



Navigating Teachers and Students' Ideological Stances on Monolingual Pedagogy and Native-speakerism: Fostering Translanguaging in English for Academic Purposes Classrooms. An Exploratory Case Study of a Saudi University.

By

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ABSTRACT

In the evolving landscape of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), the study makes a paradigm shift toward multilingualism by aiming to deconstruct dominant standard-language ideologies and to foster translanguaging pedagogy in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classroom.

Using a qualitative methodology, the study employed six semi-structured interviews with ‘Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers’ (NNESTs), six semi-structured focus groups with twenty-five students, and six classroom observations of beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) students in the EAP classrooms. The study consisted of four stages: 1-stance, 2-fostering translanguaging to explore its affordances in the EAP classrooms, 3- classroom observations, and 4- reflection. It began with exploring teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism to explore whether these perspectives intersect with their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. The stance stage aimed to explore the participants' perceptions of the often-implicit English-only policy, the monolingual principle in second-language teaching and learning, the native speaker model, the dominant Anglo-American varieties of the language, and the teachers’ attitudes towards teaching methodologies underpinned by monolingual ideologies. Following the stance stage, the study focused on applying the translanguaging theory in practice to explore the affordances of this pedagogy within the research context. The next stage involved classroom observations of teachers’ and students’ engagement with translanguaging pedagogy. Then, the reflection stage illuminated the pedagogical functions and interpersonal implications of translanguaging pedagogy, highlighting the challenges faced by teachers and students.

The findings highlighted teachers’ agency in challenging monolingual norms, the native speaker model, and their belief in context-based teaching. In comparison, most of the students opposed the English-only policy and reported strong connections with their native

Arabic-speaking teachers due to shared linguistic and cultural backgrounds. However, some students demonstrated limited awareness of World Englishes and the dynamic spread of the language as a lingua franca, which contributed to their structural and standard view of the language, leading to a bias toward Anglo-American varieties and the ‘native speaker’ model. Their stance on native speakerism revealed that this standard ideology is often shaped by the wider global power attributed to English-speaking Western countries, their language varieties, and publishing institutions. Ultimately, the study endorsed the intersection between participants’ ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

This small-scale, qualitative study underscores the importance of creating an educational environment that values bilingualism. It highlights the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of translanguaging pedagogy and encourages educators to develop the agency necessary to apply translanguaging creatively in their own contexts. The study was conducted in Saudi Arabia and aims to contribute to the field by investigating translanguaging in an under-investigated context, where Arabic and English hold different positions of power, with Arabic designated as the national language and English often attributed global significance as a language of power. However, the study’s limited scope suggests that further research is needed to explore its implications across broader contexts and populations.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A1: Beginners

A2: Pre-Intermediate

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELI: English Language Institute

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

KSA: Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

NESTs: Native English-Speaking Teachers

NNESTs: Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers

S: Student

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

T: Teacher

TBLT: Task-Based Language Teaching

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

U.S.: United States

UK: United Kingdom

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

Language ideological research examines the assumptions and often unexamined ideas that underpin people's attitudes towards language, language varieties and language users (Truan, 2024). One prominent ideology in the field of education is standard language ideology (Cushing, 2021). This concept is defined as "bias toward an abstracted, idealised, homogeneous spoken language which is imposed and maintained by dominant bloc institutions" (Lippi-Green, 1997, p. 64 as cited in Leon, 2018).

Among the dominant standard language ideologies shaping the fields of English Language Teaching (ELT) and applied linguistics are the monolingual bias and native speakerism (Holliday, 2018; Ortega, 2019; Garcia, 2014). The monolingual ideology operates under the assumption that "each language is associated with one community and geographical location, that languages are pure and distinct, and that one's identity is tied to a single language" (Krulatz et al., 2017, p. 554). Native speakerism is often closely linked to assumptions of "proper standards of English" and "correct pedagogy," as exemplified by the 'native speaker' and institutions of the English-speaking Western countries (Lowe, 2020, pp. 23,57). The two are "unexamined deleterious ideologies," with native-speakerism unintentionally reinforcing the monolingual bias by elevating the monolingual native speaker as a superior model (Ortega, 2019, p. 24). Both ideologies cast a negative light on second-language learners, depicting them as inferior and unlikely to succeed in replicating the native speaker model (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015). These dominant ideologies influence language teaching pedagogy, often leading to the marginalisation or even suppression of bilingual and multilingual approaches in the Foreign Language Classroom (EFL) due to invalid concerns about "cross-linguistic contamination" (Portoles & Marti, 2020, p. 250).

In response to these dominant and unexamined ideologies, the *Multilingual Turn* has highlighted a paradigm shift in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), advocating for the value of students' linguistic plurality and multicultural diversity (May, 2013). The rapid movement of people, languages, and cultural diversity in the contemporary era of globalisation has shifted the focus to the dynamic and fluid ways of communication, where languages operate within a unified linguistic repertoire (Slaughter & Cross, 2021).

Within the shift from monolingual to multilingual ideologies in the age of globalisation, human mobility and multilingualism (Galante, 2020), translanguaging has emerged as a controversial pedagogy since Garcia's and Wei's groundbreaking work, where they explored how bilingual speakers use multiple languages in a fluid and dynamic manner, challenging traditional views of language separation (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Translanguaging has attracted the attention of many scholars, aiming to bring about transformation by promoting social justice and addressing linguistic inequalities in education (e.g., Darvin, 2024; Garcia & Leiva, 2014; Tian & Wei, 2024), especially considering the historical influence of language ideologies and the imperial dominance of the English language (Poza, 2017; Ullah & Akram, 2023).

The term first appeared in Williams's work in the Welsh classroom, referring to instructional methods in which English and Welsh were used interchangeably as input or output for various activities and purposes (Williams, 1994). Since then, translanguaging has expanded beyond its Welsh origins to describe a variety of settings, from classrooms to streets (Lewis et al., 2012). The development of the term has led to a range of different definitions and an ongoing debate about its meaning (Singleton & Flynn, 2022). Therefore, it is essential to clarify the concept of translanguaging as it pertains to the current research, which focuses on translanguaging pedagogy within the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classroom. In this study, translanguaging is defined as a pedagogical approach 'planned by the teacher inside the classroom and can refer to the

use of different languages for input and output or to other planned strategies based on the use of students' resources from the whole linguistic repertoire' (Cenon & Gorter, 2017, p. 194).

1.2 Rationale of the Study

My interest in the topic under investigation was initially sparked by informal discussions with colleagues about their views on monolingual pedagogy and the native-speakerist ideology. My colleague and I have never regarded ourselves as inferior to 'Native English-speaking Teachers' (NESTs), especially regarding students' preferences. Our bilingual abilities as 'Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NNESTs) have consistently received admiration and appreciation from our students. However, many of my colleagues and I have faced the dilemma of choosing between monolingual pedagogy and embracing the dynamic bilingual reality of the classroom. On one side, adhering to the English-only policy seemed to conform to the assumed monolingual norm typical in mainstream EFL classrooms. On the other hand, we observed our students struggle with understanding and self-expression whenever we attempted to establish a monolingual English environment.

In a context where the EAP course is compulsory for preparatory year students, those falling below the required grades risk losing their university places. In this situation, we discovered that incorporating the first language (L1) was vital for improving students' comprehension and learning of the second language (L2), ultimately enhancing their academic performance and securing a better future for them. Nevertheless, our practice was often accompanied by feelings of guilt for deviating from the presumed monolingual norm. Although challenging monolingual pedagogy proved to be a more humane approach given students' struggles and needs, our use of L1 lacked a substantial theoretical basis. It was not seen as a legitimate teaching method, nor did it align with the dominant monolingual ideologies within the field of ELT. I first encountered the term translanguaging when I began my PhD in 2022; my supervisor, Tomasz John, encouraged me to explore it as a possible theoretical framework for my initial PhD proposal. Since then, I have

developed a new passion for a transformative pedagogy that signals a shift away from traditional language ideologies and affirms our students' needs and struggles. Translanguaging resonated deeply with my understanding of language teaching and inspired me in ways that other methods did not. My enthusiasm for translanguaging pedagogy lies in its affirmation of what my colleagues and I have always found to be more beneficial, natural, and practical in the classroom. It challenges the common view that the native and target languages must be kept strictly separate (Cummins, 2008). Instead, it advocates for embracing students' whole linguistic repertoire rather than pursuing the elusive goal of native-like proficiency (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). Furthermore, exploring this pedagogy sparked my curiosity about how it is implemented and its implications within the EFL classroom. As shown in the systematic review conducted by Prelutsky (2021), few studies have examined its use in EFL and higher education contexts. Additionally, the author highlighted a lack of research on providing professional support to teachers developing translanguaging pedagogy; these gaps formed the rationale for this PhD study.

1.3 Significance of the Study

“Dismantling the monolingual bias and native-speakerism may have proven to be so difficult in SLA because rejecting them would encroach on disciplinary identity” (Ortega, 2019, p. 24). The study tackles the challenge of deconstructing two dominant ideologies in the field of ELT. It positions translanguaging as a transformative pedagogy that transcends structuralist ideologies of language separation. This approach disputes the notion of the monolingual native speaker as the standard reference for second language learning and teaching, advocating instead for a more inclusive and dynamic understanding of language use.

This research is among the first in Saudi Arabia to emphasise the importance of simultaneously examining both teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism, and how these ideologies interact with their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. Previous studies in different contexts have solely focused on a single

group of participants (e.g., Aghai et al., 2020; Fallas Escobar, 2020; Liu et al., 2020; Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020). By incorporating the voices of both students and teachers, this study offers a broader perspective on the topic under investigation.

To address the challenge of translating translanguaging theory into practice, especially within the dominant standard ideologies of ELT, the study's contributions depend on fostering translanguaging pedagogy to explore its affordances in the research context. Studies have shown that only a small proportion of instructors actively promote translanguaging in their classes (Sah & Li, 2022; Wei & Lin, 2019).

Another limitation arises from presenting translanguaging solely as a teaching framework without embracing its “critical, social, and linguistic stances, leading to a diluted application (Poza, 2017, p. 103). Sah and Li (2022) noted a lack of research on the methods and outcomes of translanguaging in contexts where English is not the dominant language. It is vital to explore translanguaging practices across diverse educational, political, and sociocultural settings from an insider's perspective, amplifying participants' voices and analysing the educational and social impacts of these practices (Leung & Valdes, 2019).

Furthermore, the importance of this study lies in introducing what I refer to as a ‘conscious version of translanguaging in the EFL classroom’, as explained later in the methodology chapter. In doing so, the study establishes its own working definition of translanguaging, tailored to the research context. This conscious approach encourages the development of thoughtfully designed translanguaging spaces within both the process and outputs of classroom activities. It emphasises the need for clear instructions and alignment with educational objectives. Additionally, it highlights the importance of contextualising translanguaging by considering the educational setting, its goals, and the sociocultural environment. Consequently, this research addresses a critical gap by responding to calls from Hawkins and Mori (2018) and Mendoza et al. (2023) for more studies examining the sociopolitical and geographical contexts in which this significant approach is

applied, as these factors substantially influence individual language ideologies and the equitable use of linguistic resources.

1.4 Aims of the Study

The study's first aim is to explore teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism by examining their perceptions of four main themes. Firstly, the status of the English-only policy at the English Language Institute (ELI) and the extent to which participants adhere to it. Secondly, the dichotomy between the 'Native English-Speaking Teacher' (NESTs) and the 'Non-Native English-Speaking Teacher' (NNESTs), and its impact on teachers' professional identities and students' preferences. Thirdly, their views on dominant Anglo-American language varieties compared to other global varieties of the language. Finally, teachers' attitudes towards the dominant language teaching methodologies underpinned by monolingual ideologies, such as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) methods. Investigating the stances of students and teachers on these topics is essential to this study, as it could influence their experiences and perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

After examining the often-subtle monolingual and native speaker ideologies that emerge, inform, or are sustained at the meso level (the ELI) or the macro level (the ELT field), and the extent to which these ideologies shape their practice at the micro level (the EAP classroom), the second aim is to foster translanguaging pedagogy within the current context. To translate the theory of translanguaging into practice, I conducted a translanguaging-oriented session to raise teachers' awareness of this approach. Subsequently, I collaborated with six 'NNESTs' teachers to develop a reading lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. This lesson is a key component in exploring the affordances of this pedagogy in the current case study and demonstrating how teachers and students engage with it in the EFL classroom.

The final aim is to explore the teachers' and students' reflections on the lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. This third aim seeks to highlight the affordances of fostering

translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL classroom and whether it influences or develops teachers' beliefs and practices. Exploring Teachers' and students' views on translanguaging pedagogy aims to reveal the perceived pedagogical benefits as well as the challenges that could hinder its potential. Moreover, the final question aims to explore the extent to which the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism could influence their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

1.5 Research Questions

- 1- What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy?**
- 2- What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on native-speakerism?**
- 3- How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?**
- 4- What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experiences with translanguaging pedagogy?**

1.6 The Contextual Background of the Study

This section examines the impact of globalisation and neoliberalism on the status of English in Saudi Arabia. Understanding the Saudi research context is crucial, as it highlights key issues related to language, power, and identity, which may shape participants' language ideologies and perceptions toward the topic under investigation.

1.6.1 The Evolution of English as a Global Language

English is the global language for communication, media, technology, international trade, and education (Ullah & Akram, 2023). It has developed from a regional tongue into a lingua franca (Crystal, 2003). The term 'English as a lingua franca' refers to “the communication in English between speakers with different first languages” (Seidlhofer, 2005, p. 339). To understand how English became a dominant global language, it is essential to examine its evolution from a local language into a worldwide lingua franca (Ullah & Akram, 2023). Scholars like Phillipson (1992) argued that English’s dominance results from initiatives by institutions such as the British Council, which promote monolingual and native-speaker ideologies to maintain English’s supremacy over other languages. Pennycook (2002) added that media and popular culture, especially from the United States, have also significantly contributed to the global promotion of English.

Crystal (2003) stated that the colonial era played a crucial role in establishing English’s global dominance, with Barj Kachru’s model of World Englishes vividly illustrating colonisation's influence on the distribution of English speakers. To illustrate, Kachru (1990) introduced a three-circle model categorising countries based on the prevalence of English and the influence of the English political system in those regions. The Inner Circle includes countries with ‘native English speakers’, while the Outer Circle comprises nations where English is not native but holds significant status, often as a second language. These are typically former British colonies. The Expanding Circle covers countries where English is taught as a foreign language.

According to Kachru’s (1990) model, Saudi Arabia is classified within the Expanding Circle, as it was never colonised by Britain. Saudi Arabia is regarded as the guardian of Islam, a leader in the Islamic world, and the home of the holiest cities, Mecca and Medina. Arabic is the official language and is highly valued, as Muslims emphasise its importance due to its connection to the Holy Quran (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015, p. 25). English is spoken as a foreign language within the country, recognising its significance as a global lingua franca. It serves as a vital medium for

economic growth, technological development, scientific progress, and international engagement (Alqahtani, 2022).

Kachru's model has been influential in understanding the dynamics of English as a global language and the various contexts in which it is used. However, it has limitations derived from its hierarchical implications. According to Rose et al. (2020), Kachru's model simplifies English speakers into three categories: native, second, and foreign language users. These classifications may not fully reflect the underlying power relations and inequalities within and across these groups, such as the prestige associated with native English varieties compared to non-native ones.

Similarly, Galloway and Rose (2015) critiqued the model for its overemphasis on colonial history. They argued that it neglects important issues such as the global mobility of the language, the multilingual realities of the world, and how people within the three circles communicate using English as a lingua franca. The necessity to go beyond Kachru's simplistic view arises from recognising that English is no longer confined to specific geographic regions or limited to a small group of speakers.

In response to the language's evolving and dynamic nature, Rose et al. (2021) advocated for the Global Englishes paradigm as an inclusive framework that seeks to integrate the concepts from World Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, and English as an International Language. According to Rose et al, Global Englishes aligns with current developments in second language acquisition, including translanguaging and the multilingual turn. It advocates for pedagogical strategies that depart from traditional language ideologies, recognise multilingualism as a norm, validate learners' linguistic backgrounds, and avoid assessing proficiency solely based on native-speaker standards (2021).

1.6.2 The Impact of Neoliberalism on the Status of English in the Kingdom

The landscape of English language education in Saudi Arabia has experienced a significant transformation, especially within the country's economic and social development (Alqahtani, 2018). Following the discovery of oil in the early 20th century, the demand for English in Saudi Arabia increased sharply, driven by economic growth and globalisation (Faruk, 2013). Moreover, the launch of *Saudi Vision 2030* in 2016 marked a crucial turning point, aiming to diversify the economy and lessen reliance on oil (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016). According to Alqahtani (2024), the vision seeks to promote privatisation, decrease citizens' reliance on the government, shift towards a knowledge-based economy, and open trade to the global market.

The move towards privatisation, individualism, and globalisation reflects a transition to neoliberalism (Bockman, 2013). Neoliberalism is “a theory of political-economic practices that proposes that human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterised by strong private property rights, free markets, and free trade” (Harvey, 2005, p. 2). Daghigh et al. (2022) noted that neoliberalism began in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (U.S.) to ease governmental burdens but has since been imposed on the Global South. Conversely, Colas (2005) argued that developing countries are not merely passive victims of global neoliberalism; instead, they may also pursue it voluntarily for social, political, economic, or ideological reasons.

According to Daghigh et al., the rise of neoliberal ideologies has significantly influenced education in the Global South, shifting its focus towards economic growth driven by human capital and skills. Among these skills, proficiency in English has become essential (2022). Holborow emphasised that the link between English and neoliberalism is undeniable and described English as “the core social agent of the neoliberal project” (Holborow, 2013, p. 15). The neoliberal shift is clear in Saudi Arabia, where English has become a source of linguistic, economic, and cultural capital, closely tied to job opportunities and economic advancement, particularly on the international stage, as English is often seen as a global language of power (Barnawi, 2017).

Neoliberalism in Saudi Arabia is reflected in the marketisation of education, the focus on English as the primary language of opportunity and global integration, and the importation of expertise, curricula, and assessment models from English-speaking Western countries (Barnawi, 2017; Le Ha & Barnawi, 2015).

R'boul (2022) highlighted the importance of viewing English as a neoliberal tool and situating the discussion within broader power dynamics, as the language can reinforce neoliberal social changes and diminish the perceived value of local languages on the international stage. To address these concerns, Barnawi and Al-Hawsawi noted that Saudi Arabia's approach to teaching English in higher education is conflicted between protecting Arabic and responding to global pressures. They argued that neoliberalism may not only sideline Arabic language learning but also prioritise profit, wealth, individualism, and competitiveness at the expense of the true purpose of education and Islamic values of cooperation and solidarity (2017).

The presence of English in the EAP course of the current study exemplifies this neoliberal shift, where proficiency in English is deemed essential for admission to disciplines that use English as the sole medium of instruction. According to Ullah and Akram (2023), English proficiency can sometimes act as a barrier for some 'non-native English speakers', hindering their academic aspirations. This issue is particularly pertinent in Saudi Arabia, where English proficiency in public high schools remains below government targets (Al-Tamimi, 2019).

To address the socio-cultural ramifications of English as a neoliberal tool, this study proposes translanguaging as a pedagogical approach that values local languages and cultural identities, aligning with Saudi Vision 2030 (2016), which emphasises the preservation of Arabic and its ties to national identity. Although the vision does not explicitly mention the English language, its role remains undeniable in achieving one of the main pillars of the vision, that is, global and economic integration (Saudi Vision 2030, 2016). This framework creates opportunities to implement translanguaging practices in English language classrooms, enabling learners to utilise

their whole linguistic repertoire for better understanding, communication, and learning of the language without sidelining their native language (Masrahi, 2023).

1.6.3 ELT in Saudi Arabia

According to Alfahadi, Saudis constitute the majority of English teachers in public schools, from elementary to secondary levels. Although a bachelor's degree in English is the minimum qualification for teaching the language, no prior education or experience is required (Alfahadi, 2012). In higher education, Alrashidi and Phan demonstrated that many Saudi universities use English as the primary language of instruction for scientific disciplines, including medicine and engineering, while Arabic is used for non-scientific subjects such as the humanities. Moreover, students enrolled in programmes taught in Arabic must complete an EFL course. For instance, a history student is required to take an English module (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Teaching English in Saudi schools and universities encounters some challenges (Alqahtani, 2018). Elyas and Picard (2010) observed that pedagogy in Saudi Arabia, like in most Arab educational systems, is still "typically based more on rote learning than it is on critical thinking, problem-solving skills, analysis and synthesis of information, and learning how to learn" (p. 141). Furthermore, education officials and the Saudi government have recently recognised issues arising from low English proficiency among students at schools and university (Alqahtani, 2018). According to Alrashidi and Phan, this problem arises from several factors, including that English learning is not student-centred; students often depend solely on memorisation as their learning strategy. Additionally, there is a lack of an immersive environment for the target language. Some students believe that English has little academic or social value, while certain members of society wrongly think that learning English could threaten their native language, customs, and culture (2015). Conversely, Elyas noted that the Saudi Arabian Ministry of Education aimed to improve the status of the English language and students' proficiency levels by increasing the number of English classes and adopting textbooks, mainly from the USA, which focus on communicative language teaching methods.

Moreover, university faculty in Saudi Arabia have been sent abroad to learn about Anglo-American pedagogies (Elyas, 2011).

Barnawi and Al-Hawsawi argued that this uncritical adoption of Anglo-American products and services often traps individuals in “a vicious cycle of dependency, self-doubt and tensions with regard to focusing on small problems (e.g., searching for the best methods of EFL teaching and piloting commercial international textbooks, etc.) while the whole house is on fire” (p. 218). Among these primary problems is the lack of a comprehensive framework that defines the desired English proficiency levels for Saudi learners. Additionally, it is essential to address the factors contributing to the educational outcomes of English instruction in schools, which often fall below the expected standard (2017). Moreover, Elyas and Picard (2010) raised their concern about the unquestioning embrace of Anglo-American educational methods by adding that:

It can cause local resentment, marginalise local teachers, and result in a form of cultural colonisation. In order for these Saudi teachers to retain their unique identity, feel empowered as teachers, and teach students in a culturally relevant way, there needs to be an acceptance of the hybridity of teacher and student identity... With a hybrid English language pedagogy that interrogates both traditional Islamic approaches and relevant Western practices and marries the best of these approaches to enhance teaching and learning (p. 143).

To tackle the challenges within English education policy and practice in Saudi Arabia, Barnawi and Al-Hawsawi (2017) proposed a locally adapted language education framework that moves away from the “top-down approaches” which rely on Anglo-American products and services (p. 218). They emphasised that this framework does not entail isolating Saudi English language policy from global contexts or blindly adopting international frameworks. Instead, they advocate for an epistemic and cognitive transformation to effectively achieve the goals of current

education policies. These include enhancing mass literacy in English and addressing the religious, economic, and social needs of the Saudi population.

1.7 Conclusion

This PhD thesis is organised into six chapters, including the current introductory chapter. The introduction provides the contextual background of the study, along with its rationale, significance, aims, and research questions. Chapter two begins by examining the relationship between language ideology, policy, and pedagogy. It then reviews the literature on native-speakerism and translanguaging pedagogy. Subsequently, chapter three describes the methodology used in the study, covering the research approach, context and participants, data collection methods and analysis, research process, and ethical considerations. Following the methodology chapter, chapter four presents the findings from the teachers' interviews, students' focus groups, and classroom observations. Furthermore, chapter five discusses the findings and contextualises the current study within the existing literature. It highlights how the study aligns with or challenges previous research, offering a comprehensive analysis of the results. Finally, chapter six concludes the thesis by summarising the study, acknowledging its limitations, discussing implications, and providing recommendations for teachers and policymakers, along with suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

By embracing translanguaging as a practical theory, this study ventures into uncharted territory, diverging from the conventional monolingual and native-speakerist ideologies. The literature review comprises three interconnected themes, beginning with an exploration of monolingual ideology and its impact on policy and pedagogy in English Language Teaching (ELT), followed by an examination of native speakerism, and concluding with an investigation of translanguaging. The intersection between monolingual and native speakerist ideologies was emphasised by Fallas Escobar and Dillard-Paltrineri, who argued that the field of applied linguistics has been influenced by the monolingual premise. This ideology grants monolingual native speakers "a superior language competence" for their "nativeness," contributing to feelings of "incompleteness," "inadequacy," and a sense of deficiency among second language speakers (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015, p. 302).

The second part of the literature review critically examines native speakerist ideology, which promotes an assumed superiority of native speakers in language teaching and learning, reinforcing monolingual norms and biases (Holliday et al., 2015; Truan, 2024). Translanguaging, conversely, advocates moving away from the monolingual native speaker model to centre bilingual speakers, their needs, and their dynamic ways of languaging (Garcia & Kleyn, 2016). It challenges the monolithic view of languages as separate entities and argues that multilinguals possess "a unitary linguistic system" (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020, p. 25). The three main themes of this study highlight tensions between standard language ideologies and the realities of multilingualism, emphasising the need for more inclusive and flexible language policies and pedagogies that recognise the value of diverse linguistic resources in education.

2.2 The Interplay of Language Ideology, Policy and Pedagogy

2.2.1 Introduction

This section of the chapter examines the influence of the dominant monolingual ideology on policy and pedagogy across various educational settings. Additionally, it will explore how teachers and students encounter the monolingual bias, which proves to be more of an imposed top-down ideology than a reflection of the dynamic multilingual realities of the classroom (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015; Ortega, 2013; Wei & Lin, 2019). By examining this standard language ideology, I aim to critically analyse the implications of this ideology and advocate for more inclusive pedagogies that recognise the value of multilingualism in fostering effective language learning.

2.2.2 Standard Language Ideologies in the Field of English Language Teaching

Language ideology refers to the underlying, often unrecognised beliefs about language and language use that significantly shape how individuals understand and interpret situations (Cummins & Davison, 2007). Among the standard language ideologies that dominate the discourse of English Language Teaching (ELT) are the monolingual and native speakerist ideologies (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Kleyn & Garcia, 2019; Ortega, 2019; Yang & Jang, 2022). These ideologies put the competence of second language speakers into comparison with a small control group of monolingual native speakers as a standard reference (Vulchanova et al., 2022). Subsequently, bilinguals and multilinguals are considered to be deviations from this model (Barratt, 2018). Ultimately, standard language ideologies promote linguistic ownership, suggest that “monolingualism” is “the implicit norm” and render the reality of bilingualism and multilingualism unnoticed (Ortega, 2013, p. 36).

According to Cushing (2021), standard language ideologies are shaped by and linked to influential social groups, often correlated with the English-speaking Western countries and individuals who are white and middle to upper class. These ideologies are rooted in power and legitimacy, functioning to uphold hegemonic structures by favouring those in dominant positions

while marginalising other speakers and their varieties of the language (Walsh, 2021). Additionally, they shape educational policies and project non-standard forms of the language as “deviant’ and ‘non-compliant,” leading to a hierarchy among language varieties (Cushing, 2021, p. 323). Subsequently, they shape students’ learning experiences and their perceptions of their own language varieties, those of others, and their general attitudes toward language learning (Group, 2016).

2.2.3 Pedagogies and Practices Around the English-only Policy

Monolingual language policy refers to “the idea that a country should use one standard language” (Uddin, 2025, p. 44). Such policies are shaped by underlying language beliefs and ideologies and are enacted not only through official documents but also through everyday practices and pedagogical approaches (Cushing, 2021). From this perspective, monolingual language policies are grounded in monolingual ideology, also described as the *monolingual principle* (Howatt, 1984, p. 289, as cited in Cook, 2001) or *monolingual bias* (Barratt, 2018). This ideology has long characterised the fields of applied linguistics and English Language Teaching (ELT) (Cook, 2001; Hall & Cook, 2012; Yang & Jang, 2022).

Language teaching pedagogy has tended to ignore or even suppress bilingual or multilingual options, endorsing a predominantly monolingual policy, one which equates ‘good teaching’ with exclusive or nearly exclusive target language use.

Consequently, the use of several languages in the foreign language classroom has been avoided in order to prevent what is perceived as cross-linguistic ‘contamination’ (Portoles & Marti, 2020, p. 250).

East and Wang (2024) noted that the monolingual ideology has long influenced pedagogy and practices in the second language (L2) classrooms. This standard ideology does not stem from accurately representing real language use or classroom practices, which are marked as dynamic and fluid (e.g., Galante, 2020; Neokleous, 2022; Phyak et al., 2022), but rather from socially constructed

notions or assumptions of how language practices are expected to appear within specific nations or institutions (Chang-Bacon, 2022).

Yang and Jang (2022) explained that different stakeholders, including parents and students, sometimes assume that the English-only policy represents “authentic and meaningful language education” (p. 1090). Correlating the English-only policy with the authentic form or use of the language shows how it contributes to and results from standardised language ideologies, where monolingual pedagogy is assumed to be the most correct or best approach to second language learning (Cushing, 2021). Consequently, this promotes linguistic hierarchies and provides political and economic advantages to those who speak English as a dominant language (Barnawi, 2017; Daghigh et al., 2022).

However, globalisation increasingly challenges the monolingual model of language use. Increased mobility, digital communication, and transnational labour create polycentric contexts characterised by multiple, shifting centres of authority rather than a single national norm. Within such contexts, the concept of fixed and discrete languages becomes increasingly difficult to sustain, as individuals draw on fluid and adaptable linguistic repertoires across different places, times, and communicative modes (Bolomaert, 2010, as cited in Uddin, 2025).

In an attempt to counter the English-only policy and its detrimental impact on second-language learners, many scholars have challenged the monolingual bias in the field of ELT (Auerbach, 2016; Barratt, 2018; Cummins, 2007; Nguyen et al., 2010). Auerbach (2000) identified some pedagogical benefits behind first language usage, including making classes more accessible for those with limited English proficiency, promoting classroom participation, scaffolding students’ learning, and supporting the cultural backgrounds of families whose parents do not speak English.

Despite substantial research evidence supporting the pedagogical advantages of judicious use of students’ first language (e.g., Macaro & Lee, 2013; Shin et al., 2020; Smagul, 2024; Sundari & Febriyanti, 2021), the English-only policy still holds a dominant position, and the use of the first language (L1) is often discouraged or prohibited (Fallas Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015;

McMillan & Rivers, 2011). As a result, Cummins and Davison (2007) raised the question of why research on the use of L1 has had minimal influence on language policies. They concluded that as long as standard language ideology continues to dominate the discourse of ELT and its educational policy, the research is likely to remain largely disconnected from the policy-making process. The gap between research and practice has also been noted by Portoles and Marti (2020). The authors highlighted that research on translanguaging and multilingualism appears to have had a limited impact on teachers' classroom practices.

To bridge this gap, there is a need for more collaborative frameworks among researchers, teachers, and policymakers to foster multilingual pedagogies and to incorporate them into teacher training, ensuring that research informs policy and practice. According to Portoles and Marti (2020), teachers' training could transform their cognition and challenge some of the long-held assumptions in language education that might be difficult to change. In response to this gap, the current study aims to assist teachers in translating the theory of translanguaging into practice, exploring translanguaging as a pedagogical, purposeful approach and building their agency to depart from dominant standard language ideologies at the meso and macro levels.

2.2.3.1 The English-only Policy as an Assumed Norm.

Cushing explained that language policies are influenced by prevailing language beliefs and ideologies. These ideologies can become so deeply ingrained that they are perceived as an assumed norm, obscuring the underlying structural processes that contribute to their formation and continuation (2021). Examining the English-only policy around the globe supports the arguments of Cook (2001) and Halliwell and Jones (1991), as the monolingual policy is dominant yet mostly implicit rather than explicit, implying the incorrect assumption that monolingualism is the norm and the use of L1 is a deviation from that norm.

Gundarina and Simpson (2022) noted that the significance of L1 is generally overlooked at the macro policy level of school education in England. The authors suggested that the lack of recognition afforded to learners' first languages is unsurprising and attributed to the "powerful ideology of monolingualism and homogeneity" that dominates the education policy in the country (p. 525). Moreover, the systematic review by Shin et al. (2020) examined various classroom settings in which English is spoken as a Foreign Language (EFL) and found that the monolingual ideology was evident in institutional policies, with the use of L1 either explicitly banned or implicitly discouraged by emphasising a direct approach. Schiffman (2012) distinguished between the explicit and implicit policies in language education by scrutinising the ideologies underpinning language policy in the United States. He argued that "the strength of American language policy is not in what is legally and officially stated but in the subtler workings of what I have called the covert and implicit language policy" (p. 211). In this sense, the covert policy that never addresses the use of L1 as a possibility depicts monolingual pedagogy as a norm and sends a stronger message than the explicit policy. The status of the implicit English-only policy was also discussed by Hawkins, who examined the education policy in Japan (2015). Hawkins affirmed that the English-only policy is not explicitly stated but implied from the instruction that never addresses students' L1 use. He argued that the implicit monolingual ideology overlooks the role of L1 in student learning and perceives it as a barrier rather than an asset (2015). Similarly, Alnasser and Almoaily (2022) noted that Saudi Arabia's education policy does not mention anything regarding L1 use, despite it being predominantly used in and outside the EFL classroom. They used a mixed-method approach to explore the perspectives of instructors and administrators regarding the policy in higher education across the five different regions of the kingdom. Most participants agreed on the lack of an explicit written policy in their departments but sought the policy to be agreed upon informally.

The dominance of monolingual ideologies is not restricted to the institution's policy, which explicitly or implicitly advocates for language separation (Shin et al., 2020). This can also be observed in teachers' pre- and in-service training, which often exclusively focuses on workshops or

teaching methodologies underpinned by monolingual ideologies (Trent, 2013). Such ideologies have severe implications for teachers and students, hindering them from developing their use beyond code-switching and translation, leading teachers to experience tension with the stakeholders (Shin et al., 2020), and causing some teachers to associate the use of L1 with feelings of guilt despite its pedagogical and interpersonal benefits (Hawkins, 2015).

2.2.3.2 Language Policy Appropriation.

According to Chang-Bacon (2022), “policy appropriation” refers to the creative ways that language policy agents, including teachers, facilitate or disrupt these policies based on their own ideological stances and teaching contexts (p. 5).

In the context of the Philippines, Canilao (2024) described how the English-only policy is embedded in the country’s educational system and rooted in its colonial history. This monolingual ideology manifests not only in education policies but also in individuals' perceptions of languages and their use, causing them to view English as a superior language and perceive language mixing as a condemned practice and a sign of linguistic deficiency. Therefore, teachers in the Philippines face serious challenges when attempting to resist the English-only policy and to incorporate translanguaging into their teaching.

Investigating the interpretation of the English-only policy in different EFL/English and Second Language (ESL) settings reveals that it is more of an imposed top-down institutional assumption than an accurate description of classroom reality (Wei & Lin, 2019). Many empirical studies show that teachers have the agency to challenge the English-only policy in different contexts (e.g., Dubiner et al., 2018; Phyak et al., 2022; Tsagari & Giannikas, 2020). The effectiveness of monolingual pedagogy has been questioned, especially when instructors and learners share a common native language (Khonamri, 2017).

Kohi and Lakshmi (2020) recruited forty ESL/EFL teachers from twelve nations representing various cultural and teaching backgrounds. The study affirmed that their participants did not conform

to the English-only policy. The teachers utilised L1 as a pedagogical and interpersonal tool to scaffold students' learning and promote student engagement and motivation. Teachers' use of L1 was based on its perceived benefits, including translating key vocabulary, explaining classroom materials, and building rapport with students.

Additionally, Yang and Jang (2022) examined how the English-only policy was implemented in a private EFL school in South Korea that employed Korean bilingual teachers, as well as how these teachers interpreted and responded to the policy. The school sought to enforce the English-only rule while differentiating between native and non-native English teachers in their roles and responsibilities, closely observing the latter's use of students' first languages. Although most Korean bilingual teachers were generally willing to comply with the policy, their participation in classroom activities and interactions with students led them to recognise the educational benefits of including students' first language. As a result, they challenged the policy by allowing, and sometimes encouraging, students' L1 use when it served a pedagogical purpose.

Building on studies that highlight teachers' agency in countering top-down English policies, examining students' attitudes toward these policies is equally essential. Neokleous (2017) found that school students in Cyprus opposed the English-only policy and believed in the pedagogical benefits of bilingual linguistic practices. Those benefits included boosting students' comprehension, promoting confidence, and enhancing the classroom environment.

2.2.3.3 The Implications of the English-only Policy.

The impact of the English-only policy on students' learning was documented in the study of Macaro and Lee (2013), which was conducted in an EFL classroom in South Korea. They indicated that when teachers adopt a monolingual stance on second language teaching to improve students' communicative competence, it may paradoxically result in reduced student engagement, particularly in terms of participation and cognitive involvement. Moreover, they found that some students with a low command of the English language experienced cognitive overload when teachers strictly adhered

to English-only instruction without explaining words or expressions in their L1. Most importantly, the authors emphasised the contradiction associated with English-only instruction and its aim to boost students' communicative competence. They argued that the policy might unintentionally hinder the communicative aspect of student learning by depriving learners of a crucial tool for communication, namely their native language, and preventing them from expressing themselves at an advanced and more intricate level (2013).

Additionally, Meyer (2008) asserted that the judicious use of L1 in the second language classroom can mitigate students' foreign language anxiety, boost students' comprehension of classroom materials, and ultimately increase their class participation. Mayer (2008) linked the use of L1 to Krashen's Monitor Model by arguing that L1 usage can reduce students' *Affective Filter* and offer a more *Comprehensible Input* (Krashen, 1981). The affective filter is a term coined by Krashen (1981) that describes a mental barrier between the learner and their environment, influenced by emotional factors such as anxiety and stress. Mayer (2008) also added that the use of L1 can boost students' learning by making the classroom input more comprehensible. Krashen (1981) emphasised the importance of comprehensible input for second language acquisition, explaining that it must be one step beyond the learner's current level.

Knowing that Krashen's Monitor Model considers L1 usage as a detrimental interference that hinders second language acquisition (1981), Mayer's study highlighted the contradiction between traditional second language theories, which are often underpinned by a monolingual bias and the dynamic bilingual/multilingual realities of the language classroom, where L1 usage proved to play a supportive role in second language learning (2008).

Additionally, Burden (2000) reflected on the consequences of the English-only policy, noting that the monolingual ideology caused him to associate the use of his first language with feelings of shame and inadequacy. In his early career, he described himself as a strong supporter of the English-only policy. However, he observed that alienating Japanese university students from their mother tongue led to feelings of isolation and disconnection from their teachers and the classroom.

Therefore, he sought students' opinions on L1 use to explore its effect on their engagement and enjoyment of learning. The findings showed that students preferred to use L1 when necessary to support their learning, enhance their intercultural and metalinguistic awareness, and reduce their stress.

Burden (2000) urged teachers to reflect on and discuss their own pedagogical practices with their students, as it could have a transformative impact on their teaching philosophy. He concluded that the English classroom should not be about establishing an English colony through the English-only policy. Instead, teachers should create a more humanising approach that values the students, their heritage, and their languages.

Among the other implications of the English-only policy is the promotion of monolingual Native English-Speaking Teachers (NESTs) in the field of ELT and the marginalisation of Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers (NNESTs) (Kerr, 2016). For instance, Yang and Jang (2022) documented that the British English Institute in Korea received some concerns from parents, students, and 'NESTs' for announcing the recruitment of Korean 'NNESTs', as it was assumed it would jeopardise the English-only policy. In response to these concerns, the directors of the institute consistently assured parents and 'NESTs' that the English-only policy would be enforced and that Korean bilingual teachers would only assist in facilitating communication between students and 'NESTs'.

Similarly, Kerr noted that many private schools in various contexts, including China and the United Arab Emirates, prefer monolingual 'NESTs' due to their tendency to adopt monolingual pedagogy, especially when the English-only policy is promoted as a key aspect of schools' marketing strategy (2016). Such practices illustrate how the English-only policy advances neoliberal agendas (Holborow, 2013), promoting the privatisation and marketisation of the educational system (Daghigh et al., 2022).

The connection between the English-only policy and neoliberal ideology is highlighted in the study by Alsaawi and Almulhim (2024), which found that many families in Saudi Arabia prefer to

enrol their children in private international schools due to their monolingual pedagogy. Alsaawi and Almulhim found that the families correlated the monolingual pedagogy with higher English proficiency and better future job opportunities in the competitive employment market (2024). The findings of Alsaawi and Almulhim's study reflect a market-driven approach to education, where English proficiency is viewed as a necessity for enhancing employability in a globalised job market, aligning with neoliberal ideologies that centre on the value of education in terms of economic gain (Barnawi, 2017).

The English-only mentality in education policy has been shown to influence local languages and cultural identities (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017; Le Ha & Barnawi, 2015; R'boul, 2022). For instance, the Saudi families in Alsaawi and Almulhim's study shared that the English-only policy could have a detrimental effect on Arabic and the students' cultural and Islamic identity (2024).

In higher education, Jenkins (2010) argued that the logic behind the English-only policy is highly questionable, particularly in an EFL context characterised by homogeneous groups like Saudi Arabia. Jenkins stated that "monolingualism essentially means I am asking my students to check their identities and life experiences at the door" (p. 460). Furthermore, he described the English only as an "uncongenial policy for Saudi Arabia's low-level learners" because the Saudi education policy advocates learning English for "instrumental purposes" while preserving local cultural language and identity (Jenkins, 2010, p. 640). Jenkins emphasised that the English-only policy negatively impacts students' learning, participation and identity formation (2010).

Another implication is the tension between the imposed top-down English policy and teachers' desire for more agency over their teaching. Wei and Lin noted that despite the efforts of researchers and practitioners to promote the benefits of multilingualism, tensions and conflicts persist between the natural multilingual practices of the classroom reality and the policies that dictate the English-only policy (2019). Similarly, Trent (2013) asserted that pre-service teachers in English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in China had reservations about the English-only policy. The author indicated that a top-down policy could lead to hostile relationships between teachers and other

stakeholders, such as school officials. To resolve this issue, the author advocated for a bottom-up approach that recognises teachers as active participants who have a significant impact on the education process.

To foster teachers' agency against the top-down policy that marginalises or bans their valuable dynamic linguistic practices and instigates unfair feelings of guilt, Garcia et al. (2021) advocated translanguaging as a transformative pedagogy against conventional ideologies.

As teachers, we have witnessed the absurdity of trying to teach only in English according to a curriculum formulated for the most part in narrow, white-Eurocentric terms, when in fact, our bilingual students were much more developed linguistically, but also historically, philosophically, geographically, politically, and scientifically [. . .] And we have witnessed the stigmatising effects of language policies in schools that work against the students' bilingualism, policies that are found even in bilingual and heritage language education programs (Garcia et al., 2021, p. 207).

2.2.4 The Monolingual Ideology in the Dominant Language Teaching Methodologies

Cummins (2007) concluded three dominant monolingual assumptions that have underpinned teaching methodologies and classroom policy in English language teaching. These assumptions include eliminating students' native languages from the classroom, enforcing a strict separation between the home language and the target language, and discouraging translation. Cook (2001) supported Cummins's (2007) argument by highlighting the monolingual underpinnings of two of the dominant methods in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT):

Communicative language teaching and task-based learning methods have no necessary relationship with the LI, yet, as we shall see, the only times that the LI is mentioned is when advice is given on how to minimise its use. The main

theoretical treatments of task-based learning do not, for example, have any locatable mentions of the classroom use of the LI. Most descriptions of methods portray the ideal classroom as having as little of the L1 as possible, essentially by omitting reference to it (Cook, 2001, p. 404).

The Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) are often viewed as teaching methodologies rooted in monolingual ideologies because they emphasise a direct approach to target language learning and focus solely on developing students' competence in the target language (East & Wang, 2024; Lowe, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2010; Garcia & Wei, 2014; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Nevertheless, Spada (2007) argued that there has been ongoing debate and uncertainty regarding whether the use of the LI aligns with the principles and practices of CLT. The author argued that seeing the CLT as a monolingual one is a misconception that could have naturally arisen from the practical ways teachers have chosen to implement CLT in some contexts (Spada, 2007). For instance, Wiley (2014) noted that in English-speaking Western countries like the United States, some teachers are monolingual and lack the necessary training to instruct linguistically varied students effectively. Therefore, they adopted a monolingual approach to compensate for their inability to speak their students' language. Conversely, in contexts where teachers share the same L1 with their students, some studies showed that translanguaging is compatible with CLT and TBLT methods (e.g., Aoyama, 2020; Seals et al., 2020).

Among the studies that advocate for finding a place for translanguaging within communicative language teaching is East and Wang (2024). The authors argued that the monolingual principle remains influential in many teaching methods, particularly the CLT and TBLT methods. Still, they also asserted that there are compelling reasons to find a place for translanguaging pedagogy within these methods, drawing on the positive pedagogical implications of this pedagogy and how it serves the principles of these methods.

To illustrate, Aoyama (2020) found that translanguaging promoted more profound understanding and engagement in language learning, aligning well with the principles of the CLT

method. The study was conducted in a Japanese high school, where the Japanese educational government advocates for the CLT method to develop students' communicative competence in English. The findings showed that translanguaging was employed effectively to discuss task instructions, inquire about specific language elements, facilitate the flow of discussions and create a more amicable atmosphere. Aoyama found that students' translanguaging was underpinned by their desire to better engage with the learning task, overcome the linguistic barrier when they failed to communicate in English, ultimately fostering a collaborative and communicative environment (2020).

When it comes to translanguaging in light of the TBLT, East (2025) suggested that the concept of translanguaging will begin to emerge in TBLT literature. Seals et al. (2020) noted that, despite their distinctive sociocultural and cognitive origins, TBLT and translanguaging share several guiding principles, reinforcing their alignment in language education. According to the authors, both TBLT and translanguaging emphasise collaboration among students, integrate content with language learning, promote active participation, foster learner-centred environments, and focus on functional, communicative language use relevant to learners' needs (Seals et al., 2020).

Moreover, Wang (2023) examined how translanguaging influences English learning among Chinese senior high school students within a task-based learning framework. The researcher observed how students used translanguaging to manage tasks and negotiate meaning in their group interactions. Wang (2023) concluded that students believed translanguaging enhanced their understanding and communication in English and their overall learning potential.

“Despite their different theoretical underpinnings and ideological perspectives” (Bui & Tai, 2022, p. 1), this section has shown that translanguaging shares many common grounds with TBLT and CLT (e.g., Aoyama, 2020; Bui & Tai, 2022; Wang, 2023). According to East and Wang, the compatibility between translanguaging and the dominant language teaching methods in recent studies challenges the monolingual principle. Moreover, it highlights the necessity for further research to

establish the role of translanguaging in advancing the communicative language teaching agenda (2024).

2.2.5 Factors Shaping Students' and Teachers' Perceptions of L1 Usage

Shin et al. (2020) advocated for adopting an ecological perspective when investigating the use of L1, taking into account the influence of sociocultural factors on shaping language choices in the classroom. Several studies have correlated the use of L1 with students' language proficiency, highlighting its vital role for students of lower levels (e.g., Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Dailey-O'Cain & Liebscher, 2009; Kohi & Lakshmi, 2020).

Another influential factor was reported by Shaaban and Ghaith (2003), who found that religion and past learning experiences can shape students' perceptions of languages. Considering that Arabic is the language of the holy Quran, they found that Lebanese university students from Muslim religious backgrounds had more positive attitudes toward their native language (Arabic) than non-Muslim students who speak the same native language. Additionally, a more significant proportion of Muslim students believed Arabic has practical applications in their social life compared to Christian students. On the other hand, Christian students were less concerned than Muslims about the impact of the different languages on their cultural identity. Additionally, most students preferred French or English as the language of instruction in science, technology, and business. Shaaban and Ghaith (2003) justified this preference by referring to students' previous school experiences where they learned math and science in French or English.

Furthermore, the linguistic homogeneity between the students can increase teachers' tendency to use L1. According to Meyer (2008), when teachers are dealing with linguistically homogeneous classes, using students' L1 becomes a more practical approach to second language teaching. Bruen and Kelly (2017) interviewed six professors specialising in Japanese and six lecturers specialising in German. The study was conducted in Ireland, where all the students speak English as their L1. The

findings revealed that all the lecturers favoured the careful utilisation of the L1 in specific situations, even if it was not their native language, because of its interpersonal and pedagogical benefits.

Iswati and Hadimulyono (2018) highlighted the impact of classroom context on L1 usage, emphasising the critical role of L1, particularly in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. Their argument was supported by other studies in EFL contexts, which showed the prioritisation of linguistic competence over communicative competence in preparing students for their assessments; in this sense, using L1 scaffolds facilitates students' learning of vocabulary and grammar (Al-Nouh, 2008; Rao, 2013).

Additionally, Moore (2013) added another significant factor by confirming that students' collaborative work influences L1 usage. Moore (2013) demonstrated that Japanese university students with higher proficiency levels used more of their native language when interacting with peers who had lower proficiency levels, compared to those with equivalent competence levels. Such findings indicate that the use of L1 is intricate and influenced by complex variables.

2.2.6 Cognitive Strategies for Second Language Learning

Adults' second language learning is different from first language acquisition because prior language knowledge and cross-linguistic influence shape how adults learn and use an additional language (McManus, 2021). Still, the “two solitudes assumption” has shaped bilingual and immersion programs, emphasising that the two languages should be kept strictly separate (Cummins, 2007). Exploring cognitive learning strategies among second-language learners reveals that they naturally draw on cross-language association as a learning strategy (e.g., Bukhari, 2017; Moore, 2013; Shin et al., 2020; Gass, 2020). Moreover, several empirical studies have concluded that code switching and translation offer pedagogical benefits (e.g., Liao, 2006; Moore, 2013; Smagul, 2024). Still, the call for re-examining the monolingual should not be seen as a regression to the traditional grammar-translation method (Cummins, 2007). Instead, it urges a re-evaluation of monolingual

pedagogy, as it comes out of sync with the dynamic, bilingual cognitive strategies of second language learning (Garcia & Wei, 2017).

Several studies have affirmed that dynamic linguistic practices and crosslinguistic connections are inevitable among second-language learners (e.g., Gass et al., 2020; McManus, 2021). Widdowson (2003) confirmed that students tend to "keep the two languages in contact" (p. 150). That makes sense because emergent bilinguals already possess solid linguistic competence in their native language, which influences their second language learning (Bransford et al., 2000). In the same vein, Shin et al. added that even in situations where students appear to adhere to the English-only policy, the use of L1 is inevitable in students' collaborative work. They sometimes internally engage in cognitive processes of using their existing knowledge in L1 as a hidden tool to acquire the target language. Instances of these cognitive processes include private speech and inner voice (2020).

To conclude, examining students' learning strategies in a second-language classroom reveals that L1 and L2 are not separate, monolithic entities, and that students actively engage with both languages to navigate their learning journey (e.g., Bruen & Kelly, 2017; Gass et al., 2020; McManus, 2021). Nevertheless, the monolingual ideology acts on the assumption that second language learning should follow the model of first language acquisition with no interference from students' L1 (Cook, 2001). The dominance of the monolingual approach persists, discouraging or prohibiting students and instructors from using the students' native language in ways that are really based on sound pedagogical principles (McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Subsequently, second-language classrooms have been subject to unfair marginalising, stigmatising, or banning of students' dynamic bilingual practices (Garcia et al., 2021).

2.2.7 Conclusion

This first section of the literature review examined monolingual ideology in relation to policy and pedagogy in the field of ELT, concluding that this standard ideology is more of an assumption than a true reflection of the dynamic bilingual/multilingual realities of the classroom. Institutional

policies largely uphold the monolingual ideology, either implicitly or explicitly, resulting in several negative implications and limiting teachers' ability to have more agency over their teaching. Moreover, the monolingual ideology also manifests itself in the dominant teaching methodologies, such as the communicative and task-based language teaching methods, which frequently overlook the role of L1 in second language learning. Still, there is an increasing amount of research highlighting that these methods are not fixed but subject to different interpretations across contexts. The chapter reviewed the role of translanguaging in advancing the educational goals of communicative and task-based approaches, drawing on several empirical studies. This trend highlights the need to reassess monolingual pedagogy and advocate for translanguaging as a flexible and contextually situated approach within the recommended framework of the CLT method.

2.3 Native-speakerism

2.3.1 Introduction

This section critically examines the native speakerist ideology. Another standard ideology closely intertwined with monolingual ideology, as “the ‘perfect’ native speaker is assumed to speak ‘their’ language’ without ‘contamination’ from other languages” (Truan, 2024, p. 40). This section highlights the relationship between the ‘native speaker model’, neoliberal ideologies, and the standardisation of communicative-task-based teaching methods. Additionally, it explores teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speaker dichotomy and illustrates how native speakerist ideology results in the standardisation of Anglo-American language varieties. This analysis highlights the complexities and biases inherent in language teaching practices and seeks to deconstruct the native speakerist ideology.

2.3.2 Defining the Native Speaker of a Language

The literature on the definitions of ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ speakers shows a lively debate, as different assumptions about what makes someone a ‘native speaker’ of a language arise from varied interpretations of the term (e.g., Davies, 2004; Lowe, 2020; Burr, 2015). This explains why Davies (2004) described the ‘native speaker’ concept as “rich in ambiguity” (p. 432). Perhaps the most well-known description of a ‘native speaker’ is the “bio-developmental definition” by Davies (1994, p. 156). It attributes the label to the first language an individual learns to speak early in childhood. In this sense, the label is a fixed historical fact that cannot be claimed by any individual who learns a language as a second language later in life. Similarly, Cook (1999) added that the defining factor in determining a ‘native speaker’ of a language is that they learned it as their first language. He described other traits as secondary and descriptive of an individual's proficiency in using the language. Moreover, Davies (2004) offered a more nuanced definition of the term by outlining six key characteristics that shape the conventional understanding of what it means to be a ‘native speaker.’ These characteristics include:

- 1-Language acquisition: 'Native speakers' acquire their first language (L1) during childhood.
- 2-Intuitive grammar: They possess intuitions about their "idiolectal grammar" in terms of acceptability and productivity (p. 4.35). In Davis's (2004) discussion around the 'native speaker's' idiolectal grammar, the author refers to the unique set of grammatical rules and patterns that an individual speaker develops based on their personal experiences, language exposure, and social interactions. This concept emphasises that each person's language use is distinct, shaped by their specific context and background, rather than strictly adhering to a standardised language system.
- 3-Standard language awareness: They are aware of features of the standard language that differ from their own idiolectal grammar.
- 4-Fluency and discourse: They can produce fluent, spontaneous discourse with minimal pauses, benefiting from a vast memory of lexical items, and demonstrate a broad communicative competence.
- 5-Creative writing: They have the ability to write creatively across various genres, from jokes to novels.
- 6-Interpretation and translation: They can interpret and translate into their L1, with disputes about their abilities often arising from differing standards of the language.

Davies added that "all traits [of native speakers] except that of early childhood exposure are contingent" (p.436). In this case, the challenge relies on mastering the "discourse and pragmatic control of a native speaker." Unlike 'native speakers' who learn their first language from childhood, adult 'non-native speakers' miss the early "access to the resources of the culture attached to the language." Therefore, the author argued that "non-native speakers will have a hard time, though not an impossible time, obtaining the status of a native speaker" (Davies, 2004, p. 436).

On the other hand, Lowe (2020) argued that it would be meaningless to deny someone ownership of the language despite meeting all the characteristics that define a 'native speaker' just because they did not learn it as their first language. The classifications that prioritise an individual's biological or ethnolinguistic affiliation with a language highlight that such classifications simplify

identities as fixed. When in reality, the two labels ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ are complex and linked to a wide variety of ‘socially-determined factors such as race, nationality, class, and self-identity’ (Lowe, 2020, p. 23). Burr (2015) extended the argument by adding that the label ‘native speaker’ is “a product not of objective observation of the world, but of the social processes and interactions in which people are constantly engaged with each other” (p. 15). In other words, it is more about the “relationships between linguistic standardisation, ‘native speaker’ status, linguistic power and prestige” (Lowe, 2020, p. 17).

Moreover, knowing that defining the ‘native speaker’ is an intricate process influenced by various factors, it is worth mentioning that the use of the labels 'native speaker' and 'non-native speaker' in this thesis is not used as a dichotomy to categorise people in binary classification based on their competence or their first language. Instead, the terms are used as ideological constructs in the context of native speakerism, an ideology underpinned by prejudices against individuals, pedagogy, and language varieties outside the English-dominant speaking countries (Holliday, 2018). The use of quotation marks around the labels corresponds to Holliday's (2006) method of addressing the discourse under question in order to invalidate it.

2.3.3 Native-speakerism: Definition and Implications

Native speakerism is a standard language ideology that is “often closely related to assumptions of proper standards of English” and “correct pedagogy” as seen to be embodied by the ‘native speaker’ and the institutions of the English-speaking Western countries (Lowe, 2020, pp. 23,57). Although acceptance and opposition to the native speakerist ideology occur to varying extents in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), the concept of the 'native speaker' ideal has a significant influence both within and outside English-speaking Western countries (Holliday, 2006). This ideology is evident in different aspects of professional and everyday life, from hiring practices and teachers’ salaries to perceptions around language ownership and privileging certain English language varieties over others (Lowe, 2020). The explicit manifestation of the ‘native speaker’ bias is

clearly seen in discriminatory practices in job applications and negative language used within the profession, which can lead to lower teaching evaluations (Lee & Canagarajah, 2019). The preferential treatment of 'native speakers' in hiring practices confirms the point made by Canagarajah (2013) regarding the irony of an educational system that equips individuals with a profession while simultaneously disqualifying them from it.

Countering native-speakerism requires confronting the biases ingrained in everyday practices and the stereotypes of other cultures as reliant, conventional, and submissive (Holliday, 2006). Holliday et al. (2015) emphasised the need to challenge "othering discourses" that reinforce the notion of a homogeneous group of "native speakers" and marginalise teachers and students from non-English-speaking Western countries (p. 136). They emphasised the significance of cultural belief, advocating for recognition of the contributions of all individuals, regardless of the labels of 'native' or 'non-native.' Another way of countering the native speakerism ideology is challenging the standard language and the monolingual approach to language learning, which renders bilingualism or multilingualism as a deficiency rather than an asset, resulting in the continued privileging of 'Native English Speaking Teachers' (NESTs) (Fang, 2018).

2.3.4 Critiques of Holliday's Perspective on Native-speakerism

The prevailing and much-referenced understanding of native-speakerism continues to be what Holliday (2006) proposed as "the belief that 'native speaker' teachers represent a 'Western culture' from which spring the ideals both of the English language and of English language teaching methodology" (p. 385). By centring the ideology on the 'western' and 'non-western' dichotomy, Rivers (2018) criticised the definition for lacking specificity, relying on "a universalist one-sized-fits-all template that is unable to consider, explain or account for localised differences within and across contexts in which various languages and perceived and/or actual powers intersect" (as cited in Jenks & Lee, 2020a, p. 5).

Rivers (2017) argued that the concept of native-speakerism, as proposed by Holliday (2006), has its shortcomings in exacerbating the persistence of another kind of discrimination between 'Native English Speaking Teachers' (NESTs) and Non-Native English Speaking Teachers' (NNESTs), namely "linguicism" (p. 74), defined as "ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, regulate and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources between groups which are defined on the basis of language" (Skutnabb-Kangas, 1989, p. 13).

Rivers (2017) argued that Holliday's concept restricts the desired position of being a victim and the associated discourse of moral justice to only those who identify as 'non-native speakers.' To overcome this issue, Houghton and Rivers (2013) called for redefining native-speakerism as "prejudice, stereotyping, and/or discrimination, typically by or against foreign language teachers, on the basis of either being or not being perceived and categorised as a native speaker of a particular language" (p. 14). Unlike Holliday's perspective, which emphasises the 'native' and 'non-native' dichotomy, Houghton and Rivers (2013) prioritised pedagogical expertise over linguistic origin. They argued that effective language teaching requires a deep understanding of language learning processes, intercultural communication, and diverse learning contexts, regardless of the teacher's native language. Moreover, they emphasised that a teacher's ability to create a supportive and engaging learning environment is more important than their linguistic background.

In response to the ongoing discussion of native speakerism, Holiday's (2018) recent definition addresses the impact of this ideology on all teachers, regardless of their 'nativeness' and highlights the problematic implications of the 'native' and 'non-native' dichotomy.

A neoracist ideology that has a wide-ranging impact on how teachers are perceived by each other and by their students. By labelling teachers as separate "native speakers" and "non-native speakers," it falsely positions them as culturally superior and inferior with separate roles and attributes (Holliday, 2018, p. 1).

In addition to Holliday's efforts to deconstruct native-speakerism, the field of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) has also seen a significant initiative from a

collective of 'non-native' scholars known as the *Non-Native Speakers Movement* (Braine, 2010). According to Braine (2010), who is a prominent figure in this movement, its goal is to advocate for the recognition and empowerment of 'NNESTs' in the field of English language teaching. This movement seeks to challenge the dominance of native-speakerism, promote the value of diverse linguistic backgrounds, and emphasise the professional competence of 'non-native' speakers in teaching contexts. It aims to foster a more inclusive understanding of language proficiency and teaching effectiveness.

However, the non-native speakers' movement has been critiqued by some scholars, including Lee and Canagarajah (2019), for its tendency to essentialise identities. "Though intended to overturn the hierarchy, the continued use of the binary reifies the underlying ideologies promoting language nativity and ownership" (Lee & Canagarajah, 2019, p. 1). The authors argued that the movement is based on a binary framework that perpetuates monolingual ideas. Thus, they called for transcending this dichotomy by embracing "translingual dispositions," which provide a more nuanced understanding of teachers' identities and actions.

On a similar note, Kramersch and Zhang (2018) raised the question of whether the traditional distinction between 'native' and 'non-native' speakers is still the most relevant when teaching a foreign language. They argued that the more pertinent difference today lies between monolingual and multilingual instructors, highlighting the widespread use of English. Kramersch and Zhang (2018) advocated for recognising the value of multilingual teachers, particularly their abilities to navigate diverse linguistic and cultural landscapes regardless of their native language. Another interesting perspective on the topic was shared by Ellis (2016) in the article titled "*I May Be a Native Speaker, but I Am Not Monolingual: Reimagining All Teachers' Linguistic Identities in TESOL.*" The author urged investigating teachers' linguistic identities throughout their whole linguistic repertoire rather than the 'native' 'non-native' dichotomy, which fails to capture their various and complex identities. According to Ellis (2016), this could bridge the unproductive barrier between 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs'

and help the profession acknowledge the “plurilingual multi-competencies of all TESOL educators” (Ellis, 2016, p. 597).

2.3.5 The Monolingual Native Speaker as a Reference Point in ELT

Challenging the monolingual bias and the native speakerism in Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has been particularly difficult because doing so threatens the established identity of the discipline (Ortega, 2019). Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) are frequently seen as methodologies based on monolingual ideologies. This perception arises from their emphasis on a direct approach to learning the target language and their exclusive focus on enhancing students' proficiency in that language (East & Wang, 2024; Lowe, 2020; Nguyen et al., 2010; Garcia & Wei, 2014; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Moreover, language teaching pedagogy has frequently neglected or actively suppressed bilingual and multilingual approaches, instead promoting a predominantly monolingual policy (Portoles & Marti, 2020). Subsequently, students' use of their first language has been viewed as a policy violation and described as negative interference (Cenoz & Gorter, 2020). This narrow focus limits learners' linguistic potential and fails to acknowledge the rich diversity of language use in real-world contexts (Gundarina & Simpson, 2022). By not embracing bilingualism and multilingualism, educational practices miss the opportunity to foster a more inclusive and effective learning environment that reflects the realities of global communication (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021; Fang & Xu, 2024).

According to Hall and Cook, the field of ELT is still based on the outdated assumptions, although not explicitly stated, that the purpose of language teaching is to equip students with the ability to communicate with their ‘native speakers’ and to imitate the language usage of native speakers as closely as possible. This led to a destructive impact on the standing of ‘NNESTs’ and second English language learners by impeding the students’ formation of bilingual identities and enforcing the monolingual native speaker as a standard reference. Particularly when “not all native

speaker English is widely comprehensible, stylistically diverse, literate or eloquent” (Hall & Cook, 2012, p. 273).

To overcome the monolingual and native speakerist ideology within the classroom, Cook urged going beyond the ‘native speaker’ model and fostering students’ bilingual identities. This can be achieved by viewing second-language learners as legitimate English language speakers (1999). To achieve this transformative shift in perspective, Cook suggested inspiring second language learners with competent bilingual models rather than attempting to mimic ‘native speakers.’ This change of mindset away from the idealisation of the monolingual ‘native speaker’ involves employing pedagogical approaches that recognise and include the student's first language (1999) and acknowledging the lived experiences of bilingual and multilingual individuals (Garcia et al., 2021; Tavares, 2024; Wei, 2021).

2.3.6 Standard Language Ideologies in the Context of Postcolonialism

English is spoken as a global language in a multicultural/multilingual world, where it often serves as a lingua franca and includes various forms and varieties in the context of world Englishes (Crystal, 2003; Seidlhofer, 2005). Still, standard language ideologies have continued to marginalise ‘non-native’ speakers and the various varieties of the language, reinforcing the misconception that only native speakers possess the authentic or correct form of English (Cushing, 2021). This linguistic inequity has led many educators to examine how colonial histories and power dynamics have shaped language education practices and policies (e.g., Canagarajah, 1999; Canagarajah, 2000; Pennycook, 2017; Phillipson, 1992).

One of the most influential works that has addressed the relationship between language and power is that of Phillipson (1992). He argued that the monolingual and native speakerist bias have maintained their influence at the heart of language teaching as two of the main propagated ideologies in the context of linguistic imperialism. The concept of linguistic imperialism centres on language and power, with the dominance of English seen as a result of new colonial forces moving from the

centre to peripheral countries (Phillipson, 1992). Lowe (2020) explained that the term centre in Phillipson's work refers to the politically dominant English-speaking Western countries, which play a key role in shaping and distributing the standards of the ELT field. Conversely, the periphery refers to countries that hold less political and economic power, where English is spoken as a second or foreign language. According to Phillipson (1992), institutions like the British Council engage in disguised neocolonial ventures and promote monolingual and native-speaker fallacies to promote economic and cultural homogeneity of the centre over the periphery countries (Phillipson, 1992).

In this sense, the promotion of the monolingual native speaker model is among the principal agendas of linguistic imperialism, causing structural, cultural, and language inequality in the ELT industry (Holliday et al., 2015; Pennycook, 2007; Phillipson, 1992). "Addressing linguistic imperialism is crucial in promoting social justice and preserving cultural heritage in an increasingly interconnected world" (Lukianenko, 2024, p. 41). Among the broad sociolinguistic, cultural and economic implications of linguistic imperialism is enforcing linguistic inequity, hindering the educational and career aspirations of 'non-native' speakers and fostering discrimination or bias based on language proficiency (Ullah & Akram, 2023). Additionally, linguistic imperialism perpetuates a form of linguistic hegemony that privileges inner circle countries and their interests, creating an implicit obstacle for 'non-native' speakers, mainly in the fields where English is seen as the default (e.g., business, science) (Lukianenko, 2024).

Nevertheless, Canagarajah (1999) argued that the discussion around linguistic imperialism tends to overlook the diverse and complex socio-cultural dynamics, particularly in peripheral contexts. To bridge this gap, Canagarajah (1999) employed a micro-social approach that highlights instances of cultural resistance against the dominant influence of the centre in periphery settings. Using ethnographic methods, he explored how Anglo-American teaching methodologies often prove ineffective, or at least questionable, in his home country of Sri Lanka. In his book *Resisting Linguistic Imperialism*, he encouraged teachers and students in these contexts to develop critical awareness and challenge oppressive structures. Furthermore, he argued that they should not only

resist imposed ideologies and Anglo-American methods but also adapt English to meet their own linguistic and local needs.

Pennycook (2017) agreed with Phillipson (1992) in contending that the global spread of English and its persistent significance in education, along with its social and economic impacts, are inherently connected to power dynamics. Moreover, Pennycook acknowledged that concepts such as world Englishes and English as a lingua franca, along with Phillipson's work on linguistic imperialism, have provided important frameworks in recent decades. Nevertheless, Pennycook doubted that such frameworks can recognise the significance of regional context and urged educators to employ context-based pedagogy, value students' rich linguistic repertoire and engage in critical discourse on the motives for learning English, the pedagogical approaches employed, and the instructional materials provided (2017).

Nowadays, the discourse around language and power has evolved from linguistic imperialism to a focus on neoliberalism (Ali & Hamid, 2022; Barnawi, 2017; R'boul, 2022). The global prominence of English persists, but it should not be viewed solely through the framework of linguistic imperialism, which highlights the covert neocolonial strategies of English-speaking Western countries to promote the monolingual native speaker ideal for furthering their economic and cultural hegemony (Phillipson, 1992). The rise of English as a dominant language in today's world is more closely tied to the neoliberal ideology that originated in the United Kingdom (UK) and the United States (U.S.) (Daghigh et al., 2022). As mentioned in section (1.6.2), neoliberalism is a political and economic ideology that emphasises privatisation, internationalisation of higher education, and the development of human capital (Barnawi, 2017).

Within the neoliberal shift, English has become a necessity and a tool for global engagement and individuals' success (Daghigh et al., 2022). In this context, the dominance of English is not necessarily a result of being an imposed linguistic imperial power, as suggested in Phillipson's work. Instead, the English language is actively sought after as the language of international business, trade, and finance (Ullah & Akram, 2023).

Nevertheless, the dominance of the English language, whether in the context of linguistic imperialism or neoliberalism, reflects unequal power dynamics (Daghigh et al., 2022; Lukianenko, 2024). Neoliberalism can promote an English-only mentality, reinforcing the perception that success aligns with the norms of English-speaking Western countries (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017). In light of the neoliberal ideology, “achieving ‘near-native’ proficiency is tied to self-marketability” (Tavares, 2024, p. 3047). This dynamic ultimately perpetuates monolingual and native speakerist ideologies, posing challenges to linguistic diversity and equity in the global south (Ali & Hamid, 2022; R’boul, 2022).

2.3.7 Normativity of the Communicative-Task-Based Teaching Methods

As mentioned earlier, the discourse of othering and cultural disbelief regarding the contributions of individuals from other countries plays a key role in native-speakerism (Holliday et al., 2015). The concept of the idealised 'native speaker' is strongly associated with the “methodological standardisation” of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) methods, whereas other local approaches to English language teaching in the Expanding and Outer Circles are portrayed as inadequate and requiring improvement (Lowe, 2020, p. 65)

The normativity of CLT and TBLT methods can be viewed through a critical neoliberal lens. According to Daghigh et al., the widespread popularity of English has significantly increased the demand for English language teaching and related services, resulting in a substantial market for language schools, publishers, and testing institutions. Specifically, organisations from the Global North, particularly those based in the UK and the U.S., where neoliberal policies originated, enhance their profits by promoting their teaching methodologies and materials, turning education into a commodity rather than a public good (2022).

In the case of Saudi Arabia, Barnawi and Al-Hawsawi (2017) noted that the neoliberal shift influences the Saudi higher education system, as it relies heavily on the products and pedagogy of

English-speaking Western countries without considering “the role of critical consumers and responsible producers” (p. 2016). This knowledge dependency is problematic as it creates a sense of inferiority, impacts the country’s national cultural identity (Le Ha, 2013; Le Ha & Barnawi, 2015), and reinforces an “English-only mentality” of English education and its policy in the kingdom (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017, p. 216).

The transfer of the CLT and TBLT methods to the Outer and Expanding Circles has shown several constraints, questioning their alleged normativity and suitability to diverse cultural settings (e.g., Rao, 2013; Abahussain, 2016; Whitehead, 2017). According to Kumaravadivelu (2006, as cited in Holliday et al., 2015), the criticism around CLT and TBLT methods in many contexts reflects “a classic case of a centrally produced pedagogy that is out of sync with local linguistic, sociocultural, and political particularities” (p. 64). Similar arguments were raised by Holliday (1994), and Kramsch and Sullivan (1996), who asserted that education is intricately connected to a specific cultural context and that effective teaching methods are socially developed within that context. McMillan and Rivers (2011) argued that teachers should focus on what is practical in the classroom, specifically their local strategies that incorporate L1, in contrast to the English-only policy. McMillan and Rivers advocated basing classroom policy on classroom reality and the most recent and reliable research advocating bilingual reform. Most importantly, policymakers should assist teachers in their roles as active agents in the education process by recognising the importance of their local knowledge in scaffolding their students’ learning (2011).

The literature incorporates rich examples of teachers who question the supremacy and efficiency of CLT and TBLT methods in their contexts (e.g., Skilton-Sylvester, 2003; Swan, 2015; Wiese, 2001). Those teachers have demonstrated the agency to counter monolingual and native speakerist ideologies in their teaching approaches by prioritising local knowledge, students' needs, and linguistic diversity. Canagarajah has described these acts as strategies of appropriation and resistance (Canagarajah, 1999; Canagarajah, 2000). Canagarajah (1999; 2000) contended that from the inception of colonialism, acts of resistance have consistently emerged, not necessarily as grand

strategies of opposition but rather as "simple acts of false compliance, parody, pretence, and mimicking." These actions function as "strategies by which the marginalised detach themselves from the ideologies of the powerful, retain a measure of critical thinking, and gain some sense of control over their lives in an oppressive situation" (Canagarajah, 2000, p. 122).

For instance, Rao (2013) found that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in China encountered many obstacles while using the CLT method. These obstacles included the washback effect, or, in other words, the influence of standardised testing on teaching practices, in which tests do not measure communicative skills but emphasise linguistic competence (e.g., grammar, reading, and writing). In such a context, adopting the CLT can contribute to a disconnect between the classroom, which focuses on students' communicative competence, and the assessment methods used in exams, which do not adequately test communicative skills. Another obstacle is the large class sizes, which make it difficult to provide authentic materials for all students. Additionally, a further obstacle stems from traditional expectations regarding the teacher's central role in class interactions. Students in China may feel confused by CLT, as they are more familiar with traditional approaches that emphasise intensive reading, grammar instruction, and expect the teachers to lead the classroom conversation. Rao concluded that teachers in China and other EFL contexts cannot rely solely on the CLT method to meet their students' needs. Instead, they should adopt a more responsive, localised teaching approach based on specific strategies, including translation in both directions (from and into the target language) and deductive grammar instruction (2013).

Similar findings were found in Saudi Arabia, where Abahussain (2016) aimed to explore the perceptions of twelve schoolteachers regarding the CLT method. The findings revealed that teachers were less confident in the suitability of this method to their context due to some contextual and sociocultural constraints. The contextual factors are mainly related to examination requirements, which stress linguistic competence over communicative competence and classroom structure. Secondly, socio-cultural factors included the conventional perspective of teachers as the authority figure in the classroom and the standing of the English language in the Saudi context. Abahussain

(2016) noted that while most Saudis highly value the English language, some still perceive it as an attack on their native tongue and an effort to alter Saudi culture and identity. Moreover, the author referred to the inevitable influence of the Arabic language in the Saudi EFL classroom. Therefore, the teachers in Abahussain's study were inclined towards contextually based teaching, using Arabic for metalinguistic purposes, such as translating new vocabulary and comparing English to Arabic syntax, to facilitate students' understanding (2016).

However, it is essential to mention that criticising the overarching normativity of the CLT method does not mean denying its positive aspects. The systematic review by Qasserras (2023) highlighted its effectiveness in enhancing students' autonomy, communicative competence, cultural awareness, reasoning skills, and problem-solving capacity. Still, the author acknowledged that the CLT method has limitations, and many of the challenges surrounding its applications come from contexts where English is a foreign language (Qasserras, 2023). Despite recognising the limitations of CLT, it is not simply a matter of choosing one method over the other; instead, a more nuanced approach is needed. "No single teaching method, so far, can be expected to deal with everything that concerns the form, use, and content of the target language" (Rao, 2013, p. 37). Alternatively, establishing a balanced integration of instructional methods that emphasise communication while recognising and addressing restrictions is essential for effective language learning (Qasserras, 2023).

The successful implementation of the CLT method in EFL contexts could start by addressing the constraints surrounding its successful implementation, including bridging the gap between the institutional exams that solely focus on linguistic competence, reducing classroom size, and improving the curriculum design to include more authentic and interactive tasks (Abahussain, 2016; Rao, 2013). Most importantly, Whitehead (2017) asserted that students' resistance to CLT in Korea could result from strict rules against the use of their L1. The author urged teachers to have the agency to counter the monolingual ideology and suggested several practical strategies to enhance the effectiveness of the CLT method in the EFL classroom, including encouraging students to discuss activities in their L1 and allowing them time to prepare in their L1 before switching to L2.

Such observations offer a promising foundation for translanguaging as a flexible and contextually situated pedagogy within the recommended framework of the CLT method. “Flexible weak versions of pedagogic approaches, which encourage teacher variation within a recommended framework, have a much better chance of helping teachers to help their learners to learn” (Tomlinson, 2005, p. 143). It also highlights the need for policymakers to have explicit language policies that value bilingualism and incentivise contextually based teaching practices in language education. In this sense, translanguaging can serve as a flexible and contextually based pedagogy within the framework of CLT, as explained in section (2.2.4).

2.3.8 ‘Nonnative’ English-Speaking Teachers’ Professional Identities

Teacher identity is a "fluid and multifaceted process persistently shaped by discursive negotiations, classroom practices, and sociocultural factors" (Golzar, 2020, p. 16). Investigating empirical research around the professional identities of ‘NNESTs’ proves the native speakerist ideology to be “context-dependent” (Nomura & Mochizuki, 2018, p. 1). Thus, understanding teachers’ stance on native-speakerism in a particular environment requires awareness of the relevant contextual factors that shape teachers’ identities. Another important observation is the role of teachers' awareness of paradigms, such as world Englishes and English as a lingua franca, in countering the native speakerist ideology and critically examining the assumptions surrounding the ownership of the language (Huang, 2019).

Swan (2015) worked with fifteen ‘NNESTs’ from China, India, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, and Vietnam to explore how they perceive their professional identities. The findings revealed that the ideology is less evident in countries where English is not the official language, as the teachers appeared to be free from the native speaker bias. The author highlighted two crucial contextual factors that shaped the teachers' stance on native-speakerism. First, the fact that the teachers worked in their own countries has granted them a great sense of belonging to their work environment. Therefore, the teachers did not experience inferiority or marginalisation like in other

contexts. On the contrary, they had confidence and reassurance driven by their local knowledge and understanding of their students' needs.

Similarly, Huang (2019) supported the conclusion of the previous study, finding that the Chinese English as a second language (ESL) teachers in their study base their professional identities on their teaching expertise and cultural bonds with students, rather than on the idealised native speaker status. A notable observation is that both studies were conducted in research settings where the teachers worked in their country of origin. This highlights the importance of teachers' sense of belonging in empowering them against native-speakerism and diminishing feelings of marginalisation. The 'NNESTs' in Huang's study managed to create good professional identities despite the disempowering discourse of native-speakerism, which made them believe they were less linguistically competent than 'NESTs.' Still, the participants challenged the dominant ideology and established a more balanced power dynamic with their 'NEST' counterparts. They achieved this primarily by having confidence in their teaching abilities, effectively relating and communicating with students through their sociocultural and linguistic bonds, seeing themselves as role models for second language learning, and possessing a deeper understanding of students' learning difficulties.

On the other hand, Bae (2015) explained that native-speakerism is deeply rooted among some 'NNESTs' in Korea, leading to feelings of inferiority and self-doubt. She claimed that this ideology has had a firm ground in Korea and is traced back to American financial help to the affected Koreans during the Korean Civil War in 1950. The author shared her story of being a 'NNEST' from Korea, teaching students from different backgrounds in a summer camp in England. She assumed that her students "would expect to have an English native teacher with a proper appearance. My Asian appearance made it all too obvious I was a non-native English teacher." (Bae, 2015, p. 77). Nevertheless, Bae was surprised by the parents' and students' positive recognition of her linguistic and professional competence. The findings of her study indicate that others' recognition could be an influential social factor in shaping the professional identities of 'NNESTs.'

2.3.9 Students' Perceptions Towards 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs'

Research investigating students' perspectives towards 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs' reveals some recurring themes. Some students often exhibit bias towards the 'native speaker' model, particularly seeing the 'NEST' as a representation of the target culture and a role model of fluency, accent, and pronunciation (e.g., Butler, 2007; Fitria, 2023). However, the native speaker ideology diminishes when students prioritise instructors' teaching competence over their nativeness (e.g., Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017; Wang & Fang, 2020). Moreover, the literature review shows that students assign distinct educational and interpersonal benefits to each group (e.g., Fauzi & Hashim, 2020; Mahboob, 2004). This can be interpreted as countering native-speakerism and valuing teachers' cultural and pedagogical contributions regardless of their nativeness.

For instance, the study by Mahboob (2004) revealed that adult ESL students in the US transcended the 'native' and 'non-native' dichotomy and valued their teachers based on their pedagogical skills and interpersonal characteristics. While students valued their 'NESTs' for their effectiveness in teaching oral and conversational skills, they also favoured 'NNESTs' for teaching reading skills and grammar. Other interpersonal factors included valuing the 'NNESTs' for their ability to understand the challenges of second language learning.

Similar findings were reported by Wang and Fang (2020), who found that Chinese university students acknowledged the pedagogical and interpersonal contributions of 'NNESTs' and 'NESTs'. The students valued 'NESTs' for their linguistic competence and the 'NNESTs' for their past English language experience. Most importantly, 62.26% of students were free from the native speaker bias and thought both 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs' to be legitimate and competent English teachers. Additionally, Wang and Fang incorporated four 'NNESTs' from China and Brazil to explore their stance on native speakerism. The authors concluded that the significant influence of native-speakerism is not prominently observed in their research context. The distinction between 'native' and 'non-native' English-speaking teachers is no longer entirely relevant. Therefore, Wang and Fang

suggested moving beyond the 'native' and 'non-native' dichotomy and valuing teachers' professional expertise and abilities instead of their 'nativeness' (2020).

In the context of the current study, Alghofaili and Elyas (2017) concluded that the nativeness and backgrounds of teachers did not have a significant impact on the learning processes of Saudi university students. Still, they found that a teacher's accent could play a role in students' preferences. The students tended to prefer teachers with familiar accents, such as American and British, or teachers who share the same native language as their students (Saudi-accented English).

Contrary to previous studies, which showed native-speakerism to be not prevalent in specific contexts (e.g., Alghofaili & Elyas, 2017; Wang & Fang, 2020), Butler's (2007a) study investigated the impact of Korean elementary school teachers' accents on their students' listening comprehension. It also investigated students' perceptions of 'NESTs' with an American accent and 'NNESTs' who spoke English with a Korean accent. The study's findings did not reveal significant disparities in student performance regarding listening comprehension. Nevertheless, the students preferred the 'NESTs,' particularly for their American accents, and perceived them to demonstrate superior pronunciation and higher confidence in their English proficiency. Several studies have demonstrated that accents and dialects have a significant impact on listeners' perception of speakers (e.g., Fishman, 2017; Giles et al., 1995; McKirnan & Hamayan, 1984). This impact is context dependent as people's perceptions of speakers' accents might vary depending on the context (Cargile, 1997).

2.3.10 The Attributed Superiority of the Anglo-American Varieties of the English Language

The attributed superiority of Anglo-American varieties of the English language reflects deeper societal beliefs and power dynamics that extend beyond mere linguistic features (Burr, 2015). This perception often hinges on historical, cultural, and socio-economic influences, positioning these forms of English as the dominant standards in global communication (Lowe, 2020). Such a hierarchy not only shapes attitudes toward language proficiency and identity among non-native speakers but also impacts educational practices within English Language Teaching (ELT) (Holliday, 2006). As the

English language continues to evolve, it is crucial to critically examine the assumptions surrounding these varieties and promote a more equitable understanding of English's diverse forms in our interconnected world.

“The notion of standard varieties of language becomes problematic as it violates the core principle of language as a pluricentric living organism in constant evolution” (Leon, 2018, p. 25). Standard varieties are often idealised, leading students to associate authenticity with the dominant Anglo-American varieties (Lowe & Pinner, 2016). Subsequently, some ‘non-native’ speakers “feel that their own variety is inferior” and that they are less competent as language teachers (Holliday et al., 2015, p. 187). Lowe argued that the assertion that certain varieties of English are inherently 'superior' to others lacks linguistic justification. However, it reflects the power dynamics between English-speaking Western countries and those where new forms of English have emerged. Such dynamics often stem from historical, social, and economic factors, rather than any intrinsic qualities of the language itself (2020). The popularity of Anglo-American varieties can be attributed to the role of the media, popular culture and textbooks in disseminating these forms of English globally (Pennycook, 2002; Evans & Imai, 2011; Holliday et al., 2015). Despite the paradigm shift in the ELT field to match the new sociolinguistic landscape of today's global world, the native speaker model is widely regarded as the language's most popular and desirable variety (Kawabata, 2022; Lowe, 2020).

Jenkins (2009) attributed the native speakerist ideology among teachers and learners in Expanding Circle nations to the influence of English language education materials. These materials focus on Inner Circle cultures and language varieties, leading learners to view native speakers as the ideal models of English and diminishing their appreciation for other varieties.

Jenkins's study corresponds to Matsuda's (2002) investigation of Japanese EFL textbooks, particularly analysing the nationality of the primary characters and the varieties of English used in those books. Matsuda (2002) found a strong representation of speakers and language varieties from the Inner Circle and Japan, neglecting the reflection of English as a global language. One of the

critical findings of this study stressed the link between the representation of English in EFL textbooks and the construction of students' attitudes toward different varieties and speakers of the language. The lack of representation of other varieties contributes to the dominance of British and American English alone (Matsuda, 2002). Similarly, Evans and Imai (2011) found that British and American English were the top two varieties in terms of students' recognition. The Japanese university students viewed American English as more of a socially desirable variety, whereas British English was considered the 'original' English.

One of the few studies in which students demonstrated a willingness to learn about different varieties is Ahn and Kang's (2017) study. The authors found that South Korean university students were aware of the widespread usage of English globally. The students' aspiration to interact with speakers of different varieties of the language influenced their perceptions of the topic under investigation. The author concluded a list of variables that could influence students' attitudes, including "familiarity, geographic proximity, and global/local sociopolitics" (Ahn & Kang, 2017, p. 1).

When it comes to teachers' perceptions, Huang (2019) found that elementary school teachers in China strongly believed in 'standard English'. They assumed that American and British English were the only varieties of English that should be taught and studied. Similar findings were found in Butler (2007b), in which Japanese elementary school teachers had unfavourable opinions toward 'nonstandard English.' The researcher linked this finding to teachers' assumption that native speakers teach English more effectively. The fact that the previous two studies took place among English teachers in elementary school contexts might indicate the impact of the research context on teachers' cognition and opinions about the 'standardisation' of the language. The primary objectives of English classes in elementary schools could be to establish a foundation in the English language, rather than to increase students' awareness of its various dialects and varieties.

To counter the fallacy of native model superiority, Huang (2019) advocated for raising teachers' and students' awareness of critical paradigms like World Englishes and English as a lingua

franca. The research on world Englishes “is informed by the imperative to view English varieties beyond an arbitrarily determined monolithic language standard. Specifically, most world English scholars are committed to confronting the notion that an understanding of English is best achieved through the lens of a monolingual, educated, native speaker” (Jenks & Lee, 2020b, p. 218). Similarly, Rose et al. (2021) emphasised that English as a lingua franca is a powerful paradigm that “continues to challenge the way we view the English language as ‘owned and ruled’ by native speakers” (p. 2). Rose et al. noted that research on English as a lingua franca has sparked controversial discussions about the importance of prioritising intelligibility over adherence to native-speaker norms. This perspective critiques the traditional focus on grammatical precision and native-speaker standards in pragmatics, as well as the common implementation of English-only policies in language classrooms. By shifting attention toward effective communication, this approach advocates for a more inclusive understanding of English usage in diverse contexts (2021).

In light of world Englishes and English as a lingua franca, Huang (2019) argued that the critical thinking of ‘standard language’ ideologies may assist in eradicating the uncritical adherence to the ideology of native-speakerism among teachers and students. Furthermore, the author emphasised that numerous varieties of English are found worldwide, as the language has extended beyond its original limits and is now used on a truly global scale. Therefore, English language teachers must be equipped to meet their students' needs and prepare them for the real world, where English is not limited to British and American varieties (Ahn & Kang, 2017).

2.3.11 Conclusion

The impact of native-speakerism on teachers’ professional identity and students’ perceptions is complex and context-dependent. Addressing native-speakerism revealed various factors that could empower ‘NNESTs’ to transcend the ‘native’ and ‘nonnative’ dichotomy. A strong affiliation with their working environment can foster a sense of belonging among teachers, thereby mitigating feelings of marginalisation. Furthermore, their local knowledge and appreciation of the sociocultural

and linguistic bonds with their students could enhance their confidence and assert their competence. Regarding student preferences for 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs,' students tend to value each group for distinct characteristics, suggesting that their evaluations are not solely based on teachers' nativeness but also on teachers' competence. Those observations underscore recent calls to re-examine the ideology of native-speakerism as it manifests differently across cultural and professional settings (e.g., Houghton & Rivers, 2013; Wang & Fang, 2020). Therefore, Holliday's (2006) standard interpretation may struggle to adequately capture the complexity of this ideology and its application in diverse cultural and geographical contexts.

Examining the literature in this section revealed that native-speakerism is deeply rooted in students' and teachers' preferences for the British and American varieties of the language. On the other hand, other varieties are unrecognised or perceived as less valuable. This preference for the dominant standard varieties of the language suggests that the native speakerist ideology is shaped by the broader discourse of language and power, and how English-speaking Western countries uphold British and American varieties through mass media and powerful institutions (Lowe, 2020; Walsh, 2021).

2.4 Translanguaging

2.4.1 Introduction

In this section of the chapter, I aim to offer a comprehensive view of translanguaging pedagogy by comparing its fixed and fluid approaches, its strong and weak versions, and its relation to codeswitching and translation. I trace this pedagogy to its origins in the work of Cen Williams in Wales and its development in addressing social justice and linguistic inequalities in the United States and other contexts. I situate translanguaging alongside other influential theories and hypotheses in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and discuss the roles of globalisation and multilingualism in shifting from standard to multilingual ideologies. The chapter highlights how translanguaging can counter standard language ideologies and promote linguistic diversity within the context of World Englishes. Additionally, it situates the study within transcultural communication as a theoretical framework that departs from standard language ideologies toward a more critical examination of language, culture, and identity (Baker, 2024).

2.4.2 Translanguaging

According to Garcia and Wei (2014), the root of the word translanguaging is traced to Becker, one of the first scholars to use the term *linguaging* (Becker, 1988, as cited in Garcia and Wei, 2014). Hulmbauer (2013) noted that the recent understanding of languages has evolved beyond merely connecting linguistic entities to challenging the artificial boundaries that separate languages. From a poststructuralist perspective, languages are perceived as an activity rather than a structure, as a process we engage in rather than a set of rules we rely on, as a tangible aspect of our everyday existence rather than a theoretical concept (Pennycook, 2010). In the post-structuralist era, psycholinguists have shifted their view from named languages as sociopolitical and historical concepts to the process of linguaging (Wei, 2011; Pennycook, 2010; Garcia & Wei, 2017).

Languaging is the cognitive process of acquiring knowledge, comprehending information, expressing thoughts, and engaging in communication via the use of language (Wei, 2011). It is “a social process constantly reconstructed in sensitivity to environmental factors” (Canagarajah, 2007, p. 94). It "acts as a vehicle through which thinking is articulated and transformed into an artifactual form" (Swain, 2000, p. 97).

Wei (2018) asserted that the significant contribution of translanguaging as a concept lies in the trans prefix. The prefix in translanguaging entails re-conceptualising conventional ideologies about language, language learning, and language use. Wei introduced translanguaging as more than a pedagogical practice, but as a theory of language, cognition, and social interaction, grounded in how multilinguals actually use languages in a *Translanguaging Space*:

A space that is created by and for translanguaging practices, and a space where language users break down the ideologically laden dichotomies between the macro and the micro, the societal and the individual, and the social and the psychological through interaction. A translanguaging space allows language users to integrate social spaces (and thus ‘linguistic codes’) that have been formerly separated through different practices in different places (Wei, 2018, p. 23).

According to Wei (2018), a translanguaging space is marked by the speakers’ *creatively and criticality* where creativity refers to multilinguals “abilities to push and break boundaries between named language and between language varieties, and to flout norms of behaviour, including linguistic behaviour”, and criticality means “their ability to use evidence to question, problematise, and articulate views (p. 23).”

2.4.3 A Look at the Work of Cen Williams (1994; 2012): Translanguaging’s Origin in Wales

Welsh researchers have been the most dedicated to exploring and advancing translanguaging as a pedagogy (Garcia & Wei, 2014). In the Welsh context, Lewis et al. (2012) explained that this pedagogy must be seen as a response to the historical division between two languages (Welsh and

English) characterised by a disparity in social status. The depiction of Welsh and English has often revolved around strife, subjugation, and repression, stemming from the attributed supremacy of the English language and the deterioration of the Welsh language (Lewis et al., 2012). Nowadays, Cenoz and Gorter have observed that research on translanguaging has been mainly carried out in certain European regions, such as Catalonia, the Basque Country, and Friesland, where bilingual programmes have developed into multilingual ones. This shift has changed the focus from just national and regional languages to promoting multilingualism. (2020).

Wei (2021) stated that the origin of the term translanguaging dates back to the 1990s, when Williams (1994) observed students in Welsh revitalisation programs and found that they naturally engaged in language alternation when answering teachers' questions and completing their homework. Despite the institution's monolingual stance, which was against using English, Wei (2021) explained that students did not adhere to the institution's policy as they sometimes used English in class to communicate with their teachers or to utilise bilingual resources in their classwork. The term was first coined as "trawsieithu" in the Welsh language and later translated into translanguaging (Lewis et al., 2012). Cenoz and Gorter (2021) stated that the term was used to describe the planned activities of language alternation between English and Welsh as input and output. In his case study, Williams (1994) observed a classroom activity in which the students read two texts, each in a different language, and then wrote a journal based on their reading comprehension of both texts. The author asserted that the journal entry is an example of translanguaging that requires a high level of skill and reflects a greater understanding of classroom materials (Williams, 1994, as cited in Cenoz and Gorter, 2021).

According to Wei (2021), Colin Baker is credited with exposing Williams's (1994) work to the English-speaking world in the book *"Foundations of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism."* Lewis et al. (2012) explained that the term was first coined in Welsh and was later translated into English as 'translanguaging' after a discussion between Cen Williams and Colin Baker. Williams and Baker's choice of the suffix languaging highlights the speaker's ongoing affective and cognitive engagement

with languages (Lewis et al., 2012). This can be seen in Baker's definition of translanguaging as "the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages" (Baker, 2011, p. 288). Translanguaging, as proposed by Williams and Baker, earned Wei's (2018) admiration. He expanded their concept to view translanguaging as more than a simple alternation between two languages but a dynamic process of meaning-making that extends beyond language. It is a practice that encompasses the ongoing and functional integration of various languages and language varieties (Wei, 2018).

Cenoz and Gorter (2021) highlighted the similarities and differences between translanguaging's origin in the work of Williams (1994) and the new concurrent approach proposed by Jacobson (1990). While both approaches are mainly bilingual, the language switch in the new concurrent approach is always teacher-initiated, and students rely on teachers' signals to trigger language change, which usually occurs at the sentence level. On the other hand, translanguaging in the Welsh classroom involves moving between the two languages in the process and the product of the activity, allowing students to engage in higher cognitive processing skills in both languages. In the same vein, Lewis et al. (2012) noted that translanguaging differs from the new concurrent approach by reiterating Williams's (2003) emphasis on translanguaging as student-centred rather than teacher-centred, despite the teacher's significant role in facilitating translanguaging.

In his later work, Williams drew an important distinction between official and natural translanguaging (Williams, 2012, as cited in Garcia & Wei, 2014). He explained that teachers and students can engage with both official and natural translanguaging. Natural translanguaging occurs between teachers and their students, one-on-one, in pairs, or in small groups, to enhance the meaning-making of classroom content. In contrast, teachers conduct official translanguaging through classroom activities that alternate between the two languages as input or output. Teachers' interactions with students in official translanguaging are purposefully planned to facilitate students' learning and allow them to engage with higher cognitive levels that involve analysing both languages. Moreover,

official translanguaging is perfectly reflected in the students' alternation between languages to complete their assignments (Williams, 2012, as cited in Garcia & Wei, 2014).

Building on the terms official and natural translanguaging, Cenoz and Gorter (2017) instead used the terms spontaneous and pedagogical translanguaging. They argued that spontaneous translanguaging is a more universal term because it can occur both inside and outside the classroom. Additionally, they explained that translanguaging pedagogy is not different from official translanguaging, as they both refer to planned strategies inside the classroom. Still, Cenoz and Gorter (2017) believe that translanguaging pedagogy has extended beyond the Welsh version, which centred on alternation between two languages to include the use of different languages in the context of multilingualism. Refusing to draw rigid lines between spontaneous and pedagogical translanguaging, they advised viewing them as part of a continuum rather than as a dichotomy. They argued that teachers' pedagogical translanguaging might unexpectedly coexist with students' use of multilingual resources, even if the instructor does not intend it. Spontaneous translanguaging can have a clear instructional value when linked to the learning process (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

Nowadays, the use of the terms official and natural translanguaging has been extended from its Welsh origin to describe a variety of settings, from classrooms to streets (Lewis et al., 2012). Wei (2018) proposed translanguaging as a practical theory to encompass the use of translanguaging in different forms and settings, including the use of several languages, language variations, and other semiotic systems. It involves fluid and dynamic behaviours beyond the sociopolitical boundaries of named languages.

2.4.4 Comparing the Fixed and Fluid Approaches of Translanguaging

The fixed approach of translanguaging originated in the Welsh classrooms and viewed languages as two monolithic entities, despite allowing for alternation between them (Leung & Valdes, 2019). On the other hand, Otheguy et al. (2015) defined the fluid version of translanguaging as the “deployment of a speaker's linguistic repertoire without regard for watchful adherence to the socially

and politically defined boundaries of named (and usually national and state) languages” (p.81). The "trans-" turn sparks heated disputes because it questions long-held assumptions by “problematising static monolingualist, structuralist perspectives on bilingual practices that have failed to accurately describe the complexity of bi/multilinguals and communities” (Leung & Valdes, 2019, p. 357).

The distinctiveness of the fluid approach is marked by three key points, as quoted in Vogel and Garcia (2017):

- 1- It posits that individuals select and deploy features from a unitary linguistic repertoire in order to communicate.
- 2- It takes up a perspective on bi- and multilingualism that privileges speakers’ own dynamic linguistic and semiotic practices above the named languages of nations and states.
- 3- It recognises the material effects of socially constructed named language categories and structuralist language ideologies, especially for minoritised language speakers (p. 4).

2.4.5 Strong and Weak Versions of Translanguaging

Garcia and Otheguy (2020) explained that the strong version of translanguaging “posits a single inventory of lexical and structural resources, a unitary linguistic system” (p. 25). It originates from an epistemological position that considers the imposed boundaries between named languages as extraneous sociopolitical constructs (Otheguy et al., 2015).

Languages are not true linguistic entities because their boundaries are established on non-linguistic grounds. Rather, they are groupings of idiolects of people with shared social, political or ethnic identities that, once so grouped, are described using linguistic terms that tend to give the mistaken impression that the grouping was based on linguistic grounds in the first place (Otheguy et al., 2015, p. 291).

Kleyn and Garcia (2019) echoed Otheguy et al. (2015) by illustrating that the prefix ‘trans’ in translanguaging refers to surpassing the social-political boundaries between named languages. The

strong version calls for a new perspective that shifts the focus from external views of languages to an internal view, valuing the practices of bilinguals who employ resources from their own unified linguistic repertoire (Garcia & Lin, 2017). It emphasises the role of educational institutions in establishing monolingual norms and assists educators in adopting a critical perspective on the formation of standard languages (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). Additionally, it questions the societal structures that would diminish the agency, intellect, and creativity of language users by shifting the emphasis to them rather than named languages (Poza, 2017).

On the other hand, the weak version of translanguaging “upholds national languages but calls for a softening of those boundaries in education, calling for bilingual instructional strategies that leverage what society would call the students’ L1” (Vogel & Garcia, 2017, p. 9). Garcia and Lin (2017) clarified that the weaker form of translanguaging has been present for quite some time. It could be traced back to the early work of some key scholars who questioned the monolingual assumption in the field of ELT and prompted a major reconceptualisation of second language learning, such as Cook’s concept of *Multicompetence* (Cook, 1999). In their recent article, Tian and Wei (2024) drew on Cook’s concept of multicompetence, explaining that the growing interdisciplinary research on bilingualism and multilingualism since the 1980s has enhanced our understanding that bilingual individuals are not simply two monolinguals coexisting in one mind.

Multicompetence concerns the total system for all languages (L1, L2, Ln) in a single mind or community and their interrelationships; it does not depend on the monolingual native speaker as the norm or model, and it affects the whole mind (i.e., all language and cognitive systems) rather than language alone. (Cook 2016, pp. 16-19 as cited in Tian & Wei, 2024, p. 4)

Among the strategies that Cook suggested to enhance students’ multicompetence, and which can exemplify a weak version of translanguaging, are introducing activities that intentionally engage both languages, providing translation, instructions, or explanations in L1 when necessary, and permitting code switching during students’ collaborative work (Cook, 1999, 2001).

Scholars such as Jaspers (2018), MacSwan (2017), and Wiley (2020) have held a critical view of the strong version of translanguaging, calling for the acknowledgement of boundaries between named languages to address linguistic hierarchy, language rights, preservation, and native language use. In response to these criticisms, Garcia and Lin (2017) acknowledged that named languages have had and will continue to have significant and tangible effects, especially in language revitalisation programs and minority languages. The authors urged educators to combine the weak and strong versions of translanguaging in those contexts by allocating spaces for developing minority languages while softening the boundaries between languages when needed. Moreover, Wei (2018) acknowledged the existence of different named languages but called for understanding the strong version from the “translanguaging instinct,” which drives humans to transcend linguistic codes in order to communicate effectively (p. 24).

2.4.6 Code-switching, Translanguaging, and Translation: A Theoretical Debate

This study advances the understanding that translanguaging encompasses acts/practices of code switching and translation. It is rooted in the acknowledgement of the dynamic and intricate nature of bilingualism, which contests the notion of separate linguistic systems (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020). Thus, code switching and translation might be understood, approached, and enacted differently through a “translanguaging lens” (Seals, 2021, p. 4) than through a narrow monolingual ideology, which may still view language as separate systems.

However, the discussion around code-switching, translanguaging, and translation has raised a theoretical debate where some scholars draw rigid lines between the three concepts, emphasising that, unlike translanguaging, translation, and code switching represent a monolingual framework that views languages as distinct codes (e.g., Garcia & Wei, 2017; Kleyn & Garcia, 2019; Vogel & Garcia, 2017).

For instance, Garcia and Wei (2014) emphasised that translanguaging is different from a simple shift or a shuttle between two languages. They perceive translanguaging as a complex, interrelated discursive practice that cannot be simply attributed to languages as separate entities, but

instead comprises the speakers' whole linguistic repertoire. Additionally, translanguaging offers an inclusive and internal perspective in contrast to code-switching, which is based on the external view that bilinguals switch between two monolithic languages (Vogel & Garcia, 2017). According to Vogel and Garcia, translanguaging cannot involve code-switching or translation because the two have different epistemological stances. In contrast to codeswitching and translation, which presuppose the existence of two separate language systems, translanguaging indicates the existence of a single repertoire (2017).

Another distinction relies on the origin of the terms translanguaging and codeswitching; while code-switching originated in social contexts and later transitioned into classrooms, translanguaging research started within classroom studies and has since broadened to encompass communication beyond the classroom (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). Garcia and Kleyn (2016) linked the use of code-switching in the classroom to the new concurrent approach to language teaching. The language switch in the new concurrent approach is always teacher-initiated, and students rely on teachers' signals to initiate language change that usually takes place at the sentence level (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). On the other hand, Goodman and Tastanbek (2021) highlighted that the origin of translanguaging in the Welsh classroom involved alternating between languages as input and output to promote meaning-making and critical thinking, rather than simply switching between languages (see Section 2.4.3).

In response to scholars who insist on drawing clear lines between translanguaging, code-switching, and translation (e.g., Garcia & Wei, 2017; Kleyn & Garcia, 2019; Vogel & Garcia, 2017), Poza argued that the attempt to establish a fixed definition for translanguaging is ironic, especially when the term emphasises the fluid, evolving, and dynamic aspects of languages (2017). If we wish to keep using the term, we must eliminate claims that do not align with the research evidence (Treffers-Daller, 2023). Treffers-Daller argued that reviewing empirical research on code switching shows that it is not different from translanguaging (2023). "Code-switching can involve very intimate forms of mixing within one sentence, where the grammars, the vocabulary and the phonetics of each

language can hardly be disentangled” and therefore can be viewed as a representation of a whole linguistic repertoire (Treffers-Daller, 2023, p. 3).

Moreover, the systematic review conducted by Poza (2017) shows that translanguaging encompasses code-switching across all the reviewed empirical studies, and that these practices reflect the dynamic ways language users draw on resources from their linguistic repertoires. In fact, I found translation to be one of the main promoted strategies in the practical guide for translanguaging pedagogy (Celic & Seltzer, 2013). Some scholars recommended this guide, although it contradicts their stance, which draws rigid lines between translanguaging and translation (e.g., Garcia & Lin, 2017; Kleyn & Garcia, 2019). This evidence supports the arguments of Poza (2017) and Treffers-Daller (2023), indicating that the strict separation between translation, code switching, and translanguaging is a theoretical debate rather than one grounded in empirical research.

2.4.7 Translanguaging in the Current Study

The study aligns with Baynham and Lee (2019), who conceptualise translanguaging as encompassing both translation and code-switching. Still, I believe that translanguaging is distinctive when we recognise its philosophical stance, which aims to deconstruct standard language ideologies and empower second language learners with their whole linguistic repertoire (Garcia et al., 2017; Vogel & Garcia, 2017). However, when examining the practical applications of this pedagogy, codeswitching and translation are interpreted as students’ use of their whole linguistic repertoire (Poza, 2017; Treffers-Daller, 2023). This study takes a holistic approach and adopts a “translanguaging lens” (Seals, 2021, p. 4) by viewing any evidence of challenging monolingual pedagogy, whether spontaneously (what would be typically called code switching in a different monolingual framework based on distinct codes) or pedagogically (the purposeful and strategic design of translanguaging spaces based on the use of students’ whole linguistic repertoire).

Translanguaging in the current study is a pedagogical approach “planned by the teacher inside the classroom and can refer to the use of different languages for input and output or to other planned

strategies based on the use of students' resources from the whole linguistic repertoire" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 194). It is essential to note that translanguaging pedagogy is not the opposite of spontaneous translanguaging, as translanguaging is inherently spontaneous but can be leveraged into a pedagogical approach. As explained earlier in section (2.4.3), spontaneous translanguaging can happen unintentionally but could complement pedagogical translanguaging when tied to facilitating the learning process (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017; Williams, 2012, as cited in Garcia & Wei, 2014). In other words, both pedagogical and spontaneous translanguaging are most effective when understood as part of a continuum (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017).

Relying on spontaneous translanguaging alone could weaken initiatives aimed at encouraging teachers to implement or allow pedagogical translanguaging in their classrooms (Goodman & Tastanbek, 2021). For this reason, the study highlights the importance of adopting the three strands of translanguaging pedagogy: *Stance, Design, and Shifts* (Garcia et al., 2017). As explained in the following section, the adoption of these three strands is crucial for challenging standard ideologies, validating diverse identities, and leveraging translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogy that builds on what bilinguals and multilinguals have always found natural inside and outside the classroom.

2.4.8 Three Strands of Translanguaging Pedagogy

Garcia et al. (2017) highlighted three key features of translanguaging pedagogy, which inform the research process of the current study, as explained in section (3.5) of the methodology chapter.

These three strands are:

1- Stance

Teachers with a translanguaging stance view language as part of the unified linguistic repertoire that bilingual individuals possess or are in the process of developing, even while they focus on enhancing students' proficiency in a target language (Garcia & Otheguy, 2020, p. 11). Back (2020) further clarified that a translanguaging stance involves actively and explicitly endorsing translanguaging strategies. Garcia and Kleyn explained that teachers' stance must prioritise embedding linguistic

skills in the tongues and brains of students rather than focusing on outer norms or policies. In this sense, adopting a translanguaging stance means that teachers must revoke the monolingual native speaker model as a reference to second language learning. They should have the agency to deconstruct the conventional ideologies in their institutions, which stigmatise or marginalise students' dynamic linguistic practices (2016).

2- *Design*

According to Fallas Escobar (2019), the design allows for exploring the transition of translanguaging from an implicit, spontaneous and hidden practice to a deliberate one. This purposeful transition can enhance our understanding of language teaching and learning beyond standard language ideologies.

While working on exploring the affordances of translanguaging in our English as a foreign language context, the teachers and I discussed how to tailor translanguaging pedagogy for the current classroom setting. It was essential to develop a local context-sensitive version of this pedagogy. Especially when recent studies urged for scrutinising the sociopolitical, historical, and geographical contexts in which this critical approach is applied, since these factors influence individuals' language ideologies and their engagement with their linguistic repertoire (e.g., Hawkins & Mori, 2018; Mendoza et al., 2023).

The discussions between the teachers and me led to what I refer to as a conscious version of translanguaging, which I will explain further in the methodology chapter.

3- *Shifts*

The shifts refer to “moment-by-moment decisions that show teachers' flexibility and willingness to support students' voices. Shifts are not planned but happen in the classroom and are examples of spontaneous translanguaging” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021, pp. 11,12). According to Garcia and Kleyn, the shifts involve negotiating the instructional design and making spontaneous changes to enhance student learning and comprehension. It demonstrates teachers' adaptability and desire to evaluate the learning process, value students' feedback and their learning experiences (2016).

2.4.9 *Translanguaging, Sociocultural and Complex Dynamic Systems Theories*

Translanguaging aligns with the *Sociocultural Theory* by Lantolf et al. (2014), as both emphasise the importance of meaning-making and perceive learning as dynamic, interactive, situated within social interaction, and collaboratively constructed by individuals (Duarte, 2019; Kampittayakul, 2019). In light of the sociocultural theory, utilising translanguaging in students' collaborative work could increase meaning-making and scaffold their learning (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). The term *Scaffolding* was first introduced by Wood et al. (1976) and refers to the process where an expert, such as a teacher or a more skilled student, assists a learner by taking on parts of a task that the learner is unable to complete, thereby helping them achieve a higher level in Vygotsky's *Zone of Proximal Development*, which is defined as: “The difference between the child’s developmental level as determined by independent problem-solving and the higher level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978, p. 86).

Among the empirical studies that explore the intersection between translanguaging and the sociocultural theory in language learning is the study of Duarte (2019). The author emphasised that examining the use of translanguaging as a tool for learning requires adding a sociocultural lens to highlight its potential for the joint construction of knowledge. The study employed discourse analysis to examine peer interactions among school students in Germany and to explore how they support one another during group discussions and knowledge creation. The findings showed how translanguaging facilitated collaborative problem-solving by providing a framework for understanding through interaction. Students engaged in translanguaging to paraphrase task instructions, address management issues, and refer to background knowledge relevant to the task. Furthermore, translanguaging in pair work helped generate rich output as students used their whole linguistic repertoire to negotiate ideas and assess their performance.

Additionally, Kampittayakul (2019) concluded that creating translanguaging spaces for Thai students in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom enhanced meaning-making and allowed for cooperative learning. Subsequently, students showed higher participation and reached their potential development within the zone of proximal development. The concept of potential development refers to the difference between what a learner can accomplish independently (actual development) and what they can achieve with guidance or assistance (potential development) (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978).

Another socio-cognitive theory that underpins translanguaging is the *Complex Dynamic Systems Theory* (Garcia & Wei, 2014). This theory “takes a view of the individual’s cognitive processes as inextricably interwoven with their experiences in the physical and social world. The context of language activity is socially constructed and often dynamically negotiated on a moment-by-moment basis.” (Larsen-Freeman and Cameron, 2008. p.155 as cited in Garcia & Wei, 2014. p. 16). Li et al. (2022) explained that the complex dynamic system theory intersects with translanguaging by emphasising a single, unified linguistic repertoire. Both translanguaging and the complex dynamic systems theory depart from the traditional view of language as a fixed, discrete entity. Instead, they perceive languages and speakers' plurilingual and pluricultural competence as fluid and dynamic (Larsen-Freeman & Todeva, 2021).

According to Garcia (2009), viewing translanguaging from a dynamic lens entails transforming the conventional concepts of bilingualism, emphasising that it stands apart from both subtractive and additive bilingualism. Flores and Rosa explained that subtractive and additive approaches have been developed as alternative ways of managing language diversity in U.S. classrooms. While the subtractive approach focuses solely on improving proficiency in standard English and expects students to abandon their native language (2015), additive bilingualism is when a second language is added to the students' first language as a separate entity (Garcia & Wei, 2014). It encourages students to adhere to standard monolingual conventions to meet academic expectations

and acknowledge other languages and different varieties only in the context of everyday life (Flores & Rosa, 2015).

2.4.10 From Monolingual Ideologies to Translanguaging as a Space for Investment

Little and Kirwan (2022) noted that current theories and concepts of second language learning highlight the vital role of fluid, dynamic and authentic language use. The monolingual standard model has become problematic and irrelevant, particularly in the age of globalisation and multilingual realities of many individuals around the world (Truan, 2024; Walsh, 2021).

According to McMillan and Rivers (2011), the monolingual standard model is underpinned by Krashen's *Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis*, which posits that language acquisition closely resembles how children learn their first language. Moreover, the role of L1 in foreign language learning is mainly perceived as an interference and a sign of low acquisition (Krashen, 1981). In response to these traditional theories that underpin monolingual ideologies, McManus (2021) argued that adults' second-language learning differs from first-language acquisition because prior language knowledge and cross-linguistic influence shape their learning process. Similarly, Ellis and Wulff (2019) emphasised that, unlike children who acquire their first language unconsciously, second-language learning is mainly characterised by explicit learning. Additionally, Galante (2020) noted that the process of second language learning is more complex, especially in the age of globalisation, human mobility and multilingualism, which has prompted a shift from monolingual to multilingual ideologies and reconceptualised our understanding of second and third language learning.

In their latest work on identity and investment, Darwin and Norton (2023) argued that rapid globalisation and significant migration have created pressing issues of inequity and marginalisation in multicultural societies. These issues can profoundly affect second language learning and need to be addressed to foster more inclusive and effective language education.

Darwin and Norton explained that a language learner might be highly motivated yet not feel invested in a learning environment that could be “racist, sexist, elitist, or anti-immigrant” (Darwin &

Norton, 2023, p. 29). They emphasised the importance of the concept ‘investment’ in exploring, addressing these inequalities, and challenging the prevailing ideologies that sustain them. Investment relates to identity and power dynamics and examines how histories, personal experiences, and social practices influence language learning. It denotes the socially and historically constructed relationship learners have with a target language, alongside their sometimes conflicting desires to learn and use it ((Darvin & Norton, 2023).

Drawing on the influential theoretical tool of Darvin and Norton (2015), which locates investment at the intersection of identity, capital, and ideology, Darvin (2024) illustrated how a translanguaging space can help learners invest in their learning and assert their identities as legitimate speakers of the language. Darvin (2024) worked with Filipino students where there are many languages spoken in their home country, and translanguaging is an ordinary practice. However, these languages are circumscribed by power, as the linguistic resources of multilingual speakers can be unequally valued. By investing in a translanguaging space in the language classroom, the Filipino students were able to appreciate their linguistic resources and develop a critical understanding of the inequalities surrounding different languages. Moreover, translanguaging allowed them to engage with their identities, affirm their legitimacy as multilingual speakers, and assert their right to express themselves.

In conclusion, globalisation and the rise of multilingualism have necessitated a transition from monolingual to multilingual ideologies. Language learning is intricately connected to issues of power and inequality within contemporary multilingual and multicultural societies. Furthermore, current understanding of second language learning proves it to be more complex than a simple imitation of the monolingual native standard model. The shift from monolingual ideologies to multilingual ideology is “critical to the construct of investment because it recognises that as L2 learners navigate different social spaces, there are dominant ways of thinking that circumscribe these spaces and that shape the way learners and their resources are positioned” (Darvin & Norton, 2023, p. 36).

2.4.11 Beyond the Native Speaker: Translanguaging and World Englishes

According to Cenoz and Gorter, standard language ideologies idealise the monolingual native speaker found in the English-speaking Western countries, often overlooking the translanguaging practices of multilingual English speakers, particularly those regarded as 'native English speakers'. This oversight stems from the mistaken assumption that these speakers conform to monolingual standards (2020). Cushing emphasised that focusing on multilingual individuals is essential for challenging the standard monolingual native speaker model. First, multilinguals encourage us to reconsider the idea of a 'native speaker' as the only expert on a language viewed as a fixed entity. Second, their very presence demonstrates that the world is far more multilingual than many non-linguists might believe (2021).

Several scholars have highlighted the intricate interaction between the monolingual and native speakerist ideologies and their adverse ramifications on second language learners (e.g., Cenoz & Gorter, 2020; Kleyn & Garcia, 2019; Ortega, 2019). For example, Dovchin and Wang (2024) explained how the dominant language ideologies led some second-language speakers to view translanguaging unfavourably, linking it to school bullying and feelings of linguistic inadequacy. Dovchin and Wang worked with migrants in Australia aged between 18 and 55 who speak English as a second language. The participants' perceptions of translanguaging were driven by their "strong desire to achieve the idealised monoglot standards" of native English speakers, despite finding translanguaging "instinctive and natural" in their daily lives (p. 442). To counter the monolingual native speaker model and its adverse ramifications on second language learners, Kleyn and Garcia (2019) proposed translanguaging as an act of transformation that shifts the focus from the "White, middle-upper-class monolingual native speaker" model (p. 69), which sheds negative light on second language learners, pictures them as deficient speakers of the language and overlooks the different varieties of the language in the context of World Englishes.

The *trans-language Movement* evolved from the work of world Englishes (Jenks & Lee, 2020b). Vulchanova et al. (2022) explained that in the field of World Englishes, the second-language

varieties that have emerged from English's contact with local languages entailed re-examining standard language ideologies, recognising the diversity of multilingual contexts and local varieties that differ from established norms. Translanguaging and world Englishes are connected to multilingual ideologies and encounter the monolingual language standard that sets the native English speaker in the Inner Circle as a reference (Dovchin & Wang, 2024). Within the context of World Englishes, the focus on the target culture should extend beyond English-speaking Western countries to include a diverse range of cultures, celebrating linguistic and cultural diversity (Fang & Xu, 2024). According to Cenoz and Gorter, various forms of English are central to the concept of world Englishes, and English often serves as one of the primary languages examined within translanguaging studies (2020). Still, translanguaging goes beyond world Englishes, which emphasises the plurality of English varieties by highlighting how multilinguals transcend the concept of plural, different entities by engaging with a unified repertoire (Fang & Xu, 2024).

Translanguaging can be seen in the light of the *Multilingual Turn* (May, 2013), which emphasises multilingualism and problematises the monoglossic view of language as it has become less relevant in today's global world (Makalela, 2015). Within the trans-language movement and the multilingual turn, which have challenged the standard language ideologies and emphasised the dynamic and fluid use of English within the paradigm of world Englishes, Backer (2024) proposed *Transcultural Communication* as an evolving theoretical framework underpinned by multilingual ideologies. It refers to “communication where interactants move through and across, rather than in-between, cultural and linguistic boundaries, thus, ‘named’ languages and cultures can no longer be taken for granted and in the process borders become blurred, transgressed and transcended” (Baker & Sangiamchit, 2019, p. 472)

2.4.12 Theoretical Framework: Transcultural Communication

Adopting transcultural communication as a theoretical framework for the current study was essential to understanding the teachers' and students' ideological positions on native speakerism, monolingual pedagogy, and the extent to which their views could interact with their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. According to Baker, transcultural communication promotes critical reflection on how power dynamics, sociopolitical factors, and historical legacies influence language teaching and learning. The practical application of this framework involves shifting focus from national standards and scales to a more critical examination of language, culture, and identity (2024).

Transcultural communication is a natural progression from the existing theory of intercultural communication (Baker & Sangiamchit, 2019). Intercultural communication has increasingly become a prevalent phenomenon among speakers whose first language is not English. Concurrently, the development of intercultural competence has garnered significant attention (Fang & Xu, 2024). This competence refers to the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural contexts, utilising one's intercultural knowledge, skills, and attitudes (Deardorff, 2004).

Baker (2024) explained that the 'trans' prefix in transcultural communication and translanguaging theories stresses going beyond the ideological categories of specific national languages and cultures. In this sense, transcultural communication and translanguaging are interconnected concepts that focus on language use and cultural exchange in diverse contexts, emphasising the fluidity and overlap of cultural identities. They both promote a more inclusive view of communication that values fluidity, adaptability, and the rich tapestry of human experience.

The study adopts transcultural communication as a theoretical framework because it encourages critical examination of the dominant monolingual and native speakerist ideologies and how they created power imbalances in the field of ELT. This framework challenges the traditional native speaker as the ideal model for language proficiency and instead embraces the diversity of English varieties and speakers. Transcultural communication advocates for teaching approaches that

validate and incorporate all learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds, such as translanguaging (Baker, 2022).

In the Saudi English for Academic Purpose (EAP) context, the intersection of Arabic and English is not merely a linguistic issue but a site of ideological contestation shaped by religion, globalisation, and neoliberal forces. Transcultural communication offers a lens to explore how teachers and students navigate and contest these layers, especially when translanguaging practices foreground their hybrid linguistic and cultural identities. By combining translanguaging pedagogy with a transcultural communication framework, this study critically examines how language ideologies are embodied, resisted, and reimagined within EAP classrooms in Saudi Arabia. This dual lens allows for a richer understanding of the complexities shaping bilingual education in EFL contexts.

2.4.13 Translanguaging for Social Justice and Linguistic Inequity

Poza (2017) argued that translanguaging arises in its critical, liberated frame from monolingual ideology and the native speaker bias. Translanguaging is an opportunity for resistance and social justice since the language practices of marginalised young people are often subjected to racialisation and stigmatisation (Rosa, 2019). In the same vein, Garcia and Wei (2017) marked the distinctiveness of translanguaging from other relevant terms that centre the linguistic practices of multilingual people in two key points. Firstly, it is characterised by its unique approach as a critical pedagogy that challenges traditional language ideas and aims to bring about transformation. Secondly, it has a strong commitment to promoting social justice and addressing linguistic inequality in education.

It is important to mention that such acts of marginalisation and stigmatisation are not solely documented against minority students. Grosjean (2013) addressed the prejudice and misconceptions against all bilinguals, leading to emotions of inferiority and discontent. Among these misconceptions are viewing code-switching as an indication of laziness, considering bilingualism as an obstacle that

could delay second language acquisition in children, expecting bilinguals to have proficiency comparable to that of a native speaker, and expecting their second language (L2) accent to be neutral or native-like.

To counter this bias, particularly against minoritised students, translanguaging for social justice emerged first in the USA context. Nevertheless, it has transcended the school setting to include everyday situations and all aspects of a bilingual's life (Lewis et al., 2012). Proponents of translanguaging started with a call for "liberating the voices of language minoritised students" (Garcia & Leiva, 2014, p. 200). Minoritised students are the "low-income, newly arrived immigrant-background students referred to as emergent bilinguals, and Spanish–English bilingual language learners" (Leung & Valdes, 2019, p. 357). According to Garcia and Lin (2017), those students are often restricted from using their L1 and are more likely to feel voiceless and have a passive presence in class. Wei (2021) explained that Garcia's work on translanguaging for social justice responds to the implications of conventional language ideologies, which perpetuate the misconception that their native language conflicts with their English, negatively impacting their learning and overall academic performance. Translanguaging for social justice aims to empower learners, unlock their full potential, and enhance their learning and participation opportunities beyond restrictive conventional ideologies (2021).

2.4.14 Translanguaging for Reducing Foreign Language Anxiety

According to Ortega (2014), one of the key definitions that has provided a foundational framework for exploring anxiety in language learning contexts was proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986). Horwitz et al. (1986) defined language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning, arising from the unique nature of the language learning process" (p. 128). According to MacIntyre (2017), research into complex dynamic systems indicates that anxiety is shaped by various factors, including internal physiological processes, cognitive functions, and emotional states, as well as situational demands and

the presence of others, all examined across multiple timescales. Thus, anxiety encompasses both internal and social dimensions.

Cenoz and Gorter (2021) argued that the monolingual native speaker model has contributed to feelings of anxiety, failure, insecurity, and diminished self-esteem, even among competent multilinguals, for not achieving the standard of ‘nativeness’. Furthermore, several studies have shown that teachers and students challenged the English-only policy for its negative affective reactions on second language learners (e.g., Neokleous, 2017; Nguyen et al., 2010; Sanjaya et al., 2023; Shin et al., 2020). In this light, Edstrom (2006) emphasised the importance of humanising the second language classroom by challenging the English-only policy to acknowledge and accept each student's individuality, treat them with empathy and benevolence, and create a secure environment where they can freely express themselves. Still, Wei and Lin noted that teachers who follow this humanising approach sometimes experience tension between the multilingual dynamic realities of the classroom and the imposed English-only policy. Moreover, they face unfair accusations of sabotaging the students' learning and end up feeling guilty when deviating from the monolingual assumption (2019).

To overcome this tension, translanguaging came as a critical pedagogy that challenges the long-held assumptions that hold standard, structural and monolithic views of languaging, often overlooking the dynamic nature of language use in bilingual contexts (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Yasar Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022) explored the affective reactions to translanguaging pedagogy among EFL high school students in Turkey. They discovered that translanguaging helped them feel more comfortable and secure during in-class communication. Moreover, the students shared their feelings of comfort and relief for not being forced to adhere to the English-only policy.

Similar findings were reported in the Indonesian EFL classroom, where Sanjaya et al. (2023) noted that translanguaging created a safe space for school students to seek help, communicate freely and express their emotions, ultimately reducing the foreign language anxiety. Moreover, a more comprehensive study was conducted by Cenoz et al. (2024) to examine the potential connection between pedagogical translanguaging and the anxiety levels perceived by both students and teachers

in the Basque Autonomous Community, where Basque and Spanish are official languages and English is studied as a foreign language. The study involved 124 teachers who participated in an in-service course focused on pedagogical translanguaging and subsequently integrated these activities into their classrooms. Participants provided their insights on their own anxiety levels, as well as those of their students, through a questionnaire and open-ended questions. Findings suggest that pedagogical translanguaging may contribute to a decrease in students' anxiety and alleviate teachers' feelings of guilt regarding the use of multiple languages in their instruction.

The reason behind the positive impact of translanguaging on students' feelings and the overall learning experience was explored by Makalela (2015), who highlighted how a translanguaging space is vital for identity formation and can foster positive feelings of enjoyment, comfort and belonging among the students. The author conducted the study in two different African classroom settings, which are typically characterised by a monoglossic view towards languages. After fostering translanguaging pedagogy in this context, one of the students shared that he no longer feels like an outsider in the classroom because using his first language gave him a sense of control, security and balance over his learning. Makalela concluded that the translanguaging allowed for the transformation of negative perceptions about African languages, promoted investment in students' diverse linguistic identities, fostered multilingualism as a legitimate practice, and created a more positive experience in language learning.

2.4.15 Translanguaging for Students of Low Proficiency Levels

Kleyn and Garcia (2019) argued that students in English as a Second Language (ESL) courses should surpass the "limited English proficient" label and be seen as "emergent bilinguals" (p. 70). The effectiveness of translanguaging pedagogy for emergent bilinguals has been a topic of ongoing debate. Baker (2011) stated that translanguaging suits students with more advanced language proficiency. He worried that translanguaging might be a critical pedagogy in terms of controlling, assigning, and coordinating the simultaneous use of more than one language in a single classroom.

Moreover, he called on teachers to pay attention to their context, especially the course objective and the proficiency levels of their students. On the contrary, Kleyn and Garcia (2019) argued that translanguaging could be a transformative pedagogy for emergent bilinguals. Both Baker (2011) and Kleyn and Garcia (2019) asserted that teachers should plan the alternation between languages strategically and consciously. They advocated that teachers continuously reflect and evaluate the teaching and learning process.

Among the studies that tackled translanguaging with emergent bilinguals in the EFL context is the study of Liu (2021). The author examined graduate students' perceptions of pedagogical translanguaging at an international university in Bangkok. The findings showed that students' proficiency in the target language affected their use of translanguaging, with students having lower proficiency demonstrating a greater need for this approach. Responding to the need for more empirical research with students at various levels of language proficiency, Leung and Valdes (2019) added that it is crucial to investigate translanguaging pedagogy across settings and analyse the educational and social outcomes of these practices, which will serve as a foundation for future pedagogical applications.

2.4.16 Empirical Studies on Translanguaging Pedagogy

Sah and Li (2022) noted that a small proportion of instructors actively promote the use of translanguaging in their classes. Moreover, the author indicated a lack of studies on the methods and outcomes of implementing translanguaging in contexts where English is not the dominant language. In her systematic review, Prilutskaya (2021) concluded that most empirical studies on translanguaging have been conducted in North America and Europe, resulting in a research gap in the Global South. The data included 233 studies worldwide, with only 3% in the Middle East and 13% in the Asian context.

In this section, I present the implications of translanguaging pedagogy by reviewing relevant studies in various geographical and educational contexts. I explore teachers' and students' perceptions

of this pedagogy and highlight its main pedagogical functions, implications, and challenges that could limit its potential.

2.4.16.1 Translanguaging in Saudi Arabia and the Arab League.

Exploring the implications of translanguaging in different contexts requires understanding the roles of language hierarchy, cultural context, and sociopolitical ecology in shaping each study. In Saudi Arabia, Arabic and English hold different positions of power. Arabic is the native language and is closely related to culture, identity, and religion. It is the language of instruction in mainstream education. On the other hand, English is a foreign language with attributed global power.

Among the limited studies on translanguaging pedagogy in the Saudi context is the study conducted by Elashhab (2020). The author explored the pedagogical and interpersonal implications of translanguaging in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classroom among Saudi college students. The findings from a mixed-method approach highlighted the role of translanguaging in boosting students' engagement, comprehension, and vocabulary learning.

Similarly, Masrahi (2023) recruited six faculty members from different nationalities in a Saudi university to explore their perceptions of translanguaging. The study used interviews, focus groups, and field notes to gather data. The faculty members generally viewed translanguaging favourably and pleaded with policymakers to give them more agency so that they can help shape educational policies that are responsive to students' needs.

In addition, Al-Ahdal (2020) recruited twelve English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers working in Saudi public schools and grade six male learners in a mixed-methods study. After conducting a translanguaging intervention, including teachers' training over a period of two weeks, the findings showed that teachers were open to students' bilingual linguistic practices and believed that a monolingual policy could hinder students' ability to speak. Al-Ahdal (2020) measured learners' performance on a spoken linked comprehension exam before and after the translanguaging

intervention. The test given before the experiment served as the baseline for performance. The same assessment was conducted again at the conclusion of the intervention. These scores were used as pre- and post-test evaluations. The results indicated a significant improvement in students' performance. Additionally, the teachers observed that translanguaging enhanced the classroom atmosphere and increased student engagement.

In the Arab League, Akbar and Taqi (2020) examined the impact of translanguaging on students' target language proficiency and overall learning experience in Kuwait. A total of thirty-four female college English as a Second Language (ESL) students took part in both oral and written tasks to measure their performance before and after the implementation of translanguaging. The findings showed that translanguaging enhanced their comprehension, confidence and facilitated higher levels of cognitive processing. However, the participants' vocabulary acquisition was not noticeably influenced by translanguaging.

In the case of the United Arab Emirates, Steinhagen and Said (2021) highlighted the study context by illustrating that English is the primary language used for teaching in higher education, and faculty members are typically non-Arabic speakers. As a result, students may not always be able to use Arabic in modules taught in languages other than Arabic. A 15-week translanguaging intervention involved academic papers in both English and Arabic, allowing students to construct meanings in both languages. The interviews indicated that students perceived the intervention as empowering and efficient, particularly for processing complex information. Moreover, the predominant reaction from students was a revitalised appreciation for Arabic and a strengthened sense of their identity as Arabs and bilingual individuals. According to the authors, translanguaging fostered analytical reasoning and empowered students to assume responsibility for their learning.

However, empirical studies on translanguaging in the Middle East remain limited (Prilutskaya, 2021). Overall, previous studies have primarily explored teachers' and learners' perceptions of translanguaging without delving deeper into their stances on standard language

ideologies and how these ideologies interact with their perceptions of translanguaging. Additionally, some studies were limited to spontaneous translanguaging, lacking evidence of a translanguaging design (e.g., Alzabidi & Al-Ahdal, 2022). These limitations may lead some teachers to perceive translanguaging as either a causal or an illegitimate approach, as observed in Alqahtani (2022), Hillman et al. (2019), and Alqahtani (2018).

The current study fulfils a significant gap by building on the three strands of translanguaging pedagogy: Stance, Design, and Shifts (Garcia et al., 2017). It highlights the importance of investigating teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism, and how these perspectives shape their experiences with translanguaging pedagogy. Most importantly, it emphasises that translanguaging can be cultivated as a legitimate pedagogical approach, allowing both teachers and students to draw upon their whole linguistic repertoire. This empowers them to view their bilingualism as an asset, moving away from the limitations imposed by the English-only policy.

2.4.16.2 Translanguaging in the EAP Classroom.

Investigating the implications of translanguaging in the EAP classroom renders a research gap, as shown in the systematic review conducted by Prilutskaya (2021). The author concluded that most studies are conducted in primary/middle and postsecondary educational settings. Among the few studies investigating translanguaging in the EAP classroom is the study of Liu et al. (2020). The authors collaborated with in-service EAP teachers to assist them in implementing translanguaging in their classrooms. The study incorporated translanguaging strategies in reading and writing at a university in China. The findings showed that the teachers' perspectives and behaviours regarding translanguaging pedagogy changed over this joint research trip. The teachers' use of translanguaging evolved in scope and purpose as they became more confident in translanguaging as a legitimate and purposeful pedagogy.

Liu et al. (2022) explored students' perceptions of translanguaging strategies in the EAP classroom in China. Utilising students' questionnaires and interviews, the research showed that instructors' and students' use of translanguaging improved student comprehension and engagement. Still, nine of the thirty-four students exhibited persistent monolingual ideologies and were concerned about overreliance on their native language. The authors illustrated that students' preference for an exclusively English-speaking environment reflected “structuralist ideologies of English” (p. 26), which emphasise language separation and idealise the monolingual native speaker model.

2.4.16.3 Pedagogical Functions of Translanguaging Pedagogy.

The previous two sections of empirical research on translanguaging pedagogy explored translanguaging in two particular contexts: the Arab League and the EAP classroom. The current section has a broader scope, investigating teachers' and students' perceptions across different contexts, with a focus on the impact of translanguaging on reading, vocabulary learning, and classroom interaction.

Carroll and Sambolin Morales (2016) conducted a study in a Puerto Rican English as a Second Language (ESL) college classroom. Using translanguaging strategies in a novel reading circle, this pedagogy was shown to foster a collaborative learning experience. The authors argued that teachers who insist on a monolingual approach risk missing out on meaningful class discussions in which students apply what they have studied in both their native and target languages. Additionally, the authors explained that translanguaging pedagogy could offer teachers valuable information about their students' reading comprehension.

In addition, Vaish and Subhan (2015) worked with a grade two reading class for primary school children with lower academic performance in Singapore. The study's objective was to explore the impact of a translanguaging intervention in a learning support program for eight students. The authors found that translanguaging facilitated the understanding of academic information, enhanced comprehension, and vocabulary learning. Additionally, they noted that teachers' use of Malay and

English impacted the interaction dynamics. It reduced the difference in talk time between the teacher and the students. While the talk time ratio between the teacher and students was 76% to 20% on the first day of the translanguaging intervention, it shifted to a more balanced 47% to 49% in the eighth class.

In the context of higher education, Bin Ghali (2023) explored translanguaging pedagogy in collaborative reading tasks among university students in Saudi Arabia. The study aimed to provide learners with a safe space to utilise their whole linguistic repertoire, enabling them to reshape their language processes while learning English during collaborative reading lessons. It positions translanguaging as a collaborative and empowering approach, interpreting learning through a sociocultural lens (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978). By utilising their full linguistic repertoire, they could make their translanguaging meaningful through vibrant group conversations. This study has broadened the understanding of interthinking in relation to translanguaging as an active learning process. The term interthinking, introduced by Mercer (1995, as cited in Bin Ghali, 2023), refers to the interplay between cognitive and social aspects of group discussion, highlighting the use of dialogue for collective thinking and engagement with others' perspectives (Bin Ghali, 2023).

Moreover, Fallas Escobar (2019) conducted a study in an EFL program at a university in Costa Rica. The author designed a lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy to see its impact on vocabulary learning and classroom interaction. Although translanguaging was against the institution's policy, some students reported violating the policy behind their teachers' backs. They viewed translanguaging as a natural practice that provided them with a heightened sense of empowerment and increased freedom in expressing themselves. The students commented on the interpersonal benefits of translanguaging pedagogy, including the ability to build rapport with their teachers. The outcome of the translanguaging intervention revealed that students engaged with translanguaging for various objectives, such as providing explanations, expressing opinions, referring to important information, offering critiques, asking questions, and expressing emotions.

Moving from the EFL and ESL contexts, Neokleous (2022) investigated translanguaging in a multilingual classroom in Cyprus, where English is taught as an additional language. The findings urged stakeholders to reevaluate the monolingual ideologies that dominate teacher training programs, course designs, and objectives. The teachers and the students emphasised the importance of incorporating multilingual approaches. The students, in particular, valued the opportunity to use their home languages to scaffold their learning of challenging parts of the lesson. Translanguaging not only allowed them to stay engaged and motivated but also promoted equality and inclusivity in the classroom. Additionally, teachers highlighted the significance of professional development for effective translanguaging pedagogies. Still, one of the teachers expressed her lack of self-assurance in pursuing or incorporating multilingual practices into their classrooms and perceived her lack of sufficient knowledge as a potential barrier.

Unlike the previous studies, which emphasised the pedagogical benefits of translanguaging, Allard's (2017) study showed that translanguaging failed to meet its potential. The author investigated the perceptions of two instructors and their students from two ESL classes at a suburban high school in Marshall. A town in the U.S. which has historically attracted both immigrants and migrants due to its job market, relatively inexpensive housing, and convenient access to public transportation.

The teachers in the study lacked a translanguaging stance, which could have empowered them to depart from conventional ideologies and design purposeful translanguaging spaces in their classrooms. Additionally, the students complained about their instructors' mixing of English and Spanish. They preferred a monolingual approach to education and viewed language mixing as a linguistic practice for casual settings.

Analysing Allard's study revealed that it lacked two key strands of translanguaging pedagogy: teachers' stance and a translanguaging design (Garcia et al., 2017). The implications from Allard's study indicate that for translanguaging to meet its potential, it should go beyond spontaneous translanguaging. Besides the importance of a translanguaging design that purposefully incorporates

students' whole linguistic repertoire, translanguaging requires a philosophical stance that transcends conventional language ideologies, values dynamic bilingualism, and views students as emergent bilinguals rather than deficient or incompetent second-language learners (Garcia et al., 2017).

2.4.17 Challenges with Translanguaging Pedagogy

Among the primary challenges hindering the adoption of translanguaging pedagogy in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) are the prevalence of monolingual ideologies (Portoles & Marti, 2020). As a result, teachers face unfair accusations for hindering students' learning of the target language, and experience tension between the multilingual dynamic realities of the classroom and the imposed English-only policy (Wei & Lin, 2019).

Adding to the impeding effect of monolingual ideology on translanguaging pedagogy, Martinez et al. (2018) discovered that the students in two Spanish-English dual language elementary classrooms maintained a monolingual perspective on language learning and teaching, despite this viewpoint conflicting with their classroom reality, which shows translanguaging to be natural. Similarly, Liu et al. (2022) found that nine EAP students at a university in China expressed concerns about the teacher's translanguaging, believing it hindered the creation of a purely English-speaking environment and the development of English thinking styles. They felt this approach could lead to an over-reliance on Chinese. According to the authors, their preference for a pure English-speaking setting reflects monolingual and native-speakerist ideologies, underscoring the continued value some students place on language standardisation, which contrasts with the principles of translanguaging. In the same vein, Ticheloven et al. (2021) noted that some students in four multilingual schools in the Netherlands exhibited a structuralist view towards languages, expressing feelings of confusion when switching between languages. One of the 12-year-old students assumed that her brain could only process one language at a time, while another student voiced her concern that she might struggle to separate her languages in the future.

Another challenge is the lack of a supportive ecology that fosters translanguaging. Afitska (2020) found that the adoption of translanguaging pedagogy in a multilingual classroom has several constraints despite its benefits. The data were collected from a larger research project conducted in four classroom settings in England. The findings highlighted the significance of a supportive learning environment that embraces multilingualism. Afitska explained that schools only recognise and celebrate multilingualism as an extracurricular activity outside the classroom, rather than fostering multilingual pedagogies within the classrooms. Additionally, many teachers lack sufficient knowledge and training regarding the advantages of using translanguaging, which leads to reluctance in adopting this approach. Moreover, the author noted that students' perceptions towards translanguaging are largely influenced by their immediate environments, and that if their families, schools, and teachers discourage first language use, students are unlikely to engage in translanguaging (2020).

In the same vein, the research by Costley and Leung (2020) exemplified how translanguaging may face obstacles due to a lack of efficient institutional policies that support trans/multilingual pedagogy in education. The authors highlighted the noticeable absence of support from policymakers regarding the utilisation of multilingual approaches for instruction and assessments in England. Therefore, some teachers often face conflicts between the restrictive institutional policies of using only one language and their belief in bilingual, context-based teaching approaches.

Moreover, Allard (2017) asserted that this pedagogy can only meet its full potential when connected to a supportive bilingual ecology in and outside the classroom. The author noted that translanguaging served as a significant means of communication for teachers and their students at a small-town school in the US, characterised by a majority of migrants and immigrants. It enabled them to scaffold students' learning of classroom content, which had a positive impact on students' engagement. Despite its apparent usefulness, Allard found that the pedagogy failed to meet its transformative potential because it resided in an inhospitable environment that limited its teaching effectiveness.

Contrary to previous studies, which identified the absence of a supportive ecology as a barrier to translanguaging pedagogy, Little and Kirwan (2022) worked with a linguistically and culturally diverse primary school in Ireland, highlighting how a supportive environment that values bilingualism and recognises students' background knowledge can positively influence students' learning. The authors reported findings from integrating a plurilingual and intercultural approach to primary education, including translanguaging and other strategies. According to Little and Kirwan, the school's approach has led to several positive learning outcomes, such as increased language awareness and proficiency in Irish, literacy in students' home languages, greater motivation and capability to engage in language-related learning beyond the standard requirements, as well as improved self-confidence and self-esteem among pupils (2022).

As a response to the past obstacles encountered in translanguaging pedagogy, Garcia et al. (2021) promoted the idea of translanguaging as a gateway to building teachers' and students' resistance to the stigmatising impact of monolingual educational policies and to rally teachers and students against racial-linguistic ideas, encouraging them to think critically about language and education. To depart from conventional language ideologies, teachers should have the agency to create opportunities for translanguaging and critically examine language hierarchies within their own context. The intersection between translanguaging pedagogy and teachers' agency has been further explained by Phyak et al. (2022), who perceived translanguaging as more than a pedagogical approach but an ideological instrument for building teachers' resistance to the monolingual language policy. Additionally, it was found to validate students' multilingual identities and embrace the plurilingual and multicultural realities they bring to the classroom.

2.4.18 Conclusion

This chapter examined the existing literature on translanguaging, presenting its theoretical underpinnings, pedagogical implications, and the existing challenges that could impede its potential. It began by explaining the relationship of translanguaging to various theories and discussing its

evolution from the fixed approach in the Welsh classroom to the fluid approach in US bilingual education, and later to different contexts around the world. Translanguaging transcends boundaries between named languages and centres on the internal perspectives of bilinguals who perceive languages as resources in their own single linguistic repertoire. The distinctiveness of translanguaging as a pedagogy stems from its critical nature, which challenges standard language ideologies and signifies a shift to multilingual ideologies. It aims to bring about transformation in the field of ELT by deconstructing the long-held assumptions that underpin standard, structural, and monolithic views of languaging, which overlook the dynamic nature of language use in bilingual and multilingual contexts.

The chapter highlighted the intersection between translanguaging and World Englishes, proposing transcultural communication as a theoretical framework for the study. The practical application of this theoretical framework involves shifting the focus from national standards and scales to a more critical examination of language, culture, and identity (Baker, 2024). By combining translanguaging pedagogy with a transcultural communication framework, this study critically examines how language ideologies are embodied, resisted, and reimagined within EAP classrooms in Saudi Arabia. This dual lens allows for a richer understanding of the complexities shaping bilingual education in EFL contexts.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

The third chapter of this thesis details the research paradigm and approach. It starts with an analysis of the philosophical assumptions underlying the research paradigm, followed by a rationale for selecting a qualitative approach in the current exploratory case study. The chapter then presents an overview of the research setting and participants. Moreover, it elaborates on the process of fostering translanguaging pedagogy within the research context and illustrates the data collection tools. Finally, I discuss ethical considerations, illustrating how research ethics were maintained throughout the study.

3.2 Research Paradigm

One of the characteristics of quality research is to highlight the philosophical assumptions underlying the study and explain its research paradigm. According to Creswell and Poth (2016), these philosophical assumptions determine “what is the nature of reality (ontology), what is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched? (epistemology), and what is the process of research? (methodology)” (p. 17). Answering these three fundamental questions leads to defining the research paradigm, which describes the "set of generalisations, beliefs, and values of a community of specialists” (Creswell, 2011, p. 30).

Aliyu et al. (2015) explained that a constructivist paradigm sees reality as multiple and subjective. They also emphasised that another essential feature of constructivism is its interactive social nature, which entails that reality is socially constructed through interaction between people and larger social systems.

This study adopts a constructivist research paradigm, reflecting the researcher’s belief that reality is complex, multifaceted, and socially constructed through participants' interactions and perceptions. This perspective emphasises that reality is not a singular, objective entity, but rather a

construct shaped by various factors, including individual experiences and social contexts. A constructivist research paradigm recognises that individuals interpret their experiences in unique ways, thereby contributing to a dynamic, context-dependent understanding. By adopting this paradigm in the current study, the study aims to capture the nuanced and collaborative nature of knowledge creation within the specific English Language Institute (ELI) at a Saudi university. Recognising that reality is multifaceted and socially constructed, this research employs interviews with teachers, focus groups with students, and classroom observations.

3.3 Research Approach and Design

This research adopts a qualitative approach, which is defined by Creswell (1998) as “an inquiry process of understanding based on distinct methodological traditions of inquiry that explore a social or human problem. The researcher builds a complex, holistic picture, analyses words, reports detailed views of informants, and conducts the study in a natural setting” (p. 15). Collecting qualitative data through classroom observation, interviews, and focus groups with open-ended questionnaires aligns seamlessly with the qualitative research approach, as these tools are designed to elicit rich, contextualised insights into participants' experiences and perspectives (Creswell & Creswell, 2017).

The qualitative approach employed in this research provides a nuanced understanding of the teachers' and students' perceptions and experiences within the natural context of the ELI, offering rich insights into the complexities of language learning and teaching. This research aligns with the qualitative approach because it emphasises the collection of rich, descriptive and interactive data through qualitative tools, such as teacher interviews, classroom observations, and student focus groups.

Teachers' interviews allowed for in-depth exploration of their stances on monolingual pedagogy, native-speakerism and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. Classroom observations complemented the data collection by offering a direct view of the teaching and learning

dynamics, capturing the subtleties of classroom interactions and pedagogical strategies in action. Meanwhile, the students' focus groups facilitated a collective discussion, enabling participants to share and reflect on their experiences, fostering a rich interaction around their stance on monolingual pedagogy, native-speakerism, and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. Collectively, these three research tools enabled a comprehensive exploration of the complex interplay between ideology and practice, one of the primary focuses of this qualitative study.

This qualitative research fits an exploratory case study design, as in Yin (2018). My ontological and epistemological perspectives support the decision to adopt an exploratory case study design, as I aim to explore the participants' perceptions and experiences, and highlight the complex interplay between ideology and practice in the bounded system of the ELI. According to Schoch, a case study design entails a thorough and focused examination of a specific event, situation, organisation, or social unit. It operates within a defined spatial and temporal framework, allowing for an in-depth exploration of a contemporary phenomenon in its real-life context (2020).

In conducting case studies, Yin (2018) emphasised the importance of “defining the case and bounding the case” (p. 30). To define and bound this exploratory case study, it is essential to outline its scope and limits. The study aims to provide an in-depth exploration of teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism. Furthermore, the study aims to foster translanguaging pedagogy and explore its affordances in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom, highlighting how participants' ideological stances interact with their experience/practice of translanguaging pedagogy. This exploratory case study is confined to the specific educational setting of the ELI, involving six ‘Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers’ (NNESTs), six groups of beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate students (A2), and six observations of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classrooms.

Thomas emphasised that a “case study should not be seen as a method in and of itself. Rather, it is a design frame that may incorporate a number of methods” (Thomas, 2021, p. 512). Similarly, Schoch (2020) explained that a case study is better conceptualised by its bounded system and not by a

specific approach or data collection tools, as different studies could be conducted under the case study as an umbrella term. Therefore, it can be argued that the design frame of this case study involves fostering translanguaging pedagogy to explore its affordances in the bounded research setting of the ELI. According to Yin (2018), what characterises an exploratory case study is the focus on ‘how’ and/or ‘why’ research questions that are directed at exploring some phenomena in a bounded system. In this sense, fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the current study aligns with the description of an exploratory case study. It helped to answer the third research question, which centres on how teachers and their students engage with translanguaging pedagogy within the bounded system of the ELI.

3.4 Research Setting and Participants

This study was conducted at the English Language Institute (ELI) of a Saudi university. As noted in the introduction chapter, Arabic is the official language of Saudi Arabia, while English is a foreign language. The Arabic language is deeply connected to cultural, Islamic, and national identity in Saudi Arabia. Conversely, English is often regarded as globally significant and a key medium for economic growth, technological development, scientific progress, and international engagement (Alqahtani, 2022).

Exploring translanguaging in this context could provide insights into the extent to which the socio-politically constructed statuses of English and Arabic could influence the topic under investigation. Therefore, the Saudi context contributes to the global discourse on language and power, highlighting unique challenges and strategies that may differ from other contexts.

My choice of this research context was influenced by the paucity of research in the Saudi context. As noted by Prilutskaya (2021), only 3% of the empirical research on translanguaging is conducted in the Middle East. Another reason is my role as a lecturer in the research setting. Being an insider researcher enabled access to research participants and facilitated administrative permissions, particularly obtaining ethical approval from the ELI. It is worth mentioning that the study was

conducted after getting two ethical approvals from the University of Strathclyde and the Saudi University, where the study was conducted.

The ELI consists of different tracks designed to prepare students with the linguistic and communicative skills needed for their future majors. This study focuses on the academic English track, also known globally as English for Academic Purposes (EAP). It is designed for students who intend to enrol in departments where English is the only or primary language of instruction. These departments include the faculties of medicine, science, and engineering. The EAP track is a rigorous course that is convened for fifteen hours weekly. It consists of two levels corresponding to beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). According to the (A1) course guide, the course familiarises students with the fundamentals of academic English. It seeks to elevate them to an (A2) proficiency level by equipping them with essential skills and exposing them to academic English in the four primary skills. The (A2) course aims to facilitate students' effective transition to intermediate (B1) competency in Academic English and prepare them with the basic skills needed for their future English-medium disciplines.

When it comes to the research sample (see Tables 3.1 and 3.2), a large sample size is not suitable for this qualitative study because the study's conclusions are not intended to be generalisable. Benoot et al. (2016) found purposeful sampling to be suitable when the researcher aims to explore the intricacies of various conceptualisations rather than finding one definitive answer. Moreover, the use of purposeful sampling is consistent with the objectives of this qualitative research, which aims not to cover all relevant cases comprehensively but to explore in depth the participants' perceptions of the topics being studied. The sampling procedure involved purposeful sampling focusing on bilingual or multilingual Arabic-speaking EAP teachers of the two available proficiency levels in the ELI (beginners and pre-intermediate students). The rationale behind focusing on the EAP teachers was underpinned by the contextual gap of empirical studies exploring translanguaging in the EAP classroom. As noted by Liu et al. (2022), studies investigating translanguaging pedagogy in the EAP classroom are rare. Subsequently, the study responds to recent calls to involve more extensive

university settings to investigate teachers' and students' views, experiences, and insights regarding translanguaging pedagogy.

To illustrate, the inclusion criteria specified bilingual or multilingual Arabic-speaking teachers since all the students are Arabs, and the study aims to explore teachers' stances on first language (L1) usage and their experience with translanguaging pedagogy. When I started recruiting the teachers, I hoped for a more diverse research sample of teachers from different nationalities and backgrounds, including 'Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NESTs) and 'Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NNESTs). Still, this was not easy to achieve since most of the teachers in the ELI are Saudis (185 out of 225). Eventually, I settled with six Saudi EAP teachers. All of them are 'NNESTs' and speak Arabic as a native language. Two of the six teachers were teaching beginners (A1), and the other four were teaching pre-intermediates (A2).

Being an insider researcher at the ELI and an EAP teacher myself made access to the students more convenient. The students who were recruited for the study were taught by the six EAP teachers who were recruited for the study. They were chosen using convenience sampling, a method that involves selecting cases that are easily accessible and practical to study (Benoot et al., 2016). I expected to face some hurdles in recruiting students, such as their hesitance to join and the challenges posed by conflicting class schedules that make it hard to arrange focus groups. So, I asked the six teachers to encourage any interested students from their classes to join the focus groups. Fortunately, twenty-five students aged between seventeen and nineteen volunteered for this part of the study. Additionally, none of the students in the six classes objected to being part of the audio-recorded classroom observations. The following tables illustrate the participants' information and the size of the research samples. The participants' names in this research have been replaced with pseudonyms to protect their identities. All the teachers and their students are Saudi females who speak Arabic as their native language. The students studied English for ten to twelve years throughout their primary, intermediate, and high school education. However, those enrolled in public schools began learning English two years later than their counterparts in private schools.

Table 3.1: Research sample (teachers)

Teacher's Name	Academic Qualifications	Course Level	Languages Spoken Other Than English and Arabic	Years of Teaching Experience	Number of Students Enrolled in Class	Number of Students in Focus Groups
Samya	PhD in education	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	14 years	20	5
Amena	Master's in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)	Beginner (A1)	--	17 years	25	4
Thekryat	Master's in TESOL	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	5 years	19	3
Mera	Master's in applied linguistics	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	12 years	27	5
Hanouf	Master's in TESOL	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	5 years	25	5
Amani	Master's in applied linguistics	Beginner (A1)	Spanish	6 years	18	3

Table 3.2: Research sample (students)

Student's Name	Age	Language Proficiency Level	Languages Spoken Other Than English and Arabic	Track	Years of Studying English
Amna	18	A1(beginner)	--	English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	10 Years
Bodor	17	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Dalia	19	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Reema	19	A1	Turkish	EAP	10 years
Sama	19	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Fatma	19	A1		EAP	10 Years
Tala	19	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Layal	17	A2 (pre-intermediate)	--	EAP	12 years
Rajeen	18	A2	--	EAP	10 Years
Hanan	19	A2	--	EAP	12 Years
Fatena	19	A2		EAP	10 Years
Ruba	19	A2	Korean	EAP	12 Years
Danah	17	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Jori	19	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Alaa	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Lubna	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years

Hawra	18	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Meznah	19	A2	French	EAP	12 years
Nada	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Layan	19	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Halah	18	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Lena	19	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Shatha	17	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Amal	18	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Ruba	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years

3.5. Research Process

As explained in section (2.4.8) of the literature review, the current study builds upon the three strands in translanguaging pedagogy: Stance, Design, and Shifts (Garcia et al., 2017). These three strands have been adjusted to meet the research process of the current study. As shown in Figure 3.1, this study consists of four stages: Stance, fostering translanguaging pedagogy, classroom observation and reflection. All these stages incorporate the students' voices or aim to capture their experiences, except for the second stage, which centres on working with the teachers to foster translanguaging pedagogy in the current context.

The adjustments to the framework offered by Garcia et al. (2017) were made to bridge some of the limitations surrounding its scope and applicability. The original framework focuses solely on teachers and overlooks the critical role of investigating students' stances on standard language ideologies and how they interplay with their experiences and perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. This study contributes to the original framework by incorporating the perspectives of teachers and students into the stance and reflection stages. These adjustments promote equal

participation and valuable insights from the participants and encourage multiple angles on how translanguaging pedagogy influences the teaching and learning experience.

Moreover, the second strand in the original framework (design) was replaced with (fostering translanguaging pedagogy) in two stages. The first stage is introducing translanguaging as a theory and a legitimate pedagogy. The second stage involves working with teachers to tailor this pedagogy to meet the current research context and developing a reading lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. The next stage is classroom observation, which aims to capture how teachers and their students engage with this pedagogy and the extent to which it can shape the teaching and learning process. Finally, the third strand in the original framework (shifts) was replaced with (reflection). According to Garcia and Kleyn, the shifts involve negotiating the instructional design and making spontaneous changes to enhance student learning and comprehension. It demonstrates teachers' adaptability and desire to evaluate the learning process, value students' feedback and their learning experiences (2016). The current study presents reflection as a more comprehensive stage, incorporating the evaluations of teachers and students and uncovering the challenges, implications and benefits of translanguaging pedagogy.

Figure 3.1 Research process



- 1- Stance: The primary objective of this stage is to investigate the ideological perspectives of teachers and students on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism by examining their views on four key themes. These include the status of the English-only policy in the ELI and the degree to which it is adhered to, the implications of the 'NESTs' versus 'NNESTs'

dichotomy on teachers' professional identities and students' preferences, their perceptions of dominant Anglo-American language varieties in relation to other global varieties, and teachers' perceptions towards the dominant teaching methodologies that are rooted in monolingual ideologies. Understanding the views of both students and teachers on those topics is essential for this study, as it can significantly influence their experiences and perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

- 2- Fostering translanguaging pedagogy to explore its affordances in the EFL classroom: This exploratory case study involves a translanguaging-informed session that aims to raise teachers' awareness about this pedagogy. Then, the teachers and I worked on moving the theory of translanguaging into practice by developing a reading lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy (see section 3.6.2). The translanguaging-informed session centred on discussing three key questions: What is translanguaging pedagogy? Why should educators move away from traditional language ideologies in favour of translanguaging pedagogy? And how can we incorporate translanguaging into our classrooms? After the session, the teachers and I worked as knowledge brokers, negotiating different strategies for translanguaging pedagogy and working on tailoring this pedagogy to be most effective for our EFL research context.
- 3- Classroom observations: The third stage of the research process aims to explore the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in the current context by observing teachers' and students' engagement with this pedagogy and the extent to which it can impact teachers' professional practice and students' learning. The third stage specifically examines whether teachers can deliberately and systematically create translanguaging spaces that challenge the monolingual approach to second language learning. Additionally, this stage investigates students' engagement within these translanguaging practices, particularly whether they are willing to embrace this pedagogy or if they show any resistance due to their standard language ideologies. Moreover, this stage aims to uncover the implications/ functions of translanguaging pedagogy.

- 4- Reflection: Through teachers' follow-up interviews and students' follow-up focus groups, this stage focuses on revealing the perceived pedagogical benefits as well as the challenges that surround this pedagogy. Exploring the participants' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy in the reflection stage, alongside their views on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism in the stance stage, can illuminate the extent to which their stance on second language learning and teaching influences their experience/perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

3.6 Fostering Translanguaging Pedagogy

To foster translanguaging pedagogy in the current research setting, I worked with six EAP teachers to explore its affordances, its impact on the teaching and learning experience, and its overall implications. This stage of the research process was vital in raising teachers' awareness of translanguaging pedagogy, building their agency against the restrictive standard language ideologies in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), and assisting them in implementing its strategies in their classrooms.

The process of fostering translanguaging pedagogy was initiated after the three-week stance stage of teachers' interviews and students' focus groups. In week four, I led a two-hour meeting with the teachers to introduce translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogy and to develop a unified framework for six different reading lessons informed by translanguaging pedagogy. The following weeks, five, six, and seven, marked the classroom observations of six EAP classes. Teachers' follow-up interviews and students' follow-up focus groups were conducted directly after the end of each class.

3.6.1 Translanguaging-Oriented Session

During the first hour of my meeting with the teachers, I presented a session on translanguaging pedagogy (see Figure 3.2). In the session, I discussed translanguaging as a legitimate

pedagogy that departs from monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism. The session focused on discussing the following three main questions, which formed the basis of what the teachers learned from the translanguaging-oriented session.

- 1- What is translanguaging pedagogy?**
- 2- Why do teachers need to depart from standard language ideologies and adopt translanguaging pedagogy?**
- 3- How can we implement translanguaging pedagogy in the English as a Foreign Language classroom (EFL)?**

What is translanguaging pedagogy?

To introduce the concept of translanguaging, I discussed with the teachers some key concepts that challenge standard and structural language ideologies, such as the Trans-language Movement and the Multilingual Turn (see Section 2.4.11). This part of the session focused on emphasising the value of multilingualism and problematising the monolingual and native speakerist ideologies, particularly in today's global world, where English is spoken as a lingua franca, and all varieties and speakers of the language are legitimate in the context of World Englishes.

Then, I introduced the theoretical underpinnings of translanguaging and how it departs from the long-held assumptions that dominate the field of ELT, centring on the monolingual native speaker model as a standard reference. The teachers learned that translanguaging theory challenges the monolithic view of languages as distinct entities and views bilingualism as a dynamic and fluid process which exhibits speakers' engagement with their whole linguistic repertoire. I introduced translanguaging as a transformative pedagogy that challenges common misconceptions about non-native English speakers. These unfair assumption portrays them as incompetent or defiant compared to the native model and overlook their rich linguistic repertoire. Translanguaging shifts this narrative by deconstructing the long-held assumptions that underpin standard, structural, and monolithic views

of languaging, which overlook the dynamic nature of language use in bilingual and multilingual contexts.

To answer the question of what translanguaging pedagogy is, I introduced it to the teachers as “planned by the teacher inside the classroom and can refer to the use of different languages for input and output or to other planned strategies based on the use of students’ resources from the whole linguistic repertoire” (Cenoz & Gorter, 2017, p. 149). This definition was chosen because it combines both the fixed and fluid approaches of translanguaging (see section 2.4.4), allowing for flexible and richer application to this pedagogy. It includes the alternation between languages for input and output as in the fixed approach, while also aligning with the fluid approach, which emphasises the concept of a whole linguistic repertoire.

Given the two approaches to translanguaging pedagogy, the teachers and I discussed the suitability of the fluid approach for activities that centre on meaning-making, classroom discussion, and checking students’ comprehension. On the other hand, the fixed approach was vital when the objective of the activity required switching from Arabic to the target language to assess students’ speaking competence in English.

The second part of the translanguaging-oriented session aimed to answer the following question:

Why do teachers need to depart from standard language ideologies and adopt translanguaging pedagogy?

To answer this question, the session focused on challenging conventional language ideologies that centre the monolingual native speaker as the standard reference for second-language learning. I drew on teachers’ perceptions during the stance stage, which sometimes uncovered feelings of guilt for deviating from the assumed monolingual norm despite their belief in bilingual instructions. The session focused on building teachers’ agency to confidently embrace students’ whole linguistic repertoire without feeling guilty for deconstructing the monolingual assumed norm. Most

importantly, it aimed to problematise the conventional language ideologies that impede students' learning and restrict them from cultivating their identities as bilinguals.

Despite their limited awareness of translanguaging pedagogy and their occasional feelings of guilt for deviating from the imposed monolingual assumption, the teachers began to express a sense of trust in translanguaging, especially when they found it to be aligned with what they had always considered natural in their classrooms. Based on their past teaching experience, they demonstrated strong support for bilingual instruction, particularly for students who tend to be passive in class due to their low English proficiency levels or foreign language anxiety. Consequently, the teachers were curious to explore translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogical approach.

The last part of the session aimed to move the theory of translanguaging into practice by discussing the following question:

How can we implement translanguaging in our English as a Foreign Language classroom (EFL)?

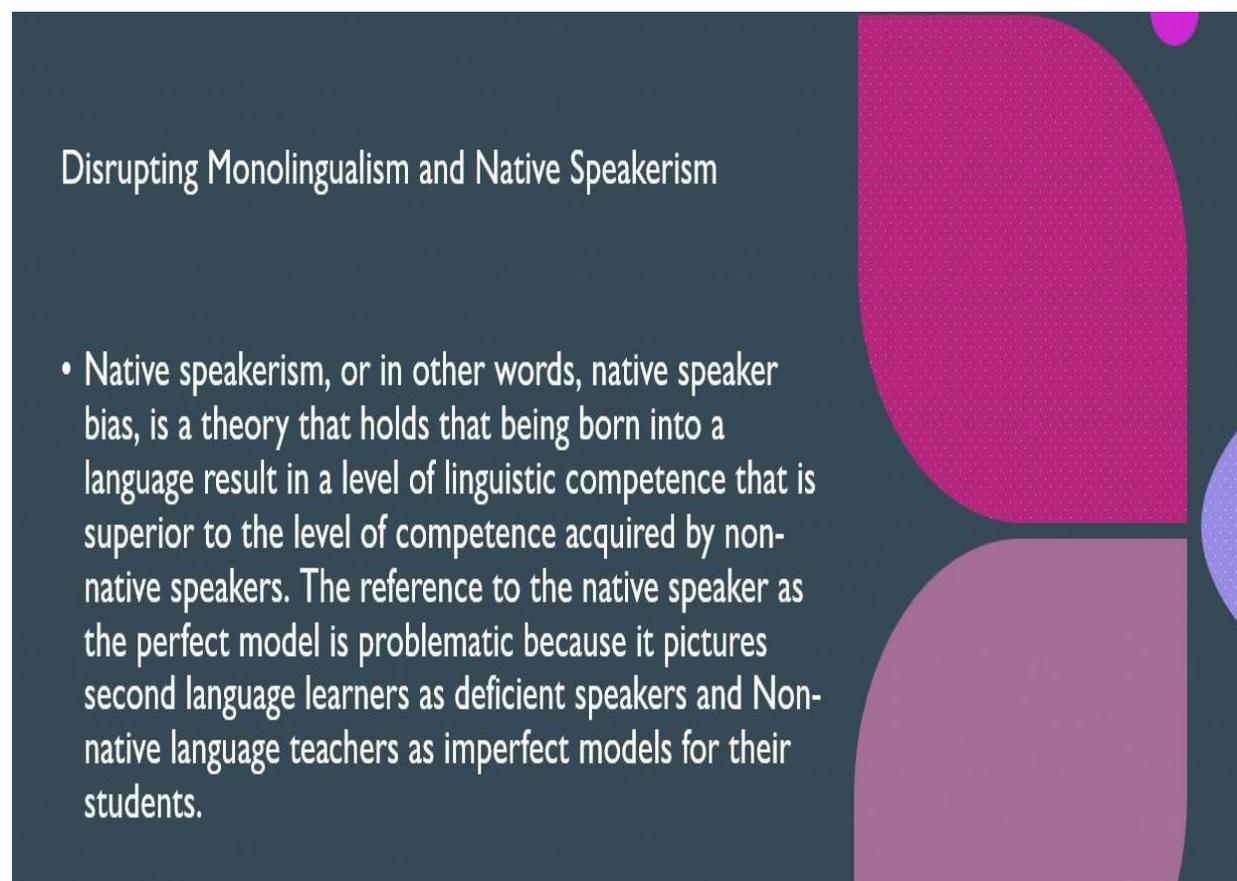
By the time we reached the end of the translanguaging-oriented session, the teachers had already formed an idea about translanguaging as a strategic and purposeful pedagogy. Moreover, we had discussed the benefits of merging the fixed and fluid approaches based on the objective of the classroom activity. Yet, there was still some uncertainty about how to translate this pedagogy into actual teaching strategies in the EFL classroom.

Before conducting the session with the teachers, I had the opportunity to ask Ofelia Garcia about this question during the online conference titled “Translanguaging Meanings and Convergences, conducted at Moray House School of Education at the University of Edinburgh in March 2023. She stated that in an EFL context, focusing on the target language is essential. However, she advocated for creating small translanguaging spaces in specific tasks, such as establishing a translanguaging space in students' pair work to scaffold their learning. Another strategy is allowing students in group work to negotiate the meaning of an English text in their L1. Additionally, she

suggested translanguaging as a comprehension check for students who struggle to express themselves in English only. All these strategies were discussed with the teachers to give them a sense of the practical implementation of translanguaging in their classroom. Additionally, we discussed various other strategies for implementing translanguaging in reading, primarily drawing from the translanguaging guide for educators (Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

The following figure presents snapshots from the content of the translanguaging-oriented session, offering an overview of the strategies discussed with the teachers.

Figure 3.2 Snapshots from the translanguaging-oriented session

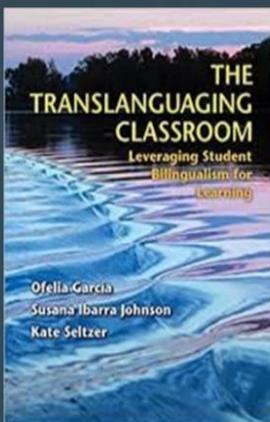


Does Pedagogical Translanguaging Mean that Students Can Use Any Language they Want in the Classroom?

Allowing translanguaging has to be **purposeful** and **strategic**.

- Why do I need to create a Translanguaging space in my classroom?
- Inclusion (more active to passive role)
- Supporting students as they engage with and comprehend complex content and texts. (meaning making- building background knowledge)
- Providing opportunities for students to develop linguistic practices for academic contexts. (metalinguistic awareness)
- Making space for students' bilingualism and ways of knowing.
- Supporting students' socioemotional development and bilingual identities. (Alleviate foreign language anxiety)

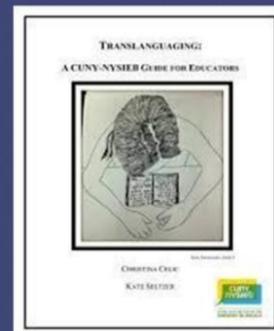
Strategies to Implement Translanguaging:



• Translanguaging Guide:

The crown jewels of CUNY-NYSIEB, these guides offer dozens of strategies and approaches for teachers working with emergent bilingual students at all grade levels and in all program models.

- [Translanguaging: A CUNY-NYSIEB Guide for Educators](#)



Examples of Implementing Translanguaging in Classroom Activities:

- Allow pairs to ‘turn and talk’ using all their language resources.
- Allow students to respond and pose questions in class discussions by using all their linguistic repertoire.
- Compare and contrast language features for metalinguistic awareness.
- Annotate a Text. To do this, students look up words that are critical to their comprehension of the text and write the translation in their home language next to the English word in the text.

(Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

Examples of Implementing Pedagogical Translanguaging in Classroom Activities:

- Preview-View-Review, which is useful for including both English and students’ home languages when building background and reading texts/introducing new topics.
- Preview in home language & then collaborate in English. Before you introduce any content-area topic, you can have the students preview the topic in their home language. (via the internet, books, interviews). This builds their background knowledge.
- Brainstorm in any language & Write in English.
- Listen in English & Discuss in any language. They could be listening to you talk about a topic, listening to someone read a text, or watching media about the topic.

(Celic & Seltzer, 2013).

How Can I
Implement
Pedagogical
Translanguaging in
My Classroom?

3.6.2 Developing a Reading Lesson Informed by Translanguaging Pedagogy

After the translanguaging-oriented session, the teachers and I all took active parts in developing a lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. We acted as knowledge brokers and negotiated how to tailor this pedagogy to meet the nature of our research context, where English is the target language and Arabic is the native language of all participants. While we believe in translanguaging pedagogy for maximising students' learning opportunities and building their identities as bilinguals, we also did not want to jeopardise the centrality of English as a target language in the EAP classrooms.

While working on the lesson, we reflected on the contextual factors and the challenges that arise from implementing translanguaging in the EFL context. It is worth noting that the teachers in the stance stage exhibited a philosophical stance that diverges from standard language ideologies and believe in the benefits of bilingualism. However, when discussing the affordances of translanguaging in the current context, they expressed understandable concerns about meeting the monolingual classroom objectives and preparing their students for institutional assessments at the ELI. Subsequently, we discussed the importance of centralising the target language to meet the needs of our students and the expectations of the research setting. We also addressed the significant power imbalance between Arabic, the dominant and native language for all participants, and English, which is a foreign language for our beginner (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) students. To overcome those challenges, we discussed adopting what I label as a conscious version of translanguaging.

A conscious version of translanguaging emerged from our discussion on how to tailor this pedagogy to our teaching context. What makes this version conscious is its acknowledgement that named languages do not hold equal status in the classroom. It considers the socio-political dynamics involving English and Arabic, particularly in the context of the Saudi EFL classroom. In such a context, promoting a strong version of translanguaging could inadvertently elevate the status of Arabic while diminishing students' opportunities to learn English. A conscious version of

translanguaging means that teachers should thoughtfully, strategically, and purposefully allow students to alternate between the fluid approach (in the form of creating translanguaging spaces that utilise the students' whole linguistic repertoire) and the fixed approach (in the form of transitioning to English after the translanguaging space). This planned alternation helps mitigate reliance on a single language, particularly in our context, where our students are prone to relying on Arabic since they are all native Arabic speakers. By strategically alternating between translanguaging spaces and English-only, we aimed to maximise our students' learning and engagement in class, allowing them to fully demonstrate their content comprehension, develop metalinguistic awareness, and build on their identity as bilinguals.

Our conscious version of translanguaging may align with what Garcia and Lin (2017) label as a weak version of translanguaging, as the boundaries between L1 and L2 are softened but not entirely erased. Still, I argue that labelling translanguaging pedagogy in the EFL classroom as a weak version is unfair for its transformative impact, which will be highlighted in the findings and discussion chapters. The weak version label undermines the potential of translanguaging in deconstructing the prevailing monolingual and native speakerist ideologies in the field of English language teaching (ELT). By cultivating teachers' stances and assisting them in implementing translanguaging in their EFL classrooms, this study takes on a significant challenge of opening new pathways that depart from dominant language ideologies. Subsequently, a conscious version of translanguaging is strong in the sense of reassessing the standard language ideologies underpinned by the monolingual native speaker model.

3.6.2.1 Translanguaging Pedagogy in Reading.

As mentioned in section (2.4.7), this study takes a holistic approach and adopts a “translanguaging lens” (Seals, 2021, p. 4) by viewing any evidence of challenging monolingual pedagogy, whether spontaneously (what would be typically called code switching in a different

monolingual framework based on distinct codes) or pedagogically (the purposeful and strategic design of translanguaging spaces based on the use of students' whole linguistic repertoire).

In the process of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the current research setting, I informed the teachers about my interest in exploring the affordances of this approach in reading. The reading class provides rich opportunities for exploring various skills and activities, including reading comprehension, vocabulary acquisition, and classroom discussions. To guide this exploration, we agreed to develop a unified framework for six different reading lessons informed by translanguaging pedagogy. This involves defining the translanguaging strategies to be used across the six lessons, outlining the types of activities, their objectives, and instructions. Having a unified framework for the six reading lessons was essential to ensure that all participants experience the same variables. The decision to adopt a unified framework for the reading lessons was made easier because all the teachers were teaching the same coursebook (Unlock) published by Cambridge Press (see Appendix 1 for the lesson layout). The choice of lesson topics was not optional but dictated by the ELI's pacing guide, which provides all teachers with a weekly outline of the sequence and number of units to be covered during the semester. Since the classroom observations took place over three weeks, the teachers applied the same translanguaging strategies across various reading topics, including customs and traditions, health and fitness, discovery and invention, places, and video games.

Ultimately, we agreed on three translanguaging strategies, which were translated into students' worksheets (see Appendix 2 for the worksheet). These strategies are:

1-Alternating between the two languages to learn the key vocabulary of the reading passage.

Translation was one of the translanguaging strategies suggested by Celic and Seltzer (2013) in their guide on translanguaging for educators. Still, the teachers and I hesitated to ask the students to translate the key vocabulary in the reading passage, knowing that some might fall for literal

translation or use the words out of context. Therefore, one of the teachers suggested offering the Arabic equivalent of the key English vocabulary and placing those Arabic words in complete sentences to clarify the correct context. Then, ask the students to match the English key vocabulary with their Arabic equivalents. The final step of the activity required them to compose a complete sentence in English using the same key vocabulary. This activity aimed to utilise students' whole linguistic repertoire to improve their metalinguistic awareness, engage students with higher thinking skills that involve composing sentences rather than simply translating, and finally, explore whether translanguaging can influence vocabulary acquisition. This strategy aligns with the fixed approach to translanguaging because the students alternated between the two languages for input (the Arabic sentence) and output (by composing a new sentence in English).

2-Creating a translanguaging space for annotating the reading passage in any language (English and/or Arabic).

Initially, I suggested that students annotate the English reading passage in Arabic to see if they can comprehend the content in one language and synthesise its main ideas in another. However, three of the teachers suggested granting the students a translanguaging space to see how they creatively navigate the activity. By allowing students to use both Arabic and English, we aimed to support their understanding and encourage them to express their thoughts more freely. This approach not only facilitated deeper engagement with the text but also fostered a more inclusive learning environment where students could leverage their bilingual skills to enhance comprehension and critical thinking. Overall, the activity aimed to assess students' grasp of the material while promoting their ability to connect ideas across languages, rather than testing their English competence.

By not policing students' language use in this activity, the teachers and I agreed that this space could reveal students' language-learning ideologies and whether they chose to engage with their linguistic repertoire or adhere to a single language. This translanguaging space was designed to allow students to explore their linguistic repertoire with “creativity and criticality, as proposed by Wei

(2018, p. 22). It builds their autonomy as independent learners and gives them agency over their language use. This activity aligns with the fluid approach because it motivates the students to go beyond named languages and think of the languages in their repertoire as assets rather than sociopolitical constructs (Kleyn & Garcia, 2019; Otheguy et al., 2015).

3-Creating a translanguaging space in students' pair work to prepare for the classroom discussion in English.

This activity aimed to explore how fostering a collaborative learning environment that values students' whole linguistic repertoire could impact their learning, classroom participation, and overall well-being. By creating a translanguaging space in students' paired work and then prompting them to produce an output in English, this task aligns with both the fluid and fixed approaches to translanguaging. It started by allowing students to engage in a translanguaging space during their paired discussions, encouraging them to share ideas openly and focus on negotiating the content of the reading passage. Then, the students were asked to alternate to English for the final output in the classroom discussion. This step was essential in mitigating the possibility of students relying solely on their native language and in promoting the practice of the target language in EAP classrooms.

3.7 Data Collection Tools

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, this study adopts a constructivist research paradigm, reflecting the researcher's belief that reality is multifaceted, subjective, and shaped by participants' interactions and perceptions. The research paradigm underlying this qualitative study informed the choice of its research tools, including interviews, focus groups, and classroom observations. The research tools used in this exploratory case study were selected to explore their underlying views on second language teaching/learning and examine the extent to which their

ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism could intersect with their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. As shown in the following table, this research combines three research tools to answer four research questions:

Table 3.3: Research questions and tools

Research questions	Research tools
1- What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy?	Teachers' interviews and students' focus groups
2: What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on native-speakerism?	Teachers' interviews and students' focus groups
3: How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?	Classroom observations
4: What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experiences with translanguaging pedagogy?	The first part of the question depends on teachers' follow-up interviews and students' follow-up focus groups. Answering the second part involves juxtaposing the findings from the stance and reflection stages of the research process (see Figure 3.1).

3.7.1 Semi-Structured Interviews with Teachers

Two rounds of semi-structured interviews were conducted with the teachers. The first was in the stance stage, and the follow-up interviews took place in the reflection stage right after their classroom observations (see Appendix 9 for the interview questions). The total duration of the interviews varies between the teachers, with an average of fifteen minutes.

The choice of semi-structured interviews was underpinned by its benefits. According to Mackey and Gass (2015), semi-structured interviews enable researchers to reveal less detectable phenomena, such as participants' impressions and attitudes. Additionally, this research tool provides more in-depth information, as it is participatory and allows researchers to ask follow-up questions if participants provide unclear, inadequate, or irrelevant answers. Furthermore, interviews can be used to gather information from participants who might feel apprehensive about participating in other data collection forms. To illustrate, some people prefer face-to-face interaction when answering questions because they can ask for clarification when needed.

However, Hall and Rist (1999) identified some limitations of individual interviews, which were taken into consideration during the data collection process. The authors noted that conducting interviews can be time-consuming, particularly when working with a large number of participants. It is also possible for an interviewee to feel apprehensive, as though the interviewer is singling them out in a private interview. Another problem is that the interviewer and interviewee might be at odds or dislike each other. If this is the case, it is unlikely that the person being interviewed will be honest and open. To overcome some of the previous limitations, I worked with a manageable number of six EAP teachers since the study aims to gain a profound understanding and interpretation of a specific phenomenon. As explained in the following section, I chose to conduct focus groups with the students, as they might feel anxious or singled out in private interviews. Finally, all the participants were selected based on their interest and willingness to cooperate with the researcher. This has led to a dynamic, authentic, and more productive interviewing experience.

3.7.2 Focus Groups with Students

Focus groups “involve several participants in a group discussion, often with a facilitator whose goal is to keep the group discussion targeted on specific topics” (Mackey & Gass, 2015, p. 356). This study employed two focus groups of beginners and four focus groups of pre-intermediate students enrolling in the EAP classrooms (see Appendix 8 for the focus group questions). The total number of students in the six focus groups is twenty-five. Each group was interviewed twice: once in the stance stage, before attending the lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy, and finally in a follow-up focus group after the classroom observation. The total duration of each focus group ranges from 20 to 30 minutes. Considering that students’ proficiency in English could be a barrier, I conducted the focus groups in Arabic, as this could significantly alleviate any concerns about proficiency level impacting the depth and precision of the participants’ responses (Mackey & Gass, 2015). The focus groups were audio-recorded and transcribed in English to facilitate data analysis.

Several reasons supported the use of focus groups as a research tool. Leung and Savithiri (2009) asserted that focus groups could be more practical and consume less effort and time. Furthermore, they argued that the voices of many people in focus groups may provide more substantial validity to an opinion than the voices of the same number of participants in private interviews. Additionally, the group's interactions encourage participants to engage in a nuanced discussion, yielding rich findings.

On the other hand, Hall and Rist (1999) highlighted some challenges that have been considered in order to maximise the effectiveness of this research tool. Among these challenges is the interviewer bearing the brunt of the responsibility for the quality of the interaction between the participants. Additionally, the authors noted that working through a large volume of typed notes from an hour-and-a-half focus group can be time-consuming and exhausting. To overcome this limitation, I refined the semi-structured interview questions in consultation with my supervisors to ensure they remained clear and concise. This resulted in focused discussions and a reasonable amount of transcription for the data analysis.

3.7.3 Classroom Observations

Observation is a research method that enables researchers to systematically observe and record people's behaviour, actions and interactions. The method also allows researchers to obtain a detailed description of people's behaviour within their own socio-cultural context (Hennink et al., 2020). The current study is based on one-hour-long classroom observation of six EAP classes. The decision to use audio recordings instead of video recordings was based on the university policy, which prohibits filming female students on campus due to traditional practices aimed at protecting their privacy. Incorporating this research tool provided data triangulation from three different sources. The multiple data methods allowed me to cross-verify findings, which enhanced the credibility and reliability of the research. It also allowed me to view the phenomenon from different angles, leading to a more comprehensive understanding of the findings.

Mackey and Gass (2015) noted some limitations to classroom observations, which I kept in mind during the classroom observations. One is the *Hawthorne Effect*, which may happen when participants improve their performance due to their consciousness of being part of a study and receiving attention from the researcher. To overcome this limitation, I reassured the participants that the study's goal was to explore the topics under investigation rather than judge or evaluate their teaching and learning experiences. Additionally, the methodological triangulation of two other research tools helped minimise this effect by cross-verifying findings and gaining a multilayered understanding of the teachers' and students' perceptions and practices.

While I gathered data from six different classroom observations across two groups of participants and three research tools, this exploratory case study is bounded by six single lessons and does not aim to offer longitudinal findings. This could raise a research limitation around reliance on a single event as the basis for conclusions. To address this limitation, I recognise the need for a more longitudinal approach that would provide comprehensive insights over time. Additionally, I frame these observations as a starting point for further investigation, particularly in an under-investigated

context such as Saudi Arabia. As noted by Prilutskaya (2021), empirical studies on translanguaging reveal a research gap in the Global South, with only 3% of the studies capturing the Middle East.

In his discussion of case study research, Yin emphasised that it could yield rich, contextual insights that are valuable even when based on limited observations. He argued that the strength of qualitative research lies in its ability to capture complexities and nuances, which can resonate with broader theories (2018). In line with Yin's argument, this case study situates its findings within the broader theory of transcultural communication and studies across different settings (see chapter 5).

3.7.3.1 The goal of the classroom observations.

The goal of the classroom observations was to answer the third research question of this exploratory case study:

3: How do the teachers and students engage with the translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?

The classroom observation aimed to explore the affordances of this pedagogy in the research setting. By investigating how the teachers engage with translanguaging pedagogy, the study aims to explore the impact of fostering translanguaging pedagogy on teachers' professional practices. Specifically, their ability to create purposeful translanguaging spaces and thoughtful classroom instructions that foster students' use of their whole linguistic repertoire. Such observations are worthy of investigation, especially in light of the reported tension between teachers' desire to have more agency in their classroom and the imposed monolingual policies (Shin et al., 2020; Wei & Lin, 2019), alongside the deeply rooted monolingual ideologies that lead teachers to conceal or ignore instances of translanguaging since they contradict their assumptions about good teaching (Fallas Escobar, 2019).

Furthermore, I was eager to observe how students would adapt to the significant shift in the classroom, where translanguaging is no longer a covert, spontaneous practice but becomes integrated into classroom activities. The classroom observations were a vital research tool for investigating how this approach can be applied and identifying its implications, challenges and pedagogical functions. Most importantly, they served as foundations for later reflections on the classroom dynamic, as they provided valuable insights that were further explored through follow-up interviews and follow-up focus groups. Whereas classroom interaction showed how the participants engaged with this pedagogy, follow-up interviews and focus groups revealed some of the affordances and constraints of purposefully bringing translanguaging into the classroom. This interplay between the observation and reflection stages enriched the overall understanding of how translanguaging was implemented and its impact on teaching and learning.

3.7.3.2 My role during the classroom observations.

At the beginning of each lesson, I introduced myself to the students as an insider researcher from the ELI. I briefed the students about my research interests and introduced them to the concept of translanguaging, gave them a glimpse into what the study centred on, and explained what it would entail on their part. I emphasised that the intent of this research is not to evaluate their performance or perceptions, but rather to document their experiences, including the advantages, disadvantages and challenges they may face with translanguaging pedagogy. Additionally, I assured both teachers and students that the classroom recordings would be kept anonymous and securely stored.

While keeping my research question in focus, I mainly approached the classroom observations with curiosity and an open mind. This approach aligns with what Thomas (2021) described as non-structured classroom observations. I chose this flexible method because it allows the researcher to gather insights without a predetermined framework, thereby gaining a more engaged understanding of the dynamics at play. Adopting a non-structured classroom observation approach in the current study enabled richer findings on the topic under investigation. Ultimately, I was able to

gather various data on the practical implications of this pedagogy, including its impact on classroom dynamics, its pedagogical benefits, as well as the limitations and challenges that arose from it.

The classroom observations were not restricted to exploring teachers' and students' engagement with the three translanguaging strategies that formed the basis of the lessons. I was also curious to explore whether the teachers engage in spontaneous translanguaging, act as bilingual models for their students, or adhere to English-only. As mentioned in section (2.4.7), the study aligns with Cenoz and Gorter's call to perceive the two types of translanguaging within a continuum rather than a dichotomy. Pedagogical translanguaging can unintentionally coexist with spontaneous translanguaging, even if the teacher did not plan for it. When linked to the learning process, spontaneous translanguaging can hold significant instructional value (2017).

The classroom observations began at the start of each lesson. All teachers used the same book and followed an identical lesson structure, beginning with a warm-up activity that included a short video, followed by a glossary task introducing the key vocabulary of the unit. Although this brief warm-up was not part of the three translanguaging strategies, I observed teacher-student interactions closely, focusing on whether they engaged in spontaneous translanguaging or stuck to the monolingual approach.

After the warm-up activity, the teachers moved to the reading passage, which formed the basis of the lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. As mentioned in section (3.6.2), the teachers and I developed a unified framework for six different reading lessons informed by translanguaging pedagogy before the classroom observations. This involves defining the translanguaging strategies to be used across the six lessons, outlining the types of activities, their objectives, and instructions. During the lesson, I served as a participant observer. This role differs from that of a non-participant observer, who examines the setting and records observations without engaging in the participants' activities (Cohen et al., 2018). In my observations, I occasionally assisted the teachers, who played the leading role in teaching the lesson. During my walkthroughs around the class, I observed student

engagement, understanding, and participation, and occasionally addressed some of their questions around the three translanguaging strategies that were central to the lesson. I documented my impressions and notes on the classroom dynamic. Without video recordings, I relied on the observation notes to clarify details such as who was speaking, which activity they were involved in, and the time spent on each activity. Besides my notes, I recorded students' and teachers' discussions about the three translanguaging strategies and selected instances of pedagogical translanguaging, whether verbal or in students' worksheets (see section 4.4).

In summary, my role as a participant observer, using non-structured observation, provided valuable insights by showcasing the participants' engagement with this pedagogy and its affordances in the EFL classroom. This enriched perspective highlighted the complexities of implementing translanguaging practices in the classroom, allowing me to witness the dynamics of translanguaging in action. In the next chapter, I illustrate how this study transformed translanguaging from a furtive to a purposefully planned practice, which is a much-needed step forward in challenging monolingual and language separation ideologies in EFL programs. Moreover, I present in detail how some students thrived with this pedagogy and felt empowered by their whole linguistic repertoire. On the other hand, others were more inclined to the monolingual, one-language approach due to the influence of standard language ideologies. Through this observational method, I was able to explore the pedagogical functions, benefits, and challenges of translanguaging, including students' occasional confusion and reliance on their native language.

3.8 Data Analysis

The study employed inductive analysis to identify emergent themes from the interviews, focus groups, and classroom observations. This type of data analysis was chosen to avoid restricting study results by using preconceived coding or analysis schemes. Researchers who use inductive data analysis allow conclusions to arise from the data's most common, dominant, or prominent themes

(Mackey & Gass, 2015). The type of inductive analysis employed in this study is thematic analysis. The data from the interview, focus groups, and classroom observation were analysed based on the six steps of thematic analysis proposed by Braun and Clarke (2012).

- 1- Getting acquainted with the data.
- 2- Creating preliminary codes.
- 3- Identifying themes.
- 4- Evaluating themes.
- 5- Clarifying and labelling themes.
- 6- Compiling the report.

Before the data analysis, the audio recordings from the teachers' interviews, students' focus groups, and classroom observations were transcribed and translated into English. For the classroom observation data, I wanted to document the students' and teachers' use of translanguaging, so the data were transcribed into the two languages and accompanied by the translation of the Arabic inputs. The interviews with teachers were mainly in English, with some instances of translanguaging. On the other hand, the focus groups with the students were conducted in their native language (Arabic) and then were translated into English to be shared with my supervisors, who do not speak Arabic. This approach is described as early-phase translation, as opposed to late-phase translation of a completed qualitative research report (Santos et al., 2015). To tackle timing issues in translation, Santos et al. (2015) compared the two approaches and found that early translation facilitates a more interactive approach, particularly among researchers who do not speak the language used in data collection, as it provides them with earlier access to the entire dataset. However, it is worth mentioning that I did not hire a translation team to check the translation's accuracy because this process likely requires a substantial investment of both time and human resources (Lopez et al., 2008). Most importantly, I found myself in a better position to do all the translations since I speak the same Hejazi dialect as my Saudi students and meet the four skills of a competent translator suggested by Squires (2008). These

skills encompass grammar competence in both languages, discourse complexity, cultural understanding of language use, and effective communication strategies.

After transcribing and translating the data, I analysed the data from the three research tools and allowed the themes to emerge inductively. The represented extracts in the findings chapters were chosen based on their relevance to the research questions. To address any issues about the representativeness of the analysed extracts and to affirm the reliability of the findings, I followed the advice of Ten Have (2007) by making sure that the chosen extracts could be directly or indirectly compared to other cases in the dataset. Using these comparability criteria, I can further prove that the selected excerpts from the classroom observations represent the translanguaging strategies, benefits, and challenges in the six EAP classes. Furthermore, the chosen excerpts from teachers' interviews and students' focus groups represent teachers' and students' dominant perceptions in relation to the research questions.

3.9 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted with two classrooms to test the practicality of the research proposal and assess the research tools. The outcome of the pilot study helped confirm the feasibility of the research tools. It improved the clarity of the interview and focus group questions (see Appendices 6, 7, 8, and 9 for the focus group and interview questions before and after piloting). Having no prior experience conducting focus groups, I needed to familiarise myself with this research tool. The pilot study was crucial in assessing the effectiveness of the focus group as a research tool. Moreover, it helped to determine whether the questions were clear and understandable to the participants. Subsequently, some challenges with employing this research tool were addressed, and a few questions were adjusted.

I conducted two focus groups consisting of five and seven students from two EAP classes. Due to university policy prohibiting video recording, I relied on audio recordings, which made transcription more difficult, as I sometimes struggled to identify which student was speaking. I also

did not realise the importance of guiding the discussion, thinking that monitoring speaking turns might disrupt the flow of conversation. As a result, students occasionally became overly engaged in the discussion, leading to overlapping speech and interruptions, which further complicated the transcription process. Despite these challenges, the discussions yielded valuable insights and significant findings. Consequently, I decided to limit future groups to a maximum of five students to enhance discussion management and make transcription more manageable.

Regarding the focus group questions, I found that some students were unfamiliar with the terms used, so I replaced them with simpler terms. For instance, I replaced ‘emergent bilinguals, with "English language learner." Additionally, when navigating students’ metacognitive awareness of second language learning, I asked them if they perceive the languages in their repertoire as "two separate linguistic systems". However, I found that the question was too abstract and left the students feeling perplexed, so I decided to simplify it after piloting by adding practical examples from their experiences, such as, ‘Do you sometimes rely on Arabic when studying for English exams, like translating new words or comparing sentence structures? Or do you avoid such comparisons?’ Furthermore, the question ‘To what extent do you abide by the English-only policy?’ was too general and required refinement. It was revised to be more specific: ‘To what extent do you follow the English-only policy when speaking with your teacher, in group settings, or during pair work?’

In the teachers' interviews, the question ‘What were the hegemonic teaching methodologies in your preservice teacher education?’ was based on the assumption that all the teachers in the ELI came from TESOL backgrounds. However, some of the teachers in the pilot study held a master's degree in applied linguistics. To be more inclusive of diverse educational backgrounds, I revised the question to ask them about their current practice instead of their educational backgrounds. So, the question has changed to ‘Do you think teaching methodologies based on monolingual ideologies, like the communicative approach, are suitable for Saudi students? Why?’

Lastly, I identified another limitation during the pilot study, specifically in observing students' translanguaging in the classroom. It was not feasible to capture how all students simultaneously

engaged with the lesson at the same time. To address this, I agreed with the teachers to provide the students with worksheets to help document their language use in the translanguaging spaces (see Appendix 2). The worksheets were not intended to be one of the research tools. Still, they served an essential purpose by offering clear written instructions on when to engage in translanguaging and when to use English only. They also documented students' choice of languages, willingness to embrace translanguaging or preference for the monolingual approach.

3.10 Rigour in Qualitative Research

To establish rigour in qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested specifically focusing on credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability (as cited in Alexander, 2019). Credibility in qualitative research addresses the extent to which the results genuinely reflect the phenomenon being studied (Alexander, 2019). To ensure the credibility of my research, I focused on a small sample size of six teachers and six focus groups with students, aiming for a detailed representation of all findings. Even when some themes were derived from just two teachers or four students, their viewpoints were included to emphasise the existence of multiple realities. Additionally, I accurately reported the number of participants associated with each theme to ensure transparency in presenting all findings. I employed a triangulation of three research tools and worked with two groups of participants, including teachers and students. The data were collected from six different classes to test for cross-site consistency. Comparing the findings across the three research instruments and among the two participant groups demonstrated that the data were consistent and comparable. Furthermore, the data were shared with my PhD supervisors, and we reviewed the themes and codes during our monthly meetings. This process involved employing a "peer debriefer" to maintain consistency, which entails engaging a critical and knowledgeable individual to refine and enhance the decisions that have been made (Rallis & Rossman, 2009, p. 215).

When it comes to the second criterion for ensuring the quality of qualitative research, dependability refers to “the consistency of the data under similar conditions. This can be achieved

when another researcher concurs with the decision trails at each stage of the research process” (Cope, 2014). During the process of conducting this exploratory study, my supervisors monitored the data collection, recording, coding, and analysis. In other words, they acted as independent examiners, ensuring that the data were well documented, systematic, and consistent, and that the interpretation of the findings was rooted in the data.

The third criterion for establishing rigour in qualitative research highlights the importance of confirmability. According to Cope, confirmability refers to the researcher’s ability to demonstrate that the data accurately reflect the participants’ responses, rather than the researcher’s biases or perspectives. This involves actively reflecting on the concept of reflexivity, as the researchers’ awareness of their position can affect the research process (2014).

It may be challenging for an insider researcher to distinguish their own opinions and experiences from those of the participants. There is a risk of bias, as participants might tailor their responses to please someone they know (Bryman, 2016). Additionally, Munn and Drever (1990) argued that familiarity can lead to less honest feedback compared to anonymous settings. Despite these concerns, my connections with the teachers fostered mutual trust, leading them to speak openly about their teaching practices, even when they did not receive recognition from their institution and came into conflict with the dominant standard ideologies in the macro and meso levels. Furthermore, all the teachers in my study hold postgraduate degrees and understand the importance of objectivity in research. Therefore, they showed a balanced view in sharing their insights about the benefits, challenges, and concerns of translanguaging pedagogy.

Still, being aware of some of the limitations of being an insider researcher, I chose not to interview my students, as they might feel more apprehensive about sharing their perceptions about some of the study’s themes, such as my identity as ‘NNEST’ or their evaluation of my teaching practice. Although interviewing students from other teachers' classes helped in eliminating some possible subjectivity issues, I had to emphasise my role as a researcher and ensure all the students

that their responses were not evaluations of their learning experiences or judgments of their teachers' practices.

Being an insider researcher in this study offered numerous advantages, including direct access to the research setting and participants. Furthermore, sharing the same nationality, mother tongue, occupation, and cultural background with my research participants allowed me to gain a deeper understanding of the phenomena under investigation. Additionally, conducting the focus groups in Arabic encouraged students to participate freely, without being hindered by their English language proficiency, which could have otherwise created a linguistic barrier. Another advantage of being an insider researcher comes from my familiarity with the ELI's institutional exams, strict pacing guide, and curriculum. All these factors influenced the development of the translanguaging-informed lesson. Consequently, the teachers and I prioritised the prescribed curriculum and aimed to devise practical translanguaging strategies they could incorporate into their daily classrooms.

Finally, it is important to consider the transferability of this case study. Transferability is only possible if researchers provide sufficient information to allow evaluations of contextual similarities (Alexander, 2019). Unlike a positivist paradigm, which views reality as objective and universal, the study adopts a constructivist approach, viewing reality as multiple and subjective. Therefore, the aim was not to claim generalisability or represent broader populations or contexts. Instead, the study offers detailed descriptions of the research setting, the participants, and the experiences and processes observed. This allows future readers to evaluate the transferability of the findings to their own settings. In this way, the results may closely mirror the experiences of other students and teachers in Saudi EFL classrooms. Moreover, the study offers rich details around the process of fostering translanguaging pedagogy and developing a reading lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. Such details could guide the transferability of this case study to different EFL classroom contexts.

3.11 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics is built on two fundamental pillars. The first comprises ethical principles designed to safeguard study participants. The second emphasises professional standards for conducting ethical research, aiming to promote sound scientific practices and ensure accountability to the public (Pietila et al., 2020). Because of the importance of research ethics in this work, ethical approvals were sought and obtained from the ethics committees at the Saudi University and the University of Strathclyde. The primary ethical considerations in this study relate to protecting the confidentiality of the participants and research setting, securing the data, and addressing the challenges of subjectivity as an insider researcher.

3.11.1 Participants' Consent and Information Sheet

Before starting the data collection, teachers and students read the consent form and the participants' information sheet to confirm their agreement and inform them about the nature of the study (see Appendices 3, 4 and 5). The two forms were handed to the participants in person to communicate the nature of the study, illustrate the rights of the participants, and explain how the findings and their identities would be presented in the research and future conferences and publications, if any. The students' consent form was made available in Arabic to ensure they fully understood the document and were aware of their rights before signing it. Additionally, I declared that participation in the study was entirely optional and that their identities would be kept anonymous. Those who agreed to participate signed the information sheet and consent forms. Then, I collected the signed documents before the study began and stored them in a secure location, accessible only to me. All participants were informed that they could withdraw from the study at any time if they felt uncomfortable. Most importantly, I considered that seeking the students' perceptions about their teachers' identities or teaching practices in the focus groups might trigger some criticisms. Similarly, teachers may speak out against administration policies or mandated classroom practices. Therefore, students and teachers were reassured that their responses would be kept confidential and not shared

with other ELI faculty or administration. Additionally, they were assured that their real names would be kept confidential by using pseudonyms.

3.11.2 Maintaining Data Confidentiality

Regarding data storage and accessibility, I transcribed the audio recordings of the classroom observations, the teachers' interviews, and the students' focus groups; the names of the teachers and learners were replaced with pseudonyms. The "find and replace" feature in word processing programs was used to change the names of all participants. A codebook was created to link the pseudonyms with the real names, and it was kept in a locked location separate from the data. All participant information, including a key for the code names and personal contact details, was stored in a separate, password-protected location from the raw data. All data was stored on the university's OneDrive in a password-protected folder.

The participants were informed that their identities would not be revealed in future publication presentations, workshops, or training sessions, if any, were held. Access to the data was restricted to the researcher and her supervisors, with all university accounts being password-protected and secured on the university's servers.

3.12 Conclusion

The chapter outlined the study's methodology and justified the chosen qualitative approach. This exploratory case study employed a constructivist research paradigm, reflecting the researcher's belief that reality is complex, subjective, and shaped by the interactions and perceptions of participants. The constructivist paradigm influenced the selection of research methods, including interviews, focus groups, and classroom observations. The tools chosen for this study aimed to uncover the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism, and the extent to which these can influence their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

To improve the transferability of the findings to other contexts, I offered a detailed description of the participants, setting, and the process of developing a lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy, allowing other teachers and researchers to determine the extent to which the findings could be transferable to different settings.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings from six classroom observations, six interviews with teachers, and six focus groups with twenty-five students to answer the following research questions:

1. **What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy?**
2. **What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on native-speakerism?**
3. **How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?**
4. **What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experiences with translanguaging pedagogy?**

Using thematic analysis, the study adopts a triangulated data approach that enhances the rigour of the qualitative inquiry. After presenting the findings from teachers' interviews and students' focus groups regarding their ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism, I then reported the findings from teachers' follow-up interviews, students' follow-up focus groups, and classroom observations to examine the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in the current context, emphasising its challenges, implications, and pedagogical functions. Finally, I highlight the extent to which participants' ideological stances on the topics under investigation might influence their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

4.2 Monolingual Pedagogy

The stance stage was centred on exploring the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism through interviews with teachers and focus groups with students. The first part of the findings chapter will present the findings of the following research question:

1-What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy?

The findings from the teachers' interviews and students' focus groups will reveal the status of the English-only policy within the English Language Institute (ELI) and the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classrooms. Additionally, it will explore the extent to which teachers and students adhere to this policy, as well as teachers' attitudes towards teaching methodologies underpinned by monolingual ideologies.

4.2.1 The Implicit English-only Policy at the ELI: Teachers' Perspectives

Although none of the six teachers referred to an explicit policy at the English Language Institute (ELI) in their interviews, four of the teachers (Samya, Hanouf, Amani, and Amena) were able to discern the implicit English-only policy at their workplace, which showed an emphasis on an immersive experience in the target language and stigmatised their first language (L1) usage. The fact that the policy is not explicit but relatively informal contributes to monolingual ideology as a standard assumption. Apart from the four teachers who were able to recognise the underlying English-only policy at their workplace, two teachers (Thekryat and Mera) were uncertain about the status of the policy. When Thekryat was asked about the ELI policy regarding the use of Arabic, she responded:

Thekryat: We do not have a clear or explicit policy regarding L1 use.

Interestingly, Thekryat and Mera were the only teachers who did not associate their use of L1 with feelings of guilt. When Mera was asked if she regrets using L1 in her classroom, she said:

Mera: No, never, because I find it beneficial for students. They get the information immediately and understand the lesson better.

Mera's statement indicated that teachers derive satisfaction from meeting their workplace expectations. In this sense, teachers who were uncertain about the status of the policy were more at peace with their use of L1 than those who were conscious of violating ELI's policy. Still, it could be

seen from their views that the absence of an explicit English-only policy did not mean that the institution supports their use of L1. The previous extract from Thekryat's interview showed a certain degree of ambiguity about the status of the policy, specifically in her choice of the words 'clear' and 'explicit.' Saying that the policy is not explicit suggests that it may be perceived more as an assumed norm rather than something that needs to be addressed explicitly. As shown in the following extract, one of the teachers illustrated that the implicit policy can be inferred from the monolingual ideology at the ELI.

Amani: I think using L1 is forbidden because they emphasise not using Arabic in speaking exams. At the beginning of my teaching, I did not use Arabic at all, but when I found that my students were struggling with understanding, I had to use some Arabic.

Amani was aware of the monolingual environment at the ELI, but her agency enabled her to follow a more contextually based teaching approach. Ruan et al. (2020) defined teachers' agency as the active working "to make choices, conduct intentional actions, exert control, and bring about change in a given context." (p. 2). Amani's agency served as a valid source of empowerment, enabling her to confront the monolingual ideology when she found it to impede her students' learning.

Similarly, Amena was conscious of the monolingual ideology at her workplace. However, her perspective was shaped by past conversations with the administrators at the ELI, which indicated that the policy was informal and had only been discussed verbally.

Amena: When I was hired in 2008, they always told us to use English only in class. Nowadays, after the growing research on multilingualism, they seem to be more tolerant of L1 usage.

Amena has been a teacher in the ELI for the last seventeen years. In recent years, she noticed an increased acceptance of students' L1. However, the policy does not seem to match this acceptance. According to Samya, the ELI's policy is monolingual, and the monolingual ideology is evident in the institution's workshops and seminars.

Samya: The institution's policy is monolingual because it strongly emphasises immersing the students in the target language. They always try to impose an English-only policy and remind teachers to speak English only. Even in the workshops, they never mention anything about first-language use. This approach fails to recognise the individual needs of our Saudi students. Our students do not come to the English class with a blank mind. They already have a rich repertoire, including a strong native language that has been an essential part of their identities for 20 years; you cannot come with them with a new language and expect them to leave their native language outside the class.

The previous extract represented how Samya felt the dominance of monolingual ideologies at the ELI, specifically the professional development unit. These workshops portrayed monolingual pedagogy as the norm and never addressed L1 usage in the classroom.

In the same vein, Hanouf acknowledged the monolingual ideology at her workplace. She was criticised for using L1 in her classroom despite the absence of a distinct English-only policy. Despite her feelings of guilt, she questioned the suitability of monolingual pedagogy to her context and described it as an assumption more than a reflection of classroom reality.

Hanouf: I have seen that there is a negative perception associated with the employment of Arabic in teaching. I was once criticised for using it in class, which made me feel guilty, but I do not think the English-only policy has a solid theoretical foundation. It is more of an assumption.

To conclude, although none of the teachers referred to a distinct policy regarding L1 use in their institution, four of the six teachers referred to the predominantly monolingual ideology at the ELI (meso level). They discussed how their perception of the implicit English-only policy was shaped by various contextual factors, including workshops that promoted an immersive experience in the target language and portrayed the English-only policy as the norm, the stigmatisation of teachers' L1 usage, and the emphasis on enforcing the English-only policy during speaking assessments. The

findings showed how the monolingual ideology at the meso level impacts teachers' perceptions of their teaching practices. While the teachers who were conscious of the monolingual ideology at their workplace reported associating their L1 use with feelings of guilt, other teachers were more at ease with their L1 usage, as they were less certain about the status of the policy in their workplace.

4.2.2 Students' Views of the Status of the English-Only Policy at the University

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the study was conducted in a Saudi university where Arabic is the official language and English is a foreign language. Before exploring the students' perceptions of the English-only policy in the EAP classroom, it was essential to investigate the status of this policy in a broader context and determine if it applies to the campus. This could offer broader insights into Arabic and English sociopolitical statuses in an under-investigated research context, such as Saudi Arabia.

The findings from the students' focus groups confirmed the absence of an English-only policy on campus. The fact that English plays a minimal role in everyday encounters between Saudi students can justify the power of the Arabic language and its predictable impact on the participants' identity and, most importantly, their stance on monolingual pedagogy.

Meznah: There is no English-only policy at the university. I have never heard anyone communicate in English, except in rare instances when students are proficient in the language. Everyone communicates in Arabic.

When asked about the policy on campus, the majority of the students affirmed that Arabic is the language of instruction and communication on campus. However, two students answered precisely by considering other contexts where English could be the only language of instruction, such as the colleges of Science, Medicine, and Engineering.

Moving to the status of the English-only policy in the EAP classroom, the findings from the students' focus groups aligned with those of the teachers, confirming the absence of an explicit policy. Among the 25 students, five reported never encountering a teacher who enforced an English policy.

Only three students acknowledged the existence of a strict policy. The responses of the remaining students indicated that the English-only policy is informal and largely dependent on the teacher's preference.

Although my question to the students in their focus groups did not specifically address the relation between the teachers' identities and the English-only policy, it unexpectedly emerged as one of the themes. For some students, the teacher's identity can significantly influence the implementation of classroom policies. A student in Somay's class said:

Meznah: It depends on the Miss. Even if she is an Arab, she is the one to decide if the policy applies to her class or not.

Meznah's statement revealed a veiled assumption regarding the propensity of Arab teachers to violate the English-only policy. By bringing the teacher's identity into the picture, she suggested that Arab teachers share a common linguistic bond with their students, which could enable them to challenge the policy. Still, Meznah added that they can still authorise a strict English-only policy on their students regardless of their shared mother tongue.

Furthermore, a student in Mera's class pointed out that several Arab teachers exploit the affordances of their common linguistic background as an effective teaching strategy. Moreover, the student assumed that 'Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NESTs) are monolinguals and would typically enforce the English-only policy due to their inability to speak the students' native language.

Alaa: It depends on the teacher; sometimes, if she speaks Arabic, she will use it in class to clarify new information and explain some vocabulary. However, if she is a native English-speaking teacher, this means she does not speak Arabic, so we will not be allowed to speak Arabic in class.

Layan from Samya's class held a different point of view, confirming that the teacher's identity is irrelevant to the teacher's stance on the English-only policy. She reported being taught by a native

Arabic speaker and an Indian teacher at level 1 (A1), and that both applied the English-only policy in class.

Layan: It depends on the teacher. In my previous class, we were taught by a Saudi and an Indian teacher. Neither allowed us to speak any language other than English.

Echoing Layan's perspective, a different student from Mera's focus group recounted her previous encounter with a native Arabic speaker who enforced an English-only policy. Despite the student's occasional policy violation, the teacher remained steadfast and consistently responded in English only.

Hawraa: It depends on the teacher, but I was taught by an Arab before, and she did not allow Arabic in her class. Even when the student spoke to her in Arabic, she always replied in English.

Navigating the students' and teachers' views about the status of the English-only policy confirms the absence of an explicit policy. The teachers indicated that the policy is more implicit and can be inferred from the dominant monolingual ideology at the English Language Institute (ELI). Similarly, most students showed that the policy is informal as it varies from teacher to teacher.

4.2.3 Students' Attitudes Towards the English-only Policy in the EAP Classroom

To gain a deep understanding of the students' stance on the English-only policy, they were invited to share their attitudes towards the policy and whether it affects their learning experience. The students' responses showed that five of the twenty-five students favoured the policy. The rest of the students opposed the policy, finding it detrimental to their emotional well-being and educational experience.

Among the five students was Tala, who supported the policy despite associating it with foreign language anxiety.

Tala: The English-only policy is the right policy. I feel scared, knowing I have to speak in English only, but this feeling drives me to improve my English. Practising the language improves our linguistic competence. The policy is beneficial and requires hard work, but I need to improve my confidence. Confidence is key regardless of the student's proficiency level.

Gass et al. (2020) found that anxiety impacts language acquisition, with high levels of anxiety potentially impeding language learning, whereas moderate levels of anxiety may be beneficial. Tala had a moderate degree of language anxiety, which motivated her to exert more effort in her language learning. Like Tala, Hala supported the English-only policy and had to confront the rest of the group with her different opinion:

Halah: I prefer the English policy. We are all here to learn and make mistakes.

For various reasons, the remaining twenty students strongly opposed the English-only policy. When students were asked about their reactions to a strict English-only policy in class, they commonly expressed feelings of nervousness, embarrassment, and reluctance to speak. This high level of foreign language anxiety can be explained by considering the monolingual ecology in Saudi Arabia and the dominance of Arabic, which leaves limited opportunities for students to practise English. Another reason can be attributed to students' awareness of their proficiency levels, as the research sample comprises beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) learners.

For instance, one student from Amani's class strongly opposed the policy. She described it as an enforced force that does not consider the student's identity. It imposes a linguistic constraint on students' communication and adds extra pressure on those who may already experience foreign language anxiety.

Bodoor: Forcing the students to communicate in a language they do not speak in their everyday lives can be embarrassing, especially when speaking in front of the class. This could be traumatising!

Similarly, one of the students from Samya's class correlated the English-only policy with negative emotions. Nada's response showed the detrimental impact of the English-only policy on the students' learning experience.

Nada: I feel nervous and have difficulties understanding. The English class is boring. It is English, English, all the time.

The ramifications of the English-only policy were not restricted to the adverse affective reactions. Many students shared that the policy restricted their participation in the classroom. For instance, when a student from Amena's class was asked to share her attitude toward the English-only policy, she said:

Sama: It reduces my participation.

Similarly, another student from the same class added:

Fatma: I do not have the confidence to speak in class, especially when I struggle with a word in English. I feel reluctant to participate in class.

Several factors could justify students' stance on the English-only policy, including foreign language anxiety that hampers student participation and students' proficiency levels, which could pose a linguistic barrier against effective communication. Subsequently, only five of the twenty-five participants did not mind adhering to an English-only policy. Two of the students who adhered to the policy were from Mera's class. For instance, Lubna mentioned that she did not mind the policy if the teacher had a positive attitude and was willing to offer extra help to students who struggled with the English-only policy.

Lubna: I try to communicate with my teacher in English only. My perception of the policy depends on the teacher's character. If she is kind and explains everything in detail, I do not mind the English-only policy.

Similarly, Hawraa was among the students who believed in the monolingual approach to language teaching and learning. Hawraa downplayed the challenges faced by the other students in her focus group regarding the policy.

Hawraa: I prefer to speak to my teacher in English, even outside the class. I feel the challenges other students share usually emerge during their first encounter with the policy. It becomes easier as we get used to the policy during the semester.

The remaining twenty students acknowledged occasionally violating the policy. They mentioned their foreign language anxiety and their low English proficiency as reasons for their inability to abide by it. A student from Hanouf's class mentioned that she sometimes breaks the policy because she experiences a high affective filter when speaking English.

Rajeen: I honestly use Arabic sometimes because I fear I would say something wrong and feel embarrassed.

Another student added that she violated the rule despite her teacher's instruction to use English only. She explained that the policy created a linguistic barrier that hindered her ability to express herself.

Roby: Sometimes, I struggle to express myself in English, which is why I do not always follow the policy. The teacher asks me to speak in English, but I tell her I do not know how to say what I want in English.

When it came to students' collaborative work, all the students admitted that they did not abide by the policy, including those who talked about adhering to it when speaking to their teachers. A student from Amani's class said:

Dalia: I abide by the policy with my teacher since it is the rule, but I break it when talking to my friends in class.

Additionally, the response from Meznah revealed that the students naturally speak in their native language even when the teacher imposes the policy on them. The students in the current study tended to violate the policy in their collaborative work behind the teachers' observation.

Meznah: Even when our teachers ask us to abide by the English-only policy, no one speaks English only in our collaborative work. We speak Arabic behind our teacher's back.

Other students from Mera and Samya's classes also discussed violating the policy by using Arabic as a scaffolding tool to improve their classmates' learning experiences and increase meaning-making.

Meznah: It depends on my partner. Sometimes, she asks what you mean by that.

Or speak to me in Arabic! So, I have to speak to her in Arabic.

Another student from a different focus group added:

Alaa: It depends on my partner's language proficiency. If she is competent in English, I will follow the policy. If she needs some help or clarification, I try to explain it to her in English, but sometimes I have no choice but to use Arabic.

When examining students' attitudes towards the English-only policy, most reported breaking it, especially when their teachers were not watching. They associated the policy with negative emotional reactions such as uneasiness, embarrassment, and a lack of confidence, which in turn reduced their class participation. To enhance the learning experience and adopt a more humanising approach to second language teaching, the teachers in this study challenged the implicit English-only policy at their institution. They acknowledged their shared linguistic connection with the students, as demonstrated in the following sections.

4.2.4 Navigating Students' Metacognitive Awareness: The Role of L1 in L2 Learning

Metacognition refers to the consciousness of an individual's cognitive or mental processes related to learning or thinking (Cenoz & Gorter, 2021). The students were invited to reflect on their

language-learning process by sharing their learning strategies and determining the role of their native language in this process. Almost all the students declared that they engage in cross-language connections as a learning strategy, viewing their native language as a valuable resource in their second language learning journey. Their prior knowledge of Arabic scaffolds their understanding and acquisition of English, especially in the early stages of learning the language. The students drew on the role of translation to their L1 in vocabulary learning and believed that L1 should be integrated into their classroom to improve comprehension. One of the students in Mera's class shared:

Dana: When it comes to vocabulary, I translate it to Arabic because even simple English definitions do not help me grasp the meaning. I believe our mother tongue should be integrated with the target language to enhance comprehension and improve language learning.

Another student from Thekryat's class added:

Ruba: Sometimes I struggle with the meaning-making, even with the simple things. So, I must translate to get the correct meaning.

Moreover, they emphasised that the student's language proficiency level is crucial in determining the extent of dependence on the native language, which decreases over time as students become competent in the target language and less reliant on their native language. One of the students in Amani's class said:

Bodor: For beginners, using Arabic is crucial because many students have difficulty with the target language. As they gain more language proficiency, they become more competent and feel more at ease expressing themselves in English.

Another student from the same class perceived translation as an effective learning strategy. However, using the word 'rely' instead of 'use' indicated her consciousness about L1 overuse. This awareness allowed her to make thoughtful decisions about translation as a learning strategy.

Dalia: I translate sometimes for better comprehension, but I try not to rely on it constantly

Investigating the students' metacognitive awareness revealed their underlying beliefs about second language learning. The findings demonstrated the efficacy of using their L1 as a learning strategy. Interestingly, the students had solid metacognitive awareness as they actively observed and regulated their use of their first language, opting to employ it cautiously.

4.2.5 A More Humanising Approach to Second Language Teaching

The teachers in the current study found a more humanising approach in accepting an integral part of the students' bilingual identity, that is, their native language. Their stance was underpinned by the interpersonal and pedagogical values of accepting their students' L1. Among the teachers who accepted their students' use of L1 is Samya, who added:

Samya: I allow my students to speak Arabic. I start each class with **As-Salamu Alaikum**. This helps them feel relaxed and comfortable in the class. When they struggle to express an idea in English, they can use Arabic, and I respond or rephrase it in English.

The above extract from Samya's interview shows that she initiated her class with the Arabic greeting 'As-Salamu 'Alaikum' (peace be upon you). This greeting is deeply rooted in the Islamic preaching of Prophet Mohammed, who commands Muslims to promote it among them to foster feelings of love and connection. The affective function in her L1 use can be seen in drawing on the linguistic and cultural connections with students, paying attention to their feelings, and empathising with their incapacity to express themselves freely in English. Still, Samya was conscious of her students' need to learn the target language, so she purposefully shifted back to English to maintain the focus on the target language. Building on Samya's response, Hanouf was asked about her students' use of L1, and she replied:

Hanouf: Sometimes, I encourage my students to feel comfortable because I want them to participate and engage in class. Many of them have low linguistic

competence and often feel shy when comparing themselves to students with a higher command of the language.

Hanouf did not just accept her students' L1 usage; she encouraged them to use Arabic to keep them engaged and active in her classroom. She indicated that some of her students had a low command of English, which affected their confidence and increased their foreign language anxiety, especially when they compared themselves with their classmates. Hanouf indicated that embracing her students' whole linguistic repertoire alleviated their foreign language anxiety and motivated them to have a voice in the classroom.

In addition to Hanouf and Samya, Mera embraced her students' use of Arabic. This gave her students a voice in class when they felt unable to communicate in the target language.

Mera: Sometimes, I let my students speak Arabic when they struggle to express themselves in English. I quickly translate their ideas and provide simple English sentences for them to repeat. My goal is to encourage all students to engage and participate. We can work together to practice English sentences, even if they can only express themselves in Arabic.

By embracing the students' native language in the classroom, Mera encouraged her students to be more engaged and empowered in their learning. She worked on creating a more inclusive and equitable learning experience that enabled all the students to have a voice in her classroom, even if they failed to express themselves in English. Additionally, she stated that she used Arabic to scaffold the students with low command of English. This approach enabled all the students to participate in class.

To conclude, the findings of the current theme revealed that teachers welcomed their students' use of Arabic for interpersonal and emotional purposes. The teachers in the present study viewed the classroom as more than just a place to learn a language; it was also a shared experience built on interaction with others and the experience of emotions. They empathised with their students and

understood the obstacles they faced due to the linguistic barrier between their desire to have a voice in the class and their limited command of English. For this reason, they accepted the students' native language to encourage them to participate in class and alleviate any feelings of anxiety or shyness. This created a more engaged and positive atmosphere and proved that teachers valued their students' voices, needs, and emotions.

4.2.6 Embracing L1 as a Pedagogical Tool

The findings from the teachers' interviews showed that all the teachers challenged the implicit English-only policy and used Arabic for a wide range of pedagogical and interpersonal benefits. The findings from the teachers' interviews align with those from the students' focus groups, as both groups of participants questioned the suitability of the policy for students with low proficiency levels or a limited command of the language.

In the interview with Samya, she confirmed using L1 as a scaffold in teaching vocabulary and other classroom activities.

Samya: I use Arabic when teaching vocabulary and other activities. I use it as a scaffold to boost students' understanding of the classroom input. However, I keep the output in English only.

All six teachers confirmed using the L1 as an effective pedagogical tool in their classes. This can be justified by considering the students' proficiency levels, in which all the students are beginners (A1) or pre-intermediate (A2). Two out of the six teachers (Thekryat and Amena) referred to students' proficiency level in explaining their stance on monolingual pedagogy. Thekryat documented that her use of Arabic depends on students' proficiency levels and highlighted its role in promoting students' metalinguistic awareness.

Thekryat: I use Arabic depending on my students' levels and understanding. If they struggle to grasp a concept after several explanations in English, I switch to

Arabic. This approach helps lower-level students understand better, and I then ask them to apply what they have learned in English. It is an effective strategy for enhancing comprehension.

Similarly, Amena conditioned her use of L1 to the students with a low command of the language, regardless of their proficiency levels.

Amena: I use Arabic occasionally, mainly with weaker students. If I speak only English, they often feel lost and confused. By using Arabic, I can help them learn faster, reducing the time needed to convey information.

Similarly, the students repeatedly questioned the suitability of the English-only policy for beginners and those with low command of the English language. One of the students in Mera's class stated that the policy is unsuitable for all students.

Alaa: I feel it depends on the student's proficiency level. Some students face learning difficulties and have problems with the English-only policy. In this case, the teacher needs to be more of a tutor than a teacher because they need a long time to learn. But it is OK with me. I have no problems.

Interestingly, Alaa was one of the students who did not oppose the policy. Alaa, a pre-intermediate student, demonstrated an understanding of the potential limits that may arise from the policy when implemented for students with low English proficiency or command of the language.

Another student from Amani's class raised the same point. Amna opposed the policy as a beginner and added:

Amna: I do not prefer it at all. It is difficult, especially for beginners.

Moving to the teachers, Thekryat talked about using Arabic to build the students' metalinguistic awareness, especially in the teaching of grammar.

Thekryat: In my last class with low-level students, I compared Arabic to English to explain concepts like passive voice and prepositional phrases. For example, I

mentioned that just as Arabic has "Harf jar" and "Esem major," this comparison helps them better understand both languages.

Another pedagogical benefit of L1 usage appeared in Hanouf's interview. The example below demonstrates that Hanouf utilised Arabic to enhance students' intercultural communication skills by incorporating authentic examples from Saudi culture.

Hanouf: I use Arabic naturally in my class, as it is a common way to learn languages. I often do this unconsciously, incorporating many authentic examples from my culture that my students recognise in Arabic. I tend to use words and concepts that they are already familiar with, making it a seamless part of my teaching.

It can be deduced from the statement above that Hanouf's L1 usage was spontaneous and came naturally. She did not view languages as separate and autonomous entities but believed dynamic bilingualism was more natural. Hanouf challenged the monolingual ideology that puts the monolingual native speaker model as the reference for language acquisition. This can be inferred from her belief that bilingual linguistic practices are natural and common in second language teaching and learning.

Additionally, an interesting extract from Thekryat's interview indicates that she allowed her students to use Arabic in their collaborative work, Google searches, and classroom discussions. She found this to broaden the students' means of knowledge construction.

Thekryat: I do not mind if my students use Arabic in class, especially during group work, discussions, or when they are researching topics online. I want them to be exposed to various sources of information in both Arabic and English.

Thekryat and the other five teachers in the study illustrated that they did not enforce an English-only policy in their classrooms. The teachers reported the pedagogical benefits of L1 usage,

including scaffolding students' learning, saving class time, improving their metalinguistic awareness, and boosting cross-cultural communication.

4.2.7 Teachers' Context-Based Teaching

When the teachers were asked about their opinions on the dominant teaching methodologies in the field of ELT, such as the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) methods, three of the six teachers (Samya, Thekryat, and Amena) emphasised the underlying monolingual ideologies of these methodologies and therefore questioned their suitability for Saudi students.

The findings showed that teachers exercised significant agency by questioning the dominant monolingual approach in ELT and the ELI's implicit English-only policy. They valued their local knowledge and believed in their context-based teaching. When asked whether the dominant language teaching methodologies are suitable for Saudi students, Samya replied:

Samya: No, restricting students to a single language during the early stages of language acquisition is counterproductive, especially for those with a well-established linguistic background. Language learners often draw from their first language to make sense of and acquire a new language.

Samya's response indicated that those methodologies are built on a false premise that puts the monolingual native speaker as a reference point for second language learning. She highlighted that students do not learn a second language with a blank mind or in isolation from their first language. This point was verified by some of the students in Amani's class, who emphasised the vital role of the native language in second language learning. One student added:

Bodor: For beginners, using Arabic is crucial because many students have difficulty with the target language. As they gain proficiency, they become more competent and feel more at ease expressing themselves in English.

Moving to the teachers, Hanouf agreed with Samya as they both had critical opinions about the suitability of these methods for Saudi students.

Hanouf: I believe that those methodologies are unsuitable for our context. I do not prefer it. I think it hinders the students. The use of L1 in second language learning is natural. We did not learn the target language in isolation from the first one. So why not use it as a tool?

As a bilingual herself, Hanouf related to her second language learning journey. She stated that the two languages are not separate monolithic entities and that bilinguals naturally engage in crosslinguistic connections. Therefore, her response indicated that those methodologies harm the students by depriving them of a valuable and natural tool that could aid their language learning.

Additionally, Amena's response represents a shift away from rigid methodologies towards a post-method pedagogy. She demonstrated substantial autonomy by asserting the value of her local knowledge in the local context.

Amena: Honestly, I am not strictly following one of these methodologies.

My teaching is based on, as I told you, my own teaching strategies.

On the other hand, Thekryat, Amani, and Mera held a more flexible understanding of the CLT and TBLT methods. They did not regard them as incompatible with their teaching philosophy, which acknowledges the vital role of L1 in second-language teaching. The perspectives of Thekryat, Amani, and Mera highlight the importance of flexibility in language teaching methodologies. By integrating CLT and TBLT with an appreciation for bilingualism, educators can create a more effective language learning environment that respects students' linguistic identities and enhances their learning experiences.

For instance, Thekryat added:

Thekryat: They are definitely suitable and could be implemented in the classroom. I have tried both ways with my students, and I received very positive feedback and results.

In the stance stage, Thekryat, Amani, and Mera showed an ideological stance that departs from monolingual pedagogy. However, they did not express any concerns about the suitability of the CLT and TBLT methods for their students. This can be explained as maintaining an open-minded approach to established methods, allowing for variation in interpretation and implementation across contexts.

By exploring the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, the first section of the literature review showed that the teachers and most of their students challenged the implicit English-only policy at the ELI. This stance was underpinned by their belief in the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of L1 usage. The majority of students opposed the English-only policy and associated it with adverse affective and interactive reactions such as foreign language anxiety and low levels of participation. In response to the students' needs, the teachers saw their bilingual instruction as a humanitarian approach to second language teaching. Moreover, the teachers in the current study demonstrated a belief in context-based teaching. Half of the teachers questioned the monolingual underpinnings of the CLT and TBLT methods and valued their local knowledge, which appreciates dynamic bilingualism. The other half revealed a more flexible perspective that allows for the potential interface between those methods and L1 use.

4.3 Native-speakerism

This section presents the findings from the teachers' interviews and students' focus groups to answer the following question:

2-What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on native-speakerism?

The second part of this chapter reveals students' ideological stances on native speakerism not through their direct experience with 'native English-speaking teachers' (NESTs) but through native speakerism as a standard ideology that is shaped by broader discourse, including media representations and dominant institutions in the English Language Teaching (ELT) industry (Eriksson, 2019; Holliday et al., 2015). The findings delve into students' preferences for their teachers' identity, whether 'native' or 'nonnative,' and students' assessments of their teachers' accents. Moreover, this section reveals how the teachers in the current study perceive their professional identities, accents and competencies as 'Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NNESTs). The study examines a key social factor influencing teachers' professional identities: their students' opinions of them and the extent to which these opinions shape teachers' self-perceptions. To gain a deeper understanding of the participants' stance on native speakerism, this section will also examine the teachers' and students' perceptions of dominant Anglo-American varieties of English compared to other language varieties.

4.3.1 Prejudice to the Native Speaker Model Among Some of the Students

The findings from the students' focus groups show that five students preferred the 'Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NESTs), as they perceived them to be more competent in teaching oral skills. These students considered 'NESTs' to have ideal accents and assumed that the 'NESTs' are usually monolingual and of British nationality. Furthermore, the native speaker ideology was evident among ten students who favoured the dominant American English and British English varieties over other varieties. They associate these dominant varieties with qualities such as "coolness" or "authenticity," which may be influenced by media, globalisation, and cultural representation.

Hawraa was one of the students who favoured the monolingual native-speaker model, expressing a strong preference for an English-only policy and the ‘NEST’ during the stance stage. Hawraa assumed that ‘NESTs’ would likely be monolingual and enforce a strict English-only policy. She thought this approach would enhance the immersive learning experience for students.

Hawra: I prefer a native English teacher because I feel obligated to speak with her in English since she does not speak Arabic. This way, I will practice the language and learn new vocabulary.

The following extract illustrates how another student from Thekryat’s class perceived the British teacher as having the ideal accent and devalued the English variety spoken by Saudis, known as ‘Saudi English.’ She viewed British English as superior, which was a clear indication of her native-speakerist ideology.

Amani: If my teacher were British, we would get used to the British accent. In Saudi Arabia, we do not speak with a good accent. So, if we had a British teacher, that would be nice, and she would teach us the accent.

Although English is widely spoken as a native language in many countries worldwide, her representation of the native teacher was associated with British nationality. This is a clear indication of the standard language ideology that centres on the speaker of the inner circle, particularly those from English-speaking Western countries, as the standard model. Her reference to British teachers as the ideal teachers could stem from the dominant role of British institutions in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). To explain, the British Council serves as a provider of the International English Language Testing System in Saudi Arabia and globally. Additionally, British institutions such as Cambridge University Press hold the main share of students’ educational materials in the English Language Institute (ELI).

Echoing Amani, another student from Hanouf’s class highlighted the importance of learning English from a ‘NEST.’ Layal presumed that being taught by a ‘NEST’ would grant her a ‘native-like’

accent. She was strongly dissatisfied with the variety of English spoken by her ‘NNESTs’ in the past and found those ‘non-native’ varieties to be a learning barrier.

Layal: I do not prefer her to be Arab; I prefer a ‘native English-speaking teacher’.

There is a significant difference in accent. I feel that some of the teachers I had in level one negatively impacted my learning experience. If a teacher has a good accent, I will pick it up from her.

In the same vein, a student from Mera’s class recommended ‘NESTs’ for boosting the students’ speaking and communicative skills. Despite living in a country where English is mainly spoken as a foreign language, Alaa’s goal of learning English seemed limited to communicating effectively with ‘native English speakers.’ This assumption manifests the ideology of native-speakerism, which promotes English ownership and advocates ‘NESTs’ as the best model for teaching the speaking skill, neglecting the globality and diversity of English.

Alaa: If a student wants to make greater progress in speaking, she had better be taught by a ‘native English teacher’ and communicate with someone who speaks English as a first language. This can facilitate language learning.

Besides investigating students’ perceptions of the ‘native’ and ‘non-native’ English-speaking teachers’ dichotomy, the students were asked whether they prefer their teachers to focus on the dominant Anglo-American varieties of the language, such as British and American English, or if they prefer to be exposed to different varieties. Ten out of the twenty-five students preferred either American or British varieties, which clearly demonstrated their native speakerist ideology.

The students who exclusively focused on American and British varieties demonstrated a limited understanding of World Englishes. Their responses indicated a lack of exposure to other varieties. This is not surprising, considering that even Kachru’s framework has faced criticism for not adequately representing the diverse varieties within the Inner Circle (Bruthiaux, 2003). Moreover, the

students are beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) in learning the language, and they may not realise that English is globally spoken as a lingua franca.

Among the ten students who were affected by the native speakerist ideology, one of the students in Mera's class said:

Alaa: I find the British variety of English to be more vivid in academic subjects. It feels more formal than American English and other dialects. British English represents the true model of the language, while American English is often used in informal communication, especially on social media, rather than in formal settings.

Alaa's stance on native-speakerism can be traced to the dominance of British English in the field of ELT. Knowing that the students' books are published by the British institution (Cambridge Press), this could explain why Alaa sees British English as the language of knowledge. When it comes to American English, her perception seems to be influenced by Hollywood movies and series, as the United States dominates the global media industry. Therefore, she considered American English as informal compared to British English.

A student from Mera's class supported Alaa's perspective by showing a narrow understanding of the different varieties of the language. Hawra described British English as a standardised variety for formal settings and American English as less formal. Hawra's perception could be based on how American English has been portrayed as the informal variety in daily life through the entertainment industry.

Hawra: I prefer to keep the lesson's focus on British English because we will use it at the workplace in the future. American English is not formal for communicating in the workplace, and it is more suitable for speaking with my friends.

Additionally, one of the students in Hanouf's class expressed her standard language ideology by preferring a single dominant variety, namely British English.

Roby: I prefer my teacher to focus on one variety. Because some words have different meanings, spellings, and pronunciations between British and American dialects, this could be confusing. It is better to have a unified variety like British English.

The findings of this study reveal that the ideology of native speakerism persists in the Saudi context, albeit subliminally. Five out of the twenty-five students favoured 'NESTs' mainly for their idealised native accent and speaking skills. Furthermore, the native speakerist ideology was evident among ten students who preferred American or British English varieties over other varieties.

Although none of the students in this study are taught by 'NESTs', the findings propose that native speakerism is an ideological construct that is not based on direct experience but on assumptions that restrict the legitimacy of the language speakers and the language varieties to the dominant English-speaking Western countries (the United States and the United Kingdom). These assumptions are often perpetuated by the monolingual native speaker model in the inner circle or shaped by the dominance of the British and American varieties, either through media representations of English speakers (e.g., Hollywood movies) or ELT institutions (e.g., Cambridge Press and British Council), which dominate textbooks and English proficiency tests in the current context.

To conclude, the findings illustrate that perceptions of what it means to be a "native speaker" and which language varieties are deemed legitimate are deeply intertwined with media, globalisation, and cultural representation. As a result, attitudes toward standard language ideologies are not merely personal preferences based on objective observations but are reflective of larger societal structures and cultural narratives.

4.3.2 Deconstructing Native-speakerism: Students' Stance

Twenty out of the twenty-five students were able to deconstruct the native speakerist ideology. They appreciated their 'Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NNESTs), mainly for

sharing the same first language (L1) with them. The students drew on the pedagogical, communicative, and affective factors of being taught by someone who speaks their native language and utilises it as a teaching strategy. Also, they were generally satisfied with their teachers' non-native accents.

When it comes to their perceptions of the Anglo-American varieties compared to other varieties of the language, six out of the twenty-five students viewed English as a global language and were eager to know about the different varieties of the language. The last group of nine students was also free from the native speakerist ideology, as they were not inclined towards the Anglo-American varieties or any other varieties of the language. They were only interested in learning the basics of the language.

4.3.2.1 Favouring the Arab Teachers Over the 'NESTs.'

The absence of 'NESTs' in the current study likely influenced students' perceptions of native speakerism. Therefore, most of the students were biased toward the Arab teachers. The students had a compelling alternative bilingual model compared to the standard model. The 'NNESTs' in the current study could have challenged the students' assumptions about the standard native model by showcasing their competence as teachers and bilingual speakers of the language. Moreover, the students believed that sharing the same native language and the same second language learning journey with their 'NNESTs' could have a positive impact on their learning experiences. These positive implications included improving their metalinguistic awareness, facilitating communication, boosting vocabulary learning and relating to the challenges they face in foreign language learning.

When it comes to the reasons behind the students' bias toward their 'NNESTs', one of the students in Amena's class added:

Reema: An Arab English teacher can help us find equivalent English words to Arabic words and show us the difference between the two languages. For example,

I learned from my teacher that some Arabic words cannot be translated literally into English.

Another student from Mera's class supported her preference for bilingual Arab teachers by saying:

Danah: 'NESTs' do not recognise the differences between the two languages. They speak English naturally, and when we face difficulties with simple things, they do not understand why we find it challenging.

It was clear from Danah's extract that her preference for Arab teachers stems from their ability to connect with their students and understand the challenges they face when learning another language. She pointed out that monolingual 'NESTs' acquire their native language effortlessly, unlike 'NNESTs' who have a better understanding of the challenges faced in second language learning.

Other students commented on the importance of the mutual understanding and effective communication they can have with their Arab teachers. This advantage was missing with their 'NESTs,' as many students were conscious of the language barrier.

For instance, Leena mentioned that 'NESTs face challenges in communicating complex meanings, especially with students with low command of English.

Leena: It is preferable to have an Arab teacher. Students have varying levels of language proficiency, and some concepts can be challenging to explain. A native English teacher may struggle to communicate effectively, whereas Arab teachers can do this more easily.

Similarly, another student from Thekryat's class mentioned that having an Arab teacher meant better communication in and outside the classroom.

Ruba: Sometimes we come across words or concepts in English that we do not understand, and we need someone to clarify them. Even after class, we might face technical issues with the blackboard or have questions about exams and

assignments. It helps to have someone who speaks Arabic so we can communicate better.

Additionally, Lubna explained that having a foreign teacher could create a communication barrier. The following quote from one of the students in Samya's class presents a prejudiced view against an Indian teacher. However, the student did not explain whether the communication barrier resulted from their low command of English or perhaps their unfamiliarity with the teacher's accent.

Lubna: I prefer Arab teachers because my previous experience was with an Indian teacher. The students did not understand her, and sometimes she could not understand us.

Interestingly, the students' stance on monolingual pedagogy aligned with their stance on native-speakerism. The findings showed that the majority opposed the English-only policy for teaching beginners and students with limited language proficiency. Subsequently, the students were inclined towards the bilingual 'NNESTs' for their use of L1. One of the students in Amani's class highlighted the role of the students' language proficiency level in determining their preference for their teacher's identity.

Bodor: I prefer my English teacher to be an Arab, especially for the teaching of beginners in the preparatory year. Some students come to the course with a low command of English. Arab teachers could help the students by translating some key vocabulary.

4.3.2.2 Students' Satisfaction with the Variety of English Spoken by their 'NNESTs'

To gain a more profound understanding of the students' stances on native-speakerism, they were asked to share their opinions about the variety of English spoken by their 'NNESTs.' Nearly all the students (twenty-four out of twenty-five) expressed satisfaction with the English spoken by their

Saudi teachers. It is worth noting that the Saudi teachers in the current study did not speak with a 'native-like' accent. A student in Hanouf's class declared:

Fatena : I am satisfied with the variety of English my teacher speaks because she would not become an English teacher if she were not competent in the language.

Another student from Marm's class added:

Dana: I am very satisfied as long as her pronunciation is clear and she pronounces the words correctly.

The previous extract shows that Dana and Fatena did not judge teachers' competence based on their 'native-like accent'. In the same vein, another student from the same class undermined the issue of teachers' nativeness and emphasised other essential qualities of a competent teacher.

Alaa: Accent is a skill that can be developed over time, and some individuals may find it challenging to master. However, her teaching abilities are what truly matter most.

The students in this exploratory case study were satisfied with their teacher's accents and viewed them as competent teachers. Knowing that they are studying the English for Academic Purpose (EAP) course as a mandatory subject in the preparatory year, the students might have prioritised their teacher's pedagogical skills and focused on teachers' abilities to help them achieve high grades, rather than considering teachers' nativeness. In this sense, the Arab bilingual teachers were appreciated for their shared linguistic bonds, which reflected positively on students' learning.

Five students in previous sections preferred 'NESTs,' and ten favoured British or American English. Still, those same students were satisfied with their teachers' non-native accent. These findings reveal that while students may hold preferences for Anglo-American varieties and 'NESTs,' their direct experience with competent 'NNESTs' might impact their view of the topic under investigation, allowing them to acknowledge the legitimacy of different varieties of the language.

4.3.2.3 Preferring Different Varieties of English.

Apart from the ten students who were inclined to the British and American varieties of the language. This section presents a contrasting finding of six students who perceived English as a global language and expressed their desire to be exposed to different varieties of the language. A student from Samya's class declared:

Leena: I think we should have at least some background about different varieties, so when we listen to a certain variety, we will be able to understand it.

Additionally, another student in Mera's class displayed an understanding of the global spread of the English language. As a result, Jori acknowledged the importance of familiarising herself with different varieties to improve her communication skills with future interlocutors.

Jori: I prefer knowing about different languages because one day, I might need to communicate with speakers from various parts of the world. It is better to be familiar with other varieties.

The group of students who emphasised the importance of learning about different varieties of the language demonstrated a nuanced understanding of its dynamic nature. They recognised that English serves not only as a global language but also as a lingua franca, facilitating communication among speakers from diverse linguistic backgrounds.

4.3.2.4 Diverse Learning Objectives: Not Considering English Language Varieties.

However, the last group, which consisted of nine students, did not prioritise the dominant Anglo-American varieties, nor did they desire to know about the different varieties of the language. Their focus was more devoted to learning the basic language skills in simple and comprehensible English. Their perception of simple English referred to what they described as an intelligible accent and correct pronunciation. It is essential to note that students in this group may be confusing the terms accent and pronunciation. However, they were free from the native speaker bias as they did not

link intelligible accents or correct pronunciation to countries or speakers in Kachru's Inner Circle (e.g., the United Kingdom or the United States).

One of the students from Amani's focus group found knowing about the different varieties of English to be less relevant to beginners. She added:

Bodor: At the early stages of learning the language, I do not think exposing the students to different varieties is important since the goal is to learn the basics of the language. I think exposing the students to different varieties should come later, once they have mastered the language.

Similarly, another student from the same group declared:

Dalia: I do not think it is important. Knowing about the different varieties of English does not make a difference to me.

However, some of the students emphasised the importance of having a teacher with an intelligible accent. However, they did not specify what makes one accent more intelligible than another, nor did they associate an intelligible accent with a particular country or nationality.

One of the students in Mera's class added:

Lubna: I prefer my teacher to speak intelligible English.

Another student said:

Dana: I prefer my teacher to speak intelligible, simple English, especially with beginners.

Additionally, other students did not prefer any specific variety of English; instead, they favoured a familiar variety of the language without elaborating on what makes certain varieties more intelligible or relatable to them. However, given the students' backgrounds and the predominance of Saudi teachers in the ELI and in students' school education, they likely viewed Saudi English as the familiar variety. This could also explain why nearly all the students were satisfied with the variety of

English spoken by their Saudi teachers. Such a conclusion was supported by one of the students in Amani's class, who added:

Amna: I prefer my teacher to be Saudi, so her accent will not be challenging to understand.

In other words, this group of students had diverse learning goals that did not centre around exposure to the Anglo-American varieties, nor were they interested in knowing about the different varieties of the language. They sought to acquire basic English skills with an intelligible accent and accurate pronunciation without associating these preferences with the Inner Circle countries.

4.3.3 The Role of Students' Recognition in Shaping Teachers' Stance on Native Speakerism

Four of the six teachers declared that the students preferred their English teacher to be a native Arabic speaker for interpersonal, pedagogical, and sociocultural reasons. The other two teachers acknowledged that some students might be biased toward the 'NESTs' due to their idealised accent and linguistic competence. Still, it is important to note that these two teachers (Thekryat and Amena) were not expressing their own perceptions but those of students. As shown in the next section, Thekryat and Amena were free from the native speakerist ideology, as they undermined the issue of 'nativeness' in a world where English is a global language.

The teachers in this study derived their value as 'NNESTs' from their bilingual identity and ability to use their shared mother tongue to facilitate students' learning and relate to their needs. Nearly all the teachers agreed that the students related better to the Saudi teachers and perceived them as someone like them. They highlighted the role of Arabic as a linguistic bond between them and their students. According to the teachers, the students valued this bond as it facilitated communication when they failed to express themselves in English. Furthermore, the teachers expressed that their students viewed them as inspirational models for second language learning.

Amena: I think we should go beyond teachers' nativeness and focus on their competence. We cannot generalise the students' preferences. Some might look up

to the ‘NESTs’ for their accent and linguistic competence; others feel more relieved and relaxed with Arabic-speaking teachers. They think that we share the same culture and the same background. We help in translating complex vocabulary. Seeing ‘NNESTs’ encourages them to learn the language.

The above extract shows that Amena’s professional identity was not affected by the ‘native’ and ‘nonnative’ dichotomy. While acknowledging that some students may be biased toward ‘NESTs,’ she suggested shifting the focus to the teachers’ competence rather than their ‘nativeness.’ Amena drew on the sociocultural and linguistic bonds she shares with her Saudi students. She saw her bilingual identity as an asset that helped her build rapport with her students. Moreover, she recognised her multicompetence as a bilingual teacher and the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of utilising Arabic in her teaching. Besides that, she perceived herself as a positive model for second language acquisition and a source of inspiration to her students.

Moving to Thekryat, she provided a neutral response by declaring that the students’ preferences could depend on certain factors, such as the context in which they learn English and their proficiency level.

Thekryat: It depends on the context. Some students think that the ‘NESTs’ are better than the ‘NNESTs’ and believe they will get the right teaching and the ‘native accent,’ but the lower-level students prefer the ‘NNESTs’ because they use their L1 to facilitate students’ learning.

Interestingly, Thekryat’s correlation between ‘NESTs’ and having the ‘right teaching and the ‘native accent’ might be interpreted as an inclination to the native speaker model. Her view appears to be closely tied to her previous statement on the suitability of dominant teaching methodologies in the Saudi context (see section 4.2.6). Still, it is important to clarify that she was commenting on students’ perception rather than expressing her own perspective on the topic. Moreover, a further examination of her professional identity and language ideologies in the following section reveals that she is not

influenced by the native speakerist ideology. She views herself as a competent teacher and does not associate teaching competence with possessing a 'native accent.'

Additionally, the other four teachers (Hanouf, Mera, Amani, and Samya) highlighted the importance of sociocultural connections between teachers and students in promoting a more empathetic teaching environment. For instance, Hanouf argued that Saudi teachers are more relatable to their students since they speak the same native language and understand the challenges of second language learning more than some 'NESTs.'

Hanouf: Students favour people who are more like them. They prefer Saudi teachers because they feel more comfortable with them. As an 'NNEST,' I relate more to my students because I understand their needs, being like one of them before.

Similarly, Mera described herself as an inspirational model for her students, emphasising how her own journey of learning a second language significantly shaped her teaching approach.

Mera: Reflecting on my experience as a language learner, I apply my experiences to help my students improve their language skills. I often share methods that worked for me and offer practical advice. Instead of being impressed by 'NESTs,' I find that seeing 'NNESTs' communicate effectively in the target language is more inspiring for students.

Examining teachers' professional identities showed that they derived their values as 'NNESTs' from students' recognition and how they perceive them as inspirational models for second language learning. The teachers felt appreciated by their students for utilising their shared linguistic and sociocultural bonds and creating a more empathetic environment that recognises students' needs and struggles.

4.3.4 The Impact of Global English on Teachers' Views of Native Speakerism

To further investigate the teachers' views on native-speakerism, it was essential to explore their stances on critical issues, such as the 'native accent' and the dominant Anglo-American varieties. The findings show that teachers perceived English as a global language and did not attribute significant importance to the 'native' accent. Furthermore, none of the teachers preferred the Anglo-American varieties of English over other varieties. Four teachers (Hanouf, Thekryat, Samya, and Amani) mentioned that they prefer exposing the students to different varieties and accents. The other two teachers had different teaching objectives and were less interested in cultivating the students' awareness of the different varieties of the language.

In the interview with Samya, she explicitly referred to the world Englishes paradigm to highlight the importance of exposing students to different varieties and challenge the concept of language ownership.

Samya: Under the framework of World Englishes. Acquiring a native accent is insignificant. Nowadays, the number of 'non-native English speakers' outweighs the number of 'native speakers.' We should be aware of the different English varieties worldwide and not be restricted to the Anglo-American varieties of the language. There are hundreds of forms of speech around the world. Those varieties should be represented in the curriculum, and English speakers from different countries should be included.

Samya emphasised the role of curriculum design in mirroring the real nature of English as a global communication tool between speakers of different varieties and nationalities. To develop the students' communicative competence, she mentioned that textbooks should reflect the diversity of the English language and help the students see other English varieties as authentic and legitimate.

In line with Samya, Hanouf reflected a critical awareness of the topic by referring to world Englishes and global English in her response.

Hanouf: English is a dynamic language with different varieties. It is spoken worldwide by speakers from different countries and nationalities. There are different varieties of the language, even in English-speaking countries. So, I do not think students should be restricted to ‘standard English.’

Hanouf's response highlighted the importance of exposing students to diverse varieties, as their future interlocutors may not be ‘native English speakers.’ Hanouf did not favour the dominant Anglo-American varieties over other varieties because she was aware of the dynamic nature of the language and the wide range of contexts in which English is used. When it comes to Amena, she showed less interest in exposing her students to different language varieties. She diminished the issue of having a ‘native-like accent’ and perceived English as a dynamic global language with different legitimate varieties.

Amena: I do not think people focus on accents these days; everyone speaks English differently, and different accents are acceptable. Most of my students are pre-intermediate or beginners, so I do not concentrate on exposing them to different varieties of English. The most important thing for me is that my students learn and practice the language.

Like Amena, Mera downplayed the impact of the native accent. She mentioned not having the time to expose her students to different varieties of English.

Mera: I have never felt that having a ‘native accent’ is a significant issue regarding students’ preferences. My goal is to help my students achieve good grades on their assessments. So, I do not think exposing the students to different varieties of English or accents is essential or could make a big difference.

Amena’s and Mera’s responses could be understood in light of the washback effect and the institutional exams that pressure teachers to teach to the test. As an insider teacher, I understand the constraints on the teachers, including the ELI’s strict pacing guide, unified curricula, and institutional

tests. Moreover, teaching beginners or low-motivated students requires a significant amount of time, leaving little room for teachers to focus on other aspects beyond primary skills and institutional exams. In this sense, finding the time to build students' awareness of the different varieties might not be a priority for some teachers.

Moreover, Thekryat did not perceive the teachers' accent as a significant factor in influencing student preference. Her confidence in her professional identity as 'NNEST' is reflected in the following extract.

Thekryat: I am competent at teaching and speaking in English. When it comes to the accent, I am not concerned about it. It does not matter to me. While standard English is important in academic contexts, it does not help the student much outside the classroom.

Similar to other teachers, Thekryat's perspective on native speakerism is influenced by the understanding of English as a global language. This perspective helps to challenge standard language ideologies that position the native speaker as the ideal model and reinforce the notion of a single correct standard of English.

In conclusion, the findings of this study show that the teachers at the ELI are free from the native speaker bias and have a positive self-image as 'NNESTs.' Two main themes emerged from the teachers' stance on native speakerism. First, the role of students' recognition in shaping their positive professional identities as 'NNESTs.' Second, teachers' view of English as a global language and the impact of this critical understanding on deconstructing native speakerism.

Similarly, the majority of the students deconstructed the native speaker model by valuing their teaching bilingual competence over the teachers' nativeness. In exploring their perspectives on the different varieties of the language, they showed more diverse perspectives, ranging from viewing English as a global language to having different learning objectives that are more centred on learning the basics of the language than knowing about its varieties.

On the other hand, a group of students preferred the 'NESTs,' predicted that they would be monolingual and of British nationality. Furthermore, they were more inclined toward British and American English. Their native speakerist ideology may originate from a preference for monolingual native speakers of English-speaking Western countries, as well as the promotion of the two varieties through American popular culture and British institutions that dominate the publishing landscape in the ELL. The findings showed that assumptions about what it means to be a "native speaker" and which language varieties are considered legitimate are closely tied to the influences of media, globalisation, and cultural representation. In other words, the native speakerist ideology reveals itself as shaped by broader societal, global frameworks, and cultural narratives rather than by direct or objective observation.

4.4 Translanguaging Pedagogy

As mentioned in the methodology chapter, this exploratory case study aimed to foster translanguaging pedagogy in the English Language Institute (ELI) to explore its affordances and how it could impact the teaching and learning process. The findings of the classroom observations will illustrate how the lesson informed by translanguaging worked in practice, how the teachers and the students engaged with the three translanguaging strategies, and what the main pedagogical functions of this pedagogy. Classroom observations laid the groundwork for subsequent reflections on classroom dynamics by offering valuable insights that were further investigated through follow-up interviews and focus groups. While classroom interactions illustrated how participants engaged with this pedagogy, the interviews and focus groups highlighted both the advantages and limitations of intentionally incorporating translanguaging into the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. This connection between observations and reflections deepened the overall understanding of how translanguaging was applied and its effects on teaching and learning.

In the current section, I present the findings from the teachers' follow-up interviews, students' follow-up focus groups and classroom observations to answer the following research question:

3-How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?

4-What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experiences with translanguaging pedagogy?

4.4.1 Students and Teachers' Engagement with the Three Translanguaging Strategies

As mentioned in the stance stage, the teachers in this study hold a philosophical stance that departs from standard language ideologies and monolingual pedagogy. They also indicated that their use of first language (L1) was often spontaneous, unsystematic, used as a last resort, and sometimes

associated with feelings of guilt. Although they all confirmed that they occasionally employed Arabic for its pedagogical and interpersonal benefits, their limited awareness of translinguaging as a legitimate pedagogical approach prevented them from planning translinguaging into their previous teaching practices. Similarly, most students opposed the English-only policy and naturally drew on their whole linguistic repertoire, whether as a learning strategy or to support their partners in collaborative work. However, their translinguaging was always spontaneous, and they never experienced it as a planned component of their classroom activities.

After fostering translinguaging pedagogy in the current study, the classroom observations revealed how the teachers inspired and intentionally promoted the use of students' whole linguistic repertoire. Such observations indicated a progression in teachers' practices, showcasing their agency in challenging the monolingual ideologies that often dominate the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and the language policies that sustain them.

As mentioned previously in section (3.6.2), the teachers and their students experienced translinguaging pedagogy through the following translinguaging strategies:

- 1-Alternating between the two languages for learning the key vocabulary of the reading passage.
- 2-Creating a translinguaging space for annotating the reading passage in any language (English and/or Arabic).
- 3-Creating a translinguaging space in students' pair work to prepare for the classroom discussion in English.

For the first translinguaging strategy (see Figure 4.1), the students engaged with the fixed approach to translinguaging. The teacher asked the students to alternate between the two languages for input (the Arabic sentence) and output (by composing a new sentence in English). This activity also involved matching vocabulary within parentheses with their English equivalents.

Figure 4.1: Translinguaging for key vocabulary of the reading passage

1-Key Vocabulary: First, read the definitions of the vocabulary on (page 106).

استبدلي الكلمات بين الأقواس بمرادفها من اللغة الإنجليزية:

Serious-Self-Esteem-Moderate-Recognize-Reduce

1- ينصح الأطباء بـ (تقليل) نسبة السكريات في نظامنا الغذائي. Reduce

2- (تقدير الذات) يرتبط براءه واعتقادات الفرد عن نفسه. Self-Esteem

3- من المهم الحفاظ على نظام غذائي (معتدل) وحصص غذائية متوازنة. Moderate

4- التدخين احد اشكال الادمان الـ (خطيرة) التي تهدد صحة الانسان. Serious

5- يتابق موظف المطار الجواز لـ (بتعرف) على هوية المسافرين. Recognize

الآن، عكري عن الكلمات التالية بجملة من تعبيرك مستخدمة اللغة الانجليزية فقط:

1-Serious-2-Self-Esteem-3-Moderate-4-Recognize-5-Reduce

1. We must reduce sugar to be in good health.
2. Security matches the university card to recognize the student.
3. ~~Smoking is serious to your health.~~ Smoking is serious to your health.
4. Self-esteem is very important to personalitg.
5. ~~We should do exercise at a moderate rate.~~ We should do exercise at a moderate rate.

The students experienced something different from their usual classes, which had never incorporated their L1 strategically in a classroom activity. As shown in the following extract, the teacher's spontaneous translanguaging coexisted with pedagogical translanguaging to support students' learning and comprehension of the activity's requirements. Moreover, when she said, "If you get the meanings in Arabic, this means you really understood the vocabulary," she assured the student that their use of Arabic is valued, as it functions as a comprehension check.

When it comes to the students, their linguistic repertoire was utilised to develop their metalinguistic awareness and improve vocabulary acquisition. The students were able to see how the

words were initially used in their native language. Then, they were asked to make connections with the target language by replacing the Arabic vocabulary with its English equivalent. In the final stage of the activity, the students transitioned to English by composing new sentences using the key vocabulary from the reading passage.

The following extract illustrates how the teachers (T) and students (S) engaged in translanguaging pedagogy for key vocabulary.

Extract 1:

T: Good, I need you to do this. Look, the instructions are written in Arabic:

Estabdele alkalemat bain alagwas be moradefha bel logha [*Exchange the words between parentheses with their English equivalent*]. I want to see if you really understand the meanings, so **etha erefto alma'na bel arabi** [*If you get the meanings in Arabic*], this means you really understood the vocabulary.

T: **Endokom alkalemat belarabi abeero an alkalemat bel** English [*You have the words in Arabic, and you should compose sentences in English*]. T: I will give you 10 minutes. When you are done, tell me **ashan noroh lelli baa'do** [*So, we move to the next exercise*].

T: In exercise two, **khotho alkalemat badeen be'slobkom ento** [*Use the words to express your own voice*] to write the sentences in English. Who is ready to share with the class?

S: **Bas ma khallastaha kollaha!** [*I have not finished all the sentences*].

T: It is ok.

S: 1-I should reduce eating fast food.

2- A person should value his self-esteem all the time.

3- Pollution is a very serious problem for the environment.

While observing the students' engagement with the first translanguaging strategy, I noticed moments of initial confusion and hesitance, which was expected since the students were used to translanguaging spontaneously behind their teachers' backs, and this was the first time they worked on a worksheet that allowed them to challenge the established boundaries between the two languages in their classroom activities.

The teachers and I had to move around to make sure the students understood the task, which required them to match each word with its Arabic equivalent. We had to clarify to the students that the last step of the activity was not to translate the sentence from Arabic to English, but to use the Arabic input to reinforce their understanding of the key vocabulary in context and then create new sentences in English.

When it comes to the second translanguaging strategy (annotation of the reading passage in any language), this translanguaging space aimed to create an inclusive environment for all students and overcome issues that might inhibit their participation, such as low English language proficiency or high anxiety. This translanguaging space aimed to foster students' free expression and meaning-making beyond the boundaries between languages. The following figure illustrates the students' engagement with translanguaging for annotating the main ideas of the reading passage.

Figure 4.2: Translanguaging for annotating the main ideas of a reading passage

Paragraph 1: People who exercise are less likely to suffer from chronic diseases,

Paragraph 2: most adults today are much less active than in the past,

Paragraph 3: exercise can be expensive,

كان يوجد برانش
مثل المشي واليوجا

Paragraph 4: if you don't want to spend

money, you have a lot of free exercise

Paragraph 5:

يحب على البالغين ان عارسوا
الرياضة ولكن ليس شرط تكون في وقت راحة
الافصموا الوقت لعمل الرياضة في اليوم

The following extract illustrates how the teacher and her students engaged in a translanguaging space that embodied the fluid approach of translanguaging.

Extract 2:

T: Try to take a general look at the paragraphs and read the first lines, for example, for each paragraph, try to understand what the paragraph is about **hawlo**

tefhamoha baadain [Try to understand then] I want you to summarise what you have read **momken tktoboha belarabi and belengleezi** [You can write it in Arabic or/ and in English].

Eyesh fehemoto min al paragraph hatha? [What did you understand from the paragraph?] **Egra'o alsater alawal men kol paragrafh khotho fekrah**

baadeen egraa'o altafaseel. [Read the first line from each paragraph. Read for the main ideas, then. Scan for more details].

T: Do you know the meaning of ‘chronic disease’?

S 1: **Alamradh almozmenah** [*Chronic disease*].

S 2: **Agdar aktob belarabi wa belengelezi ?** [*Can I write in Arabic and in English ?*].

T: Yes. Remember, I just need to know that you understood the text. English Arabic, it does not matter.

S 3: People who exercise are less likely to suffer from chronic disease.

T: Was this for paragraph one?

S 3: Yes. Paragraph two: People today are less active than they were in the past.

Paragraph three: Exercise can be expensive **laken vojad bada’el methel almashi wa alfootball** [*But there are alternatives like jogging and football*].

S 4: Paragraph one: **Alrayadah mohemeh men eddat nawahi men demnaha Tahseen alnoom** [*Sport is important for many reasons, including improving sleep quality*]. Two, **ala’mal fe almadi tehtaj harakah akes alaan** [*Working in the past required much physical activity, unlike now*]. Three, **torog la tokalef katherr leltamreen** [*Affordable ways for exercise*].

Four, **kaif tesawi jadwal leltamreen** [*How to schedule your exercise*].

While observing the teachers’ and students’ engagement with the second translanguaging strategy, I noticed that the teachers’ spontaneous translanguaging complemented pedagogical translanguaging to clarify the activity instructions and objectives. Additionally, I observed that some students still asked questions about whether they could mix languages when annotating the text. Therefore, the teachers and I explained the rationale behind the activity, emphasising that it is a space for students to demonstrate their understanding and negotiate the content, regardless of the language used. This helped reduce students’ initial confusion, as they gradually began to see it as a safe space

to be creative, show their agency over their learning, and feel empowered by their linguistic repertoire.

I collected the students' worksheets after the class to see how they chose to navigate the second activity. The findings showed that some students utilised their whole linguistic repertoire by annotating the text in English and Arabic. Some preferred the fixed approach of translanguaging, which aligns with Williams's work in the Welsh classroom (reading the text in English and annotating it in Arabic) (Williams, 1994). Other students preferred the monolingual approach of reading the English text and annotating the ideas in the same language. This observation was insightful, as it revealed internalised monolingual ideologies among some students and allowed me to investigate this theme more deeply in the students' follow-up focus groups.

Moving to the third translanguaging strategy (translanguaging in students' pair work), the following extract shows how the teachers merged the fixed and fluid approaches to translanguaging in a single activity. The students were given a translanguaging space in their pair work to brainstorm, discuss, and prepare for the task in any language. Afterwards, they were required to produce a final output in English. By promoting collaborative work in the translanguaging spaces, the following extract shows how the students employed translanguaging to scaffold their partners and assist them in completing the task. The students engaged in a supportive learning space where they could use any language to express themselves effectively without being restricted by the monolingual approach.

Extract 3:

T: It is a pair work exercise. **Elswa'al belarabi** [*The question is in Arabic*]. **Mahya asbab alsomnah men weihat nadarek? hel vomken lel revadh wahdha an tosabeb khafd alwazen?** [*What are the causes behind obesity? Could sport alone reduce extra weight?*]

You can work in pairs, and you can use whatever language you want in the discussion. **Tegdaro tetnagasho belarabi wa belenglish**. [*You can discuss it in Arabic and/or English, but then you have to present in English*].

S 1: A lot of eating **aish kamana** [*What else*]?

S 1: **Momken alakel ala'tefe** [*Maybe emotional eating*]!

S 2: Yes, **aljo'e ala'tefe** [*Yes, emotional eating*].

S 1: **Alkemah sa'bah kaif ngolaha belenglish** [*The word is difficult. How to say it in English*]!

St 2: No, it is easy! Emotional eating.

S1: **Khaleni aktobha** [*Let me write it*].

S1: **Alreyadh lehalha ma tsa'ed momken feh asbab sehyah lelsomnah** [*Sport alone does not help to overcome obesity, sometimes there are health problems*].

S 2: Exercise is not enough **lekhafd alwazen** [*To reduce weight*]. S1: (Using a dictionary to check the phrase in English). Exercise is not enough to reduce weight.

S 2: **Ana batkalam wa enti goli sah aw la** [*I will practice with you, tell me if it is right or wrong*].

S 2: Reasons for obesity. I can say that the first one is emotional eating.

Second, health problems. Third, not doing enough exercise.

Extract three shows how translanguaging was used as a scaffold to develop the students' learning of the target language. The students used their rich background knowledge in their first language to discuss the reasons for obesity and clarify concepts related to the topic of discussion, such as 'emotional eating.' During the discussion, one student struggled to express the phrase 'emotional eating' in English. However, her partner acted as a scaffold to improve her second

language learning. Additionally, one of the students relied on her partner to help her rehearse the English output and prepare for the classroom discussion.

This indicates that in a translanguaging space, students feel secure and confident in their abilities. They are able to express themselves fully and reflect on their performance in an environment that supports them, without the constraints of an English-only policy or the stress associated with foreign language anxiety. This setting allows for greater freedom in communication and self-assessment, fostering a more positive learning experience.

While observing the students' engagement with the third translanguaging strategy, I noticed how the students felt energised and drawn to the discussion, which was not surprising since the students had discussed their tendency to violate the English-only policy in their collaborative work during the stance stage. For the first time, translanguaging provided them with a safe space to incorporate an integral part of their bilingual identity, namely their native language. This allowed them to express their ideas freely and reflected positively in their brainstorming, negotiating and scaffolding of each other's learning.

However, observing students' engagement in translanguaging during their pair work highlighted an important implication of this pedagogy, especially when applied in a homogeneous group where all students share the same native language. Specifically, it revealed their reliance on their native language. This limitation could arise from the power imbalance between Arabic, the dominant and native language of all participants, and English, which is a foreign language for the beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) students under study. Additionally, the fact that students experienced translanguaging as a one-off pedagogical approach may have contributed to this issue. They might have needed more time to navigate their whole linguistic repertoire with greater confidence.

4.4.2 Pedagogical Functions of Translanguaging Pedagogy

In this section, I compare the findings from the classroom observations with insights gathered from the teachers' follow-up interviews and the students' focus groups. The triangulation of the three research tools aims to highlight the pedagogical functions of translanguaging and to explore the participants' perceptions regarding its implementation.

4.4.2.1 Translanguaging as a Scaffold.

The classroom observations revealed that the teachers employed translanguaging to scaffold students' learning. Moreover, observing students in their pair work showed that translanguaging enabled them to support and assist their peers in the learning process.

During one of the classroom activities, the teacher discovered that a student had not completed the assigned task due to difficulties in comprehending the topic. The student voiced her struggle to the teacher in Arabic. To address the challenges encountered by the student, the teacher used her whole linguistic repertoire spontaneously to scaffold the students' understanding of the task requirement.

Extract: 4

S: **Ma fehem** [*I do not understand*]!

T: You should speak about an invention. **Ebtekar athaar ala hayatek aw hayat albasharyah.** [*An invention that has influenced your life or humanity*].

Moreover, the function of translanguaging as a scaffold was primarily observed in students' paired work, where competent students assisted their partners in comprehending the text's content and identifying the primary concept of each paragraph.

Extract: 5

S1: **Abgha agolaha belarabi bs mani arfah kaif aseegha** [*I want to say it in*

Arabic, but I do not know how to phrase it].

S2: **Ektobi vajeb rafed alhadyah belbedayah thoma gbolaha** [*Write that you should reject the gift first, then you can accept it*].

S2: **Fel Saudi yetakharoon ahyanan** [*In Saudi Arabia, people sometimes arrive late*].

S1: **Fayen legetiha?** [*Where did you find that*]?

S2: Here, arrive on time but sometimes late. **Katabti walla tehtagen shai?** [*Did you write it, or do you need more help*]?

In the teachers' follow-up interviews, Hanouf commented on the translanguaging space in students' pair work and how it functioned as a scaffold, which reflected positively in their engagement and overall learning.

Hanouf: I am going to tell you about what I experienced today! This may be the first time I have seen all the students speaking English. In preparation for the speaking task, they assisted one another in completing the task. Seeing them engaged and trying to prepare an output in English was very encouraging.

In their follow-up focus groups, the students also commented on translanguaging as a scaffolding tool in their pair work. Ultimately, translanguaging increased their partner's comprehension of the task requirements and helped them complete the task successfully.

Shatha: First, we discussed the task in Arabic to get a clear idea of the task.

Then we shifted to English so we could all answer the question. We used Arabic to prepare for the task, helping each other complete it in English.

Moreover, Lubna added that using her whole linguistic repertoire with her partner reflected positively on their engagement with the activity and helped them generate ideas without being restricted to one language.

Lubna: It was nice because it helped us brainstorm and produce our ideas in

English /Arabic, and then we presented the discussion output in English.

The extracts from Shatha and Lubna demonstrate that students can skilfully and successfully employ their whole linguistic repertoire to discuss topics and scaffold each other's learning. Shatha and Lubna's translanguaging was purposeful, as the previous extract showed.

4.4.2.2 Translanguaging for Boosting Students' Learning and Metalinguistic Awareness.

The following extract demonstrates how translanguaging was utilised to promote students' metalinguistic awareness, drawing on the similarities between English and Arabic to discuss sentence structure.

Extract: 6

T: What is the subject in your sentence "Me and my sister (we) have a good relationship." So, this is your sentence. What is wrong with this sentence?

Let us think about the sentence structure.

S: **Estakhdamat fa'lain** [*She combined the subject with its pronoun*]!

T: **Enti lazem testakhdemi ya ema aldameer ya ema alfa'el** [*You should choose between using the pronoun or the subject*].

Both English and Arabic have the same grammatical rule where the use of a pronoun substitutes its subject in a single sentence. Still, the student made the mistake of using "we" beside "my sister and me" in one sentence. When the teacher asked the class to reflect on the structure of the sentence, one of the students used her background knowledge in Arabic syntax to identify the problem in the sentence, which is using "**fa'lain**" (meaning combining the subject with its pronoun in one sentence).

Moreover, the findings demonstrate the role of translanguaging in enhancing students' learning, particularly in vocabulary acquisition and reading comprehension. For instance, the

following excerpt illustrates how the teacher and her students employed translanguaging to discuss the meaning of the word biomimicry.

Extract 7:

T: What is the product? **Eyesh almonatj elli amalnah** [*What is the product that was invented*] in this biomimicry?

S: **Alnadharat** [*Sunglasses*].

T: Yap sunglasses. Who is it made for? We said NASA, but for whom does that mean?

S: **Rowaad alfada** [*Astronaut*].

T: **Rowaad alfadaa** [*Excellent! astronaut*].

T: So they made those sunglasses copying what? **nasahko fekrat eyesh ashan ye'emelo hade al** [*What inspired them to make those*] glasses? Falcone and eagle eyes. **Nasakhoha men fekrat oyoon alsoqoor wa alnosoor.** [*They got inspired by watching falcons' and eagles' eyes*].

In teachers' follow-up interviews, Thekryat found that using translanguaging for the key vocabulary was helpful for internalising meanings and improving students' comprehension.

Thekryat: The sentences written in Arabic helped them understand the vocabulary better. Even when they were familiar with some of those vocabulary words, translanguaging could help the students internalise the meaning of those words.

In the same vein, Amani capitalised on her colleague's observation by highlighting how translanguaging increased meaning-making and saved classroom time.

Amani: The students understand better. Translanguaging helps them move quickly in class and get to the goals or objectives of the course more effectively.

When it comes to the students, they commented on how translanguaging helped improve their vocabulary acquisition and marked this strategy as the most valuable moment in class. One of the students in Thekryat's class said:

Shatha: I liked translanguaging in the key vocabulary. When we composed English sentences after understanding the meaning of the vocabulary in Arabic, I felt that it boosted my comprehension.

Similarly, another student from Hanouf's class emphasised how translanguaging improved her vocabulary acquisition. She referred to her classes before today's lesson and how the monolingual approach hindered her learning.

Rajeen: Honestly, I enjoyed translanguaging. I often attend my classes without fully understanding the vocabulary. After class, I tend to close my book and put off studying until the night before the exam. By then, we scrambled to learn all the vocabulary, which could be quite stressful. I appreciated that I could create sentences on my own through translanguaging. It is an effective approach!

Additionally, the students also had a positive experience with translanguaging for the main ideas of the reading text. A student from Amena's class explained how she engaged with higher cognitive skills by processing and shifting the meanings between languages. Reema added that this activity boosted her reading comprehension, unlike the monolingual approach, in which students sometimes copy and repeat the topic sentences without fully understanding the meaning.

Reema: For the first time in a reading activity, I was able to deduce the main ideas of the English passage and express those ideas in Arabic, relying solely on my comprehension of the text! It was my own voice instead of copying what I saw in front of me in English.

Another student added:

Leena: What we experienced in today's class was different. I could rely on both languages to comprehend and evaluate the English text. Before, I used to repeat what I was reading in the same language.

4.4.2.3 Translanguaging as Pathway to Intercultural Competence.

The classroom observation showed that teachers and their students engaged in translanguaging to compare cultural traditions and social norms across different countries.

Extract: 8

T: Some languages have different ways of saying 'you.' There is a formal way to address people in formal situations like work and a different word for family and friends.

Feh endahom taregatain enahom vogolo 'you' [*There are different ways to say you*].

We have a formal word to use in formal situations. Can you think of the Arabic way to say 'you' in formal situations?

Kaif tetkalami ma'a maso'ol kabeer? [*How do you talk with someone in a high position, for example, at work?*]

S: **Hadratek** [*An expression used to address people in formal situations*].

T: **Hadratek**. Excellent!

T: **Sahbatek tgoli laha enti golti sah? Laken ma'a maso'ol** high authority **ma venfaa' tgoli enta. Tgoli hadratek.** [*Use you when you speak to your friends, but when you speak to someone in high authority, you cannot use you. You should use hadratek*].

The previous extract was taken from a reading activity in which the topic was about customs around the world. The class discussed concepts like greeting, gifting, business behaviour, dressing,

and punctuality across Japan, Brazil, and Saudi Arabia. After discussing greetings in Brazil and Japan, translanguaging was used to draw the students' attention to the custom of addressing people of higher authority in Saudi Arabia. The classroom observation showed that translanguaging was successfully employed to articulate cultural concepts, traditions, or societal norms that may lack an exact equivalent in English, such as the word **Hadratek**, which is a gender-neutral noun used to address people in formal situations.

Another interesting example highlighting the role of translanguaging in fostering intercultural competence was found in customs surrounding gift-giving across different cultures. The teacher asked the students to reflect on an equivalent Arabic expression for “a token of your appreciation.”

Extract: 9

T: “A token of your appreciation.” What does this expression mean? Read the definition. It is an inexpensive gift meant to express thanks or gratitude.

Can you tell me the Arabic equivalent?

Laman teddi hadyah leshakhs esh tgoli loh? [*When you give a gift to someone, what do you say*]?

S: **Galeel behagak** [*Not enough to express my gratitude*].

4.4.2.4 Fostering Student Engagement and Well-Being through Translanguaging

One of the significant pedagogical benefits of translanguaging is increasing the students' engagement in classroom activities. This finding appeared as one of the strong themes in teachers' and students' perