the participants more than twice per group to establish patterns of L1 use in the ESAP classroom.

The lessons were recorded using audio-recording devices, which helped collect examples of students' uses of the L1, especially from those at some distance from me. However, the participants might have been affected by the presence of the devices, resulting in them lowering their voices when using the L1. This occurred even when the students were working in groups and at times, it was difficult to hear them. Moreover, when the students were sitting in rows, there was less interaction and consequently less use of the L1. The study could have benefited from arranging for lessons to be conducted in a lecture hall or in classes with students seated around tables.

Furthermore, the changes to the plan resulted in the questionnaires being administered at the end of the semester, followed by the follow-up interviews. The students had then begun their examinations and thus were not motivated to participate in the questionnaire, despite the encouragement of the ELC and academic staff. When the semester had ended, very few students participated, as many of them had lost interest, particularly given that the study would not benefit a course that had already ended.

As the questionnaire samples and observations were limited due to the constraints on time, the results of this research might not be generalisable to wider populations in other educational settings and contexts, or where English is a second language. However, the stimulated recall interviews and follow-up interviews, in addition to the triangulation of data, can compensate at least in part, contributing to the applicability of the findings within the ELC. The emphasis on the effectiveness of L1 use with respect to ESAP vocabulary could also be relevant to other classes within the same context.

Undertaking the research in only one university and with only male students are other constraints of this study. While investigating other branches of the university could have resulted in exploring other factors or reasons for L1 use, this was not feasible due to the time constraints. Moreover, although it is acknowledged in research that gender is among the factors that affect use of the L1 (AlTarawneh & AlMithqal, 2019), access to female buildings and participants was not possible for religious and cultural reasons.

The study gathered a rich and contextualised picture of students' attitudes. However, it could have benefited from asking those who took part in the stimulated recall interviews about their attitudes towards their teachers' use of the L1 in addition to exploring the reasons for their own uses of Arabic. This might have provided more relevant views on their teachers' uses of Arabic. Moreover, such results might provide insights into the effective use of own language.

Similarly, the study employed stimulated recall interviews to understand the factors and situations motivating teachers to use the L1. However, this phase was limited to investigating teacher's actual practices without considering their beliefs. This would have enriched the data as the teachers could have discussed their practices in light of their beliefs and this would give them the opportunity to link and/or explain the reasons behind any discrepancies. For example, the teachers' questionnaire responses could have been discussed during the stimulated recall interviews, yield fuller descriptions concerning why discrepancies occur.

A further limitation of this study is that it did not seek the views of administrators or other educational stakeholders. Many studies, including this research, have neglected their perspectives, despite them being part of policymaking decisions. Their voices could be valuable in understanding policy concerning L1 use and their attitudes towards its use. I believe such views could provide a different perspective from teachers' and students' opinions. These different views could promote the effective use of L1 and further fill the gap in the literature.

6.7 Recommendations

The findings of this study give rise to several recommendations. The study looked at teachers' and students' attitudes and actual use of the L1 and found that the L1 was viewed

largely as useful for pedagogical purposes, with it being considered an effective tool. Thus, one main recommendation for researchers is to look at the effect of L1 use on students' progress in terms of their language proficiency, as well as their success in their English examinations. Future research could also benefit from including English native-speaker teachers and non-native speakers of the L1 and L2 to explore whether other factors influence L1 use. Such work could complement the findings of this research as native-speaker teachers were not observed.

In addition, conducting studies on a larger scale is warranted. Such studies might recruit larger numbers of participants and include wider groups of stakeholders, encompassing policymakers, as well as teachers and students. Perhaps researchers would benefit from conducting longitudinal observations to assess any changes in L1 use and factors affecting its use, as the participants reported depending less on its use at higher levels of proficiency. Furthermore, this study considered the attitudes held by medical and technical students concerning L1 use in general. Future research should consider whether preferences exist in terms of uses between these two domains and other domains.

The study also provides various recommendations for stakeholders and policymakers. The acceptance and use of the L1 by both teachers and students to varying degrees provides an insight into the (lack of) feasibility of the English-only approach (Hall & Cook 2012; Macaro, 2001) and perhaps contradicts ELC policy. Both the teachers and students considered use of the L1 necessary for language teaching and learning. Even those who were against its use reported allowing the L1 to ensure understanding of certain vocabulary items, otherwise the students would feel lost and anxious. The fact that the "virtual position" is unattainable and considered undesirable by most students illustrates the importance of L1 use. This is in addition to the fact that most participants considered its use effective and essential for learning the target language. Thus, stakeholders and policymakers should embrace such beliefs and practices.

Moreover, it is recommended that teachers consider their students' views when using the L1. For example, the questionnaire results suggested students favoured their teachers using Arabic only to address vocabulary and grammar, indicating a mismatch between the students' preferences and the teachers' actual use of the L1. There were other uses which

students disfavoured, including using the L1 for error correction. Thus, teachers need to communicate with their students so that they have a mutual understanding as L1 use can have a great impact on the learning process. I believe that this such dialogue is vital to optimise learning the target language. This could establish balanced use of the own language and thus maximise its benefits. Furthermore, such dialogue would create opportunities for the development of collaborative perspectives on pedagogy, such that students' views and preferences are taken into account and considered valuable for enhancing the teaching and learning process.

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Appendix A. Observation Schedule

Teacher.....

Observation time.....

Domain..... Focus/topic.....

Category	Teacher	Students	Comment
Greetings			
Discuss course/lesson objective			
Explaining cultural aspects			
Explaining grammar			
Explaining vocabulary			
Explaining reading passages			
Giving instructions			
Provide translation			
Ask for translation			
Ask for clarification			
Check comprehension			
Maintain discipline			
Give instructions			
Give feedback on written work			
Correct spoken errors			
Maintain discipline			
Joke with the students			
Praise the student/s			
Chatting			
Homework assigning			
Farewell			

Notes on teacher's use of L1 or reaction

Notes on students' use of L1 or reaction

Appendix B. Teachers' Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to investigate your attitudes and motives regarding the use of Arabic in your English for Specific Purposes classes. All the information you provide will be treated confidentially and you will not be identified, so please feel free to express your true views.

1. Arabic use in class

This section aims to explore your perceptions regarding the use of Arabic in your English for Specific Purposes classes. Please answer the following questions:

1. Do you think Arabic should be allowed in English language classrooms? (*Tick ONE box*)

Yes ☐ No ☐

1. How often do you think you should use Arabic in your class? (*Tick ONE box*)

Very rarely ☐ Rarely ☐ Sometimes ☐ Frequently ☐

2. How often do you think Arabic should be used in teaching English for Specific Purposes to fulfil the following functions? (*Please tick ONE box for each function*)

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
To discuss course/lesson objectives					
To sum up a lesson					
To explain the meanings of reading passages					
To explain vocabulary					
To explain abstract or specialised vocabulary					
To explain grammar					
To teach speaking rules (e.g., stress and intonation)					
To correct spoken errors					
To give feedback on written work					
To check comprehension					
To give suggestions on how to learn more effectively					
To give instructions to students during classroom tasks and activities					
To give instructions to students when administering tests					
To maintain discipline					
To joke with the students and create a good classroom atmosphere					

To check student attendance					
To save time					
Other uses:					
-					
-					

Factors and situations influencing the use of Arabic in class

This section investigates the factors that determine your use of Arabic in your English for Specific Purposes lessons and the situations in which you prefer to use Arabic.

3. In your opinion, which of the following factors most encourage you to use Arabic?
(Please tick ONE box for each factor)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Teaching large numbers of students					
Teaching in a lecture hall					
Teaching low-level students					
Teaching students who are focused mainly on examinations					
The syllabus being too long					
Other factors:					
-					
-					

4. In your opinion, which of the following situations encourage you most to use Arabic?
(Please tick ONE box for each situation)

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
The students are demotivated/out of mood					
The students appear stressed					

The students seem to be lost					
The students ask for translation					
The students ask for clarification					
I am teaching an item which has an equivalent in Arabic					
I am teaching an item likely to appear in the exam					
I am trying to avoid making errors in English					
I fail to simplify my words					
I am feeling tired					
Other situations:					
-					
-					

Personal profile

5. What is your native language and the level of proficiency in the languages you speak? *(Please tick the languages you speak):*

Language	Beginner	Elementary	Intermediate	Upper-intermediate	Advanced	Native speaker
Arabic						
English						
Urdu						
Other						

7. What is your highest qualification relevant to your experience as an English teacher? *(Please tick ONE box)*
8. How many years of experience do you have as a language teacher? *(Please tick ONE box)*

Bachelor's degree	0–4	☐	5–9	☐	10–14	☐
Post-graduate diploma	15–19	☐	20–24	☐	25+	☐
Master's degree						

MPhil

PhD

10. What domain of ESP do you teach? *(Please tick ONE box)*

Medical ☐

Technical ☐

Thank you for participating in the study

Appendix C. Students' Questionnaire

This questionnaire aims to investigate your attitudes and motives regarding the use of Arabic in your English for Specific Purposes classes. All the information you provide will be treated confidentially and you will not be identified, so please feel free to express your true views.

A. Arabic use in class

This section aims to explore your perceptions regarding the use of Arabic in your English for Specific Purposes classes. Please answer the following questions:

1. Do you think Arabic should be allowed in English language classrooms? (*Tick ONE box*)

Yes ☐

No ☐

2. How often do you prefer your instructor to use Arabic? (*Tick ONE box*):

Very rarely ☐

Rarely ☐

Sometimes ☐

Frequently ☐

3. How often do you think Arabic should be utilised in teaching English for Specific Purposes to fulfil the following functions? (*Please tick ONE box for each function*):

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
To discuss course/lesson objectives					
To sum up a lesson					
To explain the meanings of reading passages					
To explain vocabulary					
To explain abstract or specialised vocabulary					
To explain grammar					
To teach speaking rules (e.g., stress and intonation)					
To correct spoken errors					
To give feedback on written work					
To check comprehension					
To give suggestions on how to learn more effectively					
To give instructions to students during classroom tasks and activities					

To give instructions to students when administering tests					
To maintain discipline					
To joke with the students and create a good classroom atmosphere					
To check student attendance					
To save time					
Other uses:					
-					
-					

B. Factors and situations influencing the use of Arabic in class

This section investigates the factors that determine the use of Arabic in your English for Specific Purposes lessons and the situations in which you prefer Arabic to be used.

4. In your opinion, which of the following factors should encourage your teacher to use Arabic? *(Please tick ONE box for each factor)*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
When there are large numbers of students in the class					
When teaching in a lecture hall					
When we are at a low level					
When the syllabus is too long					
Other factors: (Please specify)					
-					
-					

5. In your opinion, which of the following situations should encourage your teacher to use Arabic? *(Please tick ONE box for each situation)*

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
When we feel demotivated/out of mood					
When we feel stressed					
When we feel lost					
When we feel tired					
When we ask for translation					
When we ask for clarification					
Teaching an English linguistic item which has an equivalent in Arabic					
When an item is likely to appear in the exam					
When the teacher cannot simplify his words					
Other situations:					
-					
-					

1. PERSONAL PROFILE:

What domain of ESP do you study? (*Tick ONE box*)

Medical ☐

Technical ☐

Thank you for participating in the study

Appendix D. Interview Questions

Interview questions:

Q1/ Do you think you/your teacher should use Arabic in your ESAP classes? Would you please explain your answer?

Q2/What is your preferred percentage?

1. Why?
2. Do you agree with the most participants choices concerning the preferred percentage?
Why?

Q3/How do you prefer Arabic to be used?

3. Why?
4. Do you agree with the most participants choices concerning the preferred purposes?

Q4/When do you think Arabic should be used?

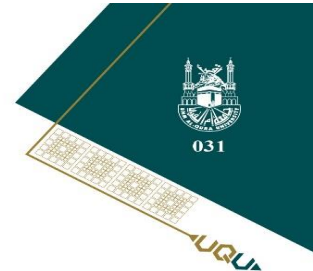
5. Why?
6. Do you agree with the most participants choices concerning the preferred factors and situations?

Q5/Do you have any comment to add?

Appendix E. Permission for Data Collection



المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم
جامعة أم القرى



الموضوع: بشأن طلب رحلة علمية للأستاذ/
عبد العزيز مطلق صبيان المطرفي ٤٣٨٠٠٨٥

سلمه الله

سعادة المشرف العام على ادارة البعثات

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته

تحية طيبة وبعد

تقدم لنا الأستاذ / عبدالعزيز مطلق صبيان المطرفي رقم المنسوب: ٤٣٨٠٠٨٥ بطلب رحلة علمية لجمع البيانات الخاصة ببحثه من مركز اللغة الإنجليزية، ونفيدكم انه لا مانع لدينا بأن يقوم الأستاذ بجمع البيانات من مركز اللغة الإنجليزية وقد منح هذا الخطاب من اجل استكمال متطلبات رفع طلب الرحلة العلمية في بوابة سفير.

نأمل من سعادتكم التفضل بالاطلاع والتكرم بتوجيه من يلزم لاتخاذ اللازم.

وتقبلوا خالص تحياتي وتقديري..

مدير مركز اللغة الإنجليزية

د/ سحر بنت مطر احمد الزهراني

مريم الزهراني

Appendix F. Revised Observation Schedule

Teacher.....

Observation time.....

Domain.....

Focus/topic.....

Category	Teacher	Students	Comment
Greetings			
Discuss course/lesson objective			
Explaining cultural aspects			
Explaining grammar			
Explaining vocabulary			
Explaining reading passages			
Giving instructions			
Provide translation			
Ask for translation			
Ask for clarification			
Check comprehension			
Maintain discipline			
Give instructions			
Give feedback on written work			
Correct spoken errors			
Maintain discipline			
Joke with the students			
Praise the student/s			
Chatting			
Homework assigning			
Farewell			

Notes on teacher` use of L1 or reaction	Notes on students` use of L1 or reaction

Appendix G. Sample Observation Schedule

Teacher.....T2..... Attendance:... 26.... Observation time...49mins....

Domain...Technical Focus/topic...Bridges/Passive

time	Recording 1	Recording 2	Recording 3
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00:00 T: Alhamdulelah wa alsalat wa alsalam ala sahbehi ajmaeen. Today we start unit number 3 page 16. What is the title of this? What is the title of this? Yes, please.

LL: Bridges and Tunnels

T: Now, what is the difference between bridges and tunnels? What do we mean by bridges in English? What do we mean by bridges in English not in Arabic?

L1: 00:08 Bridges is a: *kef nkolha bel Arabi?* ((how to say it Arabic)) ((asking the class)) is a(h) road is a road that a:::

T: 00:19 Why do we use it?

L1: We use it for the::

T: =Why?

L1: For another type of the road

T: Ok because if there is any difficulty in the road sometimes they build? (.) bridges so you can cross from one side to? (.) the another. Is it usually high or low?

LL: 00:35 High

T: Is usually high above the? The ground. What do we mean by tunnel? When we think about tunnel. What is a tunnel? In one

word bekelma wahda ((in one word)) tunnel is what?

L2: 00:53 A hole?

T: Very good. It is a hole. Where? in the ground?

LL: in mountains

T: it is in the: mountains.
Sometimes when they build holes, they come across what?

L: Mountains

L5: Yes, expensive

T: [mountains which they cannot you know er pass it or cross it so they do what? They make a hole inside so the road can be straight because if you around the mountain, this might take? what? Longer time and the distance could be? even long. OK ?

Yes

L6: Kaanoh ygol
(Looks like he says)

T: So when they do (.) they make a hole just to shorten, to reduce the distance. What do we mean by distance ya ((you)) Malki?

°Tony Kroos °
((talking to classmate))

L: Almasafah ((distance))

L7: 01:49 Tunnels
wesh maanaha?

T: 01:40 it means Almasafah ((distance)), OK? So today we talk about bridges and tunnels.

((What does it mean?))

L8: er:: *Anfaq*
(Tunnels)

T: ((Teacher looks at his book)) yes Harth. ((meaning start to read Harthi)) (please follow him please)

L7: ()

02:30

L3: 02:00 ((starts to read))
Introduction. This is some of the famous structures in the world

L4: 02:24 Tarkeeb<
((the structure itself))

00:00 T: Alhamdulelah wa
alsalat wa alsalam ala
sahbehi ajmaeen. Today
we start unit number 3
page 16. What is the title
of this? What is the title
of this? Yes, please.

LL: Bridges and Tunnels

Appendix H. Stimulated Recall Interview Sample

I: Welcome with us brother today and as we agreed that I will ask you a few questions about your uses of Arabic and you explain the reasons why you used it at those situations. When you talked to your teacher and asked him "doctor, the final, the writing will be from the book or from outside the book?" why did you use Arabic here with the teacher not English?

P: In order to make my question clear and to receive a clear answer from the teacher as I am beginner in English language

I: and also we have this instance when you were chatting with your classmates while the teacher was explaining. you were chatting with you classmate saying "how large is your e-mail?" and he said "12" and then you said "mine is 13". why did you use Arabic at that moment?

P: because I don't have full knowledge of English and there are some [inaudible] that I don't know how to say them in English are therefore I used Arabic.

I: Okay, what about when you were explaining to your classmates about the exercise which the teacher asked you to do and you were saying to him "should everyone do this alone?". Why did you speak with your classmate in Arabic when you explained the exercise to him?

P: First of all, most of the students that are studying with me, I think, their levels are below average and therefore when I talk to them, I think of this and also I think about me because I cannot speak to him in English.

I: And when you asked your classmate "what is the meaning of scary or scaring?" and he told you the meaning. After that, you continued chatting with him and asked whether he gets scared and he said no and then you told him he is brave, and you continued chatting with him. The question here is divided into two parts. The first question says why did you ask your classmate about the meaning of for example scaring in Arabic?

P: The answers would almost be the same as the previous ones as I don't have full knowledge of English language in order to use it.

I: Okay, but what about when you chat with him?

P: Chatting? You know how formal the lectures are and therefore you would like to lift the mood a little bit.

Appendix I. Follow-up Interview Sample

- I: حياك الله معنا دكتور اليوم [توقف] زي كما قلت لك حبيب أسألك عن [توقف] بعض الأسئلة الموجودة في الاستبيان وأخذ رأيك عنها وأشوف إيش سبب إجاباتك في الاستبيان بشكل عام وبرضوا نلقي نظرة على أغلب [تتهد] الإجابات اتفقوا عليها المشاركين في الاستبيان [توقف]. أول سؤال يخص يعني طبعاً [توقف] استخدامك للغة عربية. هل تفضل إنك تستخدم اللغة العربية في المحاضرة؟
- P: لا، لا أفضل استخدام اللغة العربية، ولكن في بعض المواقف أحياناً أحتاج إلى استخدام اللغة العربية
- I: طيب مثل إيش المواقف؟
- P: مثل مواقف إنه الطلاب ما يكونوا فاهمين أحتاج إلى اللغة العربية مثل الطلاب يكونوا مستوياتهم [تتهد] متدنية، ف أحياناً أحتاج إلى استخدام اللغة العربية، وأحياناً مثلاً إذا كان في مثلاً [توقف] شيء يسهل للطلاب إنه استخدام اللغة العربية علي أساس يفهموا استخدام اللغة العربية.
- I: طيب قبل ما إن... يعني [تتهد] نستيق. [توقف] طيب إذا قولنا إنه في مواقف استخدم فيها اللي هي مثلاً إذا للطلاب مو فاهمين أو مستوياتهم متفاوتة [توقف]. في إيش تستخدمها بالضبط أنت؟
- P: زي ما قلت لك مثلاً إذا كان مثلاً شرح مثلاً الجرامر استخدم أحياناً للغة العربية لأنه شرح الجرامر هيكون شيء سيستم وفي تفوت في مستوى الطلاب ف أضمن إنه الجميع فهم هذا النظام تبع الجرامر. [توقف] هذا مثال، مثال ثاني إنه مثلاً [توقف] يكون الطلاب أصلاً ماهم فاهمين مثلاً كلمة معينة أو process لي definition معين، ف أنا أحياناً استخدم اللغة العربية علي أساس أوصلهم الفكرة بشكل أفضل يعني
- I: تمام. طيب [توقف] نلقي نظرة على [توقف] الإجابات الموجودة في الاستبيان اللي إيتفقوا عليها أغلب المشاركين واللي هي من ضمنها. واللي هي من ضمنها [توقف] اللي هو استخدام [تتهد] اللغة العربية لشرح [توقف] المصطلحات الخاصة والكلمات الغير محسوسة والغير حسية.
- P: أنا أشعر
- I: اللي هي Abstract vocabulary and specialised vocabulary.

Appendix J. Codebook and Themes

Table I(1). Codebook.

Codes	Description	Examples
Grammar	Use of L1 to explain grammatical rules	If the: subject, is not <u>known</u> or it is <u>not</u> : important. We care: more: about the action itself. Ykoon endk almawdoo3 yetkalm an alhadath wa lisa alfaeel [the focus is on the action not the agent]
Tech terms	Use of L1 to explain specialised vocabulary	Alprognose maanatuh enta betetwagaa alabaad lehatha altashkhees [it means that when you examine a patient, this is called diagnose , whereas prognose means predicting the course of the disease].
Academic vocab	Use of L1 to explain academic vocabulary	Mo masera, masar. Zay entom eash endakom masar? [not marching, route. Similar to yours. What is your domain?]
General vocab	Use of L1 to explain general vocabulary	Oppose maanaha ekhtelaf katheer [it means a big difference].
Metalanguage	Use of L1 to explain metalinguistic terms	kelmat altam yaani has wa have wo bas [the word “perfect” means using “has” and “have”. That’s it].
Pronunciation	Use of L1 to teach pronunciation	When I was young, I used to write in my own language Urdu. So, I remember [it]. Khalina nektob ktabah and see how you’d write in Arabic, so you remember how you say this word. Peritoneal, keef toktob peritoneal? in Arabic. How would you read it?
Revisit	Use of L1 as a reminder when revisiting points previously taught	Piers akhathna alkalema hathi gabel ketha fakreenha? Lama tkalmna an alinfrastartcure alle heya alawasasat fe al ekhtebare jatkom kaman alle

		howa raseef, hah? arsefah [we have taken this word before, do you remember? When we talked about infrastructure. You had it in the exam too which is pier right? Piers].
Task instruction	Use of L1 to give instructions related to tasks in the textbook	Yeah, because there are two towers shaifeen altowers? [do you see the towers] on either side? On both sides? Maaya wala la ya shabab? [Are you following guys or not?] can you see the towers? ***, can you see the towers?
Task procedure	Use of L1 to explain task procedure before an activity.	Correct form meaning the verb will change either using the past simple or the present simple adding “s” or “es” to the singular subject enta lazem tedheef ela alafaal almofradah [you have to add to the singular verbs] “s” or “es”. So, take your time.
Elicitation (nomination)	Use of L1 to elicit responses from the students	Tayb yallah kamel [ok, come on continue]. Methal give me methal [example, give me an example].
Discipline	Use of L1 to maintain discipline	Endak tamreen alyom? [Were you training today?].
Attention	Use of L1 to attract students’ attention	its use activates them and increases their attention
Joking/humour	Use of L1 to joke in class	Ok you are sitting in the zaweyah [corner] so what is the philosophy?
Personal comment	Use of L1 to provide personal comments on a specific point in the book	Why do you donate? Baad almoot ma feeh faydah [when you die, you won’t benefit from your organ].
Chat	Use of L1 when talking off topic	Hamalt esh? Pubg? [what did you download? Pubg?]. (while working in groups)

Mock	Use of L1 when a student makes fun of another student's mispronunciation or mistake	Printing yegol painting wahsh [it is printing but he said painting. Well done!].
Religion	Use of L1 when discussing a topic in the lesson from a religious (Islamic) point of view or invoking an expression	Insha Allah [God willing]
Correction	Use of L1 to correct inaccurate responses	No, no kalamk sah elle goltoah awaleyah bas tarteebk ghalt [what you have said before is correct, but the order is not].
Praise	Use of L1 to praise accurate answers	Momtaz [very good]
Confirmation	Use of L1 to echo accurate answers	Masaar [track] they need tracks masaraw masarat [track or tracks]
Ensure comprehension	It is used when Arabic is used to make sure all students understand	It was a critical point and since not all of them are good at English, I used Arabic <i>so everyone can understand</i>
Lack of understanding	Use of L1 when students do not understand	I do not prefer to use it [Arabic], but sometimes to explain grammar and difficult vocabulary when students do not understand
Facilitation	This code refers when Arabic is used to facilitate understanding the instruction.	I think using Arabic to explain it would facilitate it in a way that is quicker and effective
Effectiveness	Use of L1 is an effective way of teaching	to deliver the meaning effectively
Real-life example	This refers when Arabic is used to provide an example from student's real life.	“Actually, we have two classes. One class is in, 3 مبنی and the next class would be in 6 مبنی that's far away. So just to give them the idea that look, for example, if I get forgot something in that place and I wouldn't need to go there. I'll have my robot in the corner, and I'll tell him robot go ahead, please bring it. So that is just

		to make it interesting. Number two, to explain it in a more practical way”.
Aiding memorisation	This is used when Arabic is used when it is thought to help memorising vocabulary.	I think when you are giving them Arabic equivalents, they <i>remember the word</i> , especially in ESAP
Greater weight	A reason mentioned by teachers as Arabic has a greater impact when delivering a particular point.	We need to realise that L1 as a language and a culture has a <i>greater weight</i> . Our culture is Arabic, and if I was to use English in this situation, it wouldn't have the same effect
Habit	This code refers habitual use of Arabic.	It's a habit like, if I say the word صح
Natural use	This is used to refer to the use of Arabic as a natural process	“This is very <i>natural</i> [use]”
Laziness	Use of L1 due to being lazy	I become too <i>lazy</i> to translate and ask the question in English
Personal experience	A reason behind teachers' use of Arabic.	Based on my personal experience, I encountered this word ‘omit’ and I spent time thinking about its meaning while the teacher was proceeding to other parts of the lesson. So, it [translating this word to Arabic] could be down to my personal experience
Seriousness	This is used to refer to the use of Arabic to show that the teacher is serious	I did not want the student to think that I am trying to teach him something new in English, but I want him to see that I am serious
infrequent vocab	Use of L1 to to explain infrequent words	This refers to the use of Arabic to explain infrequent words
Relaxation	Use of L1 to to help students feel relaxed	I do it for fun just to, you know, to make it to, you know, a little for the students so they <i>feel relaxed</i> , and they feel, you know, in an environment where they're not actually threatened

Mode-lifting	Use of L1 to change the mood of the class/students	Because I felt they were completely out of mood, I talked about something that was not related to the lesson to change the mood
Motivation booster	Use of L1 to motivate the students	I noticed that whenever they don't participate or are being distracted and I use Arabic, they start focusing and participating
Time-saver	Use of L1 to save time	To convey the message <i>quickly</i> ; because here we are under stress that time is very short
Demotivating peer	Use of L1 when addressing low-level peer	I think <i>most of the students that are studying with me are below average</i> and therefore when I talk to them, I think of this [their level in the L2]
Limited proficiency	Use of L1 due to the limited competence of English	My English is not good enough for me to be able to ask the teacher in English. I don't have that skill
Limited vocabulary	Use of L1 due to limited vocab	I <i>know the simple words</i> like give and take
Boredom	Use of L1 when feeling bored	I felt <i>bored</i> and started chatting with my classmate
anxiety	Use of L1 when feeling anxious to speak in the L2	I am lacking in English competence, so I end up becoming <i>nervous</i> and I switch to Arabic when I talk with my teacher
Shyness	Use of L1 due to feeling shy	There are students who are shy. They don't want to talk in front of the people
identity	Use of L1 to being part of the identity	Because it is part of our <i>culture</i> that we speak Arabic and even when we want to speak in English, the first thing that comes to <i>my mind is Arabic</i>
Defeat purpose	Use of L1 is referred to be against the main purpose of learning	I do not prefer the use of L1 because the main purpose of language teaching or anybody learning the

		language is that he basically wants to learn the English language so ideally, I prefer as much as possible that I don't translate anything for them and try to get them to understand everything in English
Difficult definition	Use of L1 to deal with difficult definitions	The terminologies which are difficult to explain through the definitions
Consolidate meaning	Use of L1 is to consolidate meaning	I focused on it to consolidate the meaning, so it becomes clearer and understood
Equivalent vocab	Use of L1 when an item does not have an equivalent in Arabic	There are some medical terminologies which do not have equivalents in Arabic, so I explain them in English and then in Arabic
Prior knowledge	Use of L1 when students do not possess any knowledge about a particular topic in their own language.	Sometimes, it is difficult for the students to understand in English because do not have a prior knowledge of the word in their minds, so you have to explain the definition in Arabic
Learning experience	Use of L1 is influenced by learning experience	"[he] want[s] the students to remember this word whenever they go in the future just like I still have been remembering it for 20 years since we had it [in Arabic] with our teacher
Exam in mind	Use of L1 to help students succeed in exams	Most exam questions are about the vocabulary and grammar.
Students' objectives	Use of L1 to meet students' objectives	Because we have a problem that the students come to class, and they are worried about the grades not about learning
Curriculum pressure	Use of L1 to stay on pacing schedule and cover the required content	There is pressure on you to cover the curriculum in due time.

lost	Use of L1 when students seem lost	I use Arabic when they feel lost to bring them back
Tiredness	Use of L1 when students seem tired	It might help the students to understand after a long lesson as they might feel tired
Friendliness	Use of L1 to create a friendly atmosphere	I used it here to emphasised that I am being friendly
Stress	Use of L1 to alleviate stress	Arabic reduces the stress that students feel during learning languages
School influence	Use of L1 because students are used to it	Because as you know, from schools, in school time, they are accustomed to this word
Culture		Jazak Allah khair [May Allah reward you] and AlhamduleAllah [Thanks to Allah] from their culture so, this culture detachment should not be there
Hinders improvement	Use of L1 is thought to impede L2 proficiency	The use of Arabic would not allow me to improve
Expected proficiency	Use of L1 due to the expected level of understanding	The anticipation is that the student would not understand and therefore as a moral obligation we have to ensure that he understands
L2 exposure	Use of L1 is preferred less to give way for the L2 exposure	You should receive more English in order to understand
Negative experience	Use of L1 due previous negative experience	I might have developed this fear from the past, but my classmates are still bullying me

Table I(2). Themes and codes.

Themes	Codes
Pedagogical-related purposes	Grammar
	Vocabulary
	Tech terms
	Academic
	General
	Metalinguistics
	Pronunciation
	Revisit
Instructional-related purposes	Real-life example
	Task instruction-based
	Task procedure
	Management
	Discipline
	Attention
Interpersonal-related purposes	Nomination
	Joking/humour
	Personal comment
	Chat
Religious/culturally specific purposes	Mock
	Religion
Feedback-related purposes	Correction/Confirmation
	Praise
	Checking and comparing answers
Learning-related factors	Ensure comprehension
	Aid memorisation
	Facilitation
	Lack of understanding
	Effectiveness
	Consolidate meaning
Student-related factors	Demotivating peer
	Limited proficiency
	Limited vocabulary
	Expected proficiency
	Students' objectives
	Negative experience
Emotional/psychological-related factors	Laziness
	Relaxation
	Motivation booster

	Mode-lifting
	Boredom
	Anxiety
	Shyness
	Lost
	Stress
	Tiredness
Teacher-related factors	Personal experience
	Learning experience
Belief-related factors	Greater weight
	Hinders improvement
	Seriousness
	Friendliness
	Defeat purpose
	L2 exposure
Identity-related factors	Habit
	Natural
	Identity
Vocabulary-related factors	Difficult vocab
	Infrequent vocab
	Difficult definition
	Equivalent vocab
External-related factors	Exam in mind
	Curriculum pressure
	School influence
Management-related factors	Time-saver

Appendix K. Information and Consent Form (English)



CONSENT TO THE USE OF DATA

University of Glasgow, College of Arts Research Ethics Committee

I understand that Abdulaziz Alamtrafi is collecting data in the form of **interview** for use in an academic research project at the University of Glasgow. This research project aims to explore your perception about the use of Arabic in English for Specific Purposes. You have been recognized as a potential participant due to your involvement in the English for Specific Purposes lessons at Umm Al-Qura University. Your participation in this research is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any point or time. Your participation will be anonymous and the data will be confidential. It will only be used for research purposes and you will not be judged by the result of this research. This interview will take approximately **30 minutes**.

I give my consent to the use of data for this purpose on the understanding that:

- My participation will be anonymous.
- My participation is entirely voluntary.
- I can withdraw at any time up until data analysis commences, May 1st of 2022, without explaining giving any reason and the data related to my participation will be immediately destroyed.
- I understand that the interview will be recorded and I have the right to refuse being recorded.
- I understand that the interview will be transcribed and analysed for the purposes of the study and I can check the accuracy of transcript and add, edit, or delete any of my responses in the interview.
- I understand that my answers might be quoted without disclosing my name or personal information and a pseudonym will be used.
- I can skip any question that I do not want to answer.
- The anonymised data and consent form will be treated as confidential and kept in secure institutional storage for up to ten years. The recordings will be treated with strict confidentiality and kept in secure institutional storage during the course of the study and will be immediately destroyed after being analysed. All the data can be accessed by the research and his supervisors.
- The anonymised data will be retained in secure institutional storage for use in future academic research.
- The anonymised data may be used in future academic research or publications, both print and online.
- I understand that I will not benefit or be harmed by participating in this study.
- I have had the time to read and understood the study information sheet.

Signed by the contributor: _____ Date: _____

Researcher's name and email contact:

Abdulaziz Almatrafi

Supervisor's name and email contact:

Dr Carole MacDiarmid, carole.macdiarmid@glasgow.ac.uk

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Appendix L. Information and Consent Form (Arabic)



الموافقة على استخدام الملاحظة والتحفيز التذكيري لجمع البيانات جامعة غلاسكو، لجنة أخلاقيات البحث بكلية الآداب

أنا على علم بأن عبد العزيز المطر في يقوم بجمع البيانات في شكل ملاحظة لاستخدامها في مشروع بحث أكاديمي في جامعة غلاسكو. لقد قرأت وفهمت ورقة معلومات الدراسة.

كان لدي الوقت الكافي للاضطلاع على المعلومات. وقد قام الباحث بالإجابة على جميع تساؤلاتي بشكل مرض.

أوافق على استخدام المشاركة لهذا الغرض على أساس أن:

1. مشاركتي تطوعية تماماً.
2. مشاركتي ستكون مجهولة (سيتم استبدال اسمي).
3. أستطيع الانسحاب من الملاحظة و/أو التحفيز التذكيري في أي وقت.
4. لا يجب علي الإجابة على سؤال معين إذا قررت عدم الإجابة عليه.

أوافق على استخدام المشاركة لهذا الغرض على أساس أن:

1. استخدام وتخزين بيانات البحث في جامعة غلاسكو يعكس مهمة المؤسسة التعليمية والمسؤوليات القانونية فيما يتعلق بكل أمن المعلومات والتدقيق في سلوك الباحث.
- a. وجزء من هذا، تحت اللانحة العامة لحماية البيانات بالملكة المتحدة، أفهم وأقبل أن "الأساس القانوني" لمعالجة البيانات الشخصية هو أن المشروع يشكل "مهمة للمصلحة العامة"، وأن أي معالجة لبيانات فئة خاصة "ضرورية لأغراض الأرشيف للصالح العام"، أو البحث العلمي والتاريخي.

b. أفهم أن لدي الحق في الوصول إلى البيانات المتعلقة بي أو التي قدمتها والاعتراض عندما يكون لدي سبب للاعتقاد بأنه قد تم إساءة استخدامها أو استخدامها لأغراض أخرى غير تلك المذكورة.

2. سيتم التعامل مع بيانات المشروع في كل من الشكل المادي والإلكتروني بشكل سري وسيتم الاحتفاظ بها في مساحة تخزين آمنة (أجهزة مشفرة بطريقة مناسبة ومحمية بكلمة مرور وعلى حسابات المؤسسة التعليمية OneDrive الآمنة والمزودة من قبل الجامعة وذلك في جميع الأوقات).

3. سيتم التعامل مع البيانات ذات الأسماء المستعارة ونموذج الموافقة على أنها سرية في مساحة آمنة مزودة من قبل الجامعة لمدة عشر سنوات لأغراض الأرشيف (لفترة أطول إذا تم مراجعة البيانات خلال تلك الفترة). سيتم أيضاً الاحتفاظ بنماذج الموافقة لأغراض التسجيل.

4. أفهم أن الملاحظة والتحفيز التذكيري ستكون مسجلة صوتياً.

5. سيتم كتابة الملاحظات والتحفيز التذكيري لاحقاً وسيتم حذف التسجيلات عند تسليم الرسالة.

6. أفهم أن من الممكن اقتباس إجاباتي أو مشاركاتي دون الإفصاح عن اسمي أو بياناتي الشخصية.

7. سيتم محو اسمي وجميع البيانات الدالة على هويتي من المقابلات المكتوبة أو استبدالها بأسماء مستعارة وأن جميع الأسماء أو البيانات التي قد تدل على هويتي سيتم محوها وعندها ستكون البيانات مجهولة.

8. أستطيع الانسحاب في أي وقت قبل حذف البيانات الدالة على هويتي في يونيو 2022 دون الحاجة لذكر الأسباب وسيتم حذف جميع مشاركاتي. وأفهم أنه بعد هذا التاريخ ستكون البيانات مجهولة وسأكون معفى من حقوق قانون البيانات المنصوص عليه في اللانحة العامة لحماية البيانات في المملكة المتحدة.

9. أفهم أنه يمكنني التحقق من دقة النص وإضافة أو تعديل أو حذف أي من ردودي في أي وقت قبل إخفاء هويتي في [يونيو 2022].

10. لا يمكن الوصول إلى البيانات إلا من قبل الباحث ومشرفيه.

11. سيتم إتلاف جميع بيانات المشروع عند الانتهاء من الأطروحة.

12. من الممكن استخدام نتيجة الدراسة في البحث الأكاديمي أو المنشورات المستقبلية، سواء المطبوعة أو عبر الإنترنت.

جميع المشاركين:

☐ أوافق على المشاركة في المقابلات.

☐ أوافق على شروط تحليل ومعالجة البيانات الموضحة أعلاه.

☐ أؤكد أنني تلقيت معلومات حول كيفية ممارسة حقوق الاستخدام والاعتراض.

تفاصيل الاتصال: _____ التاريخ: _____

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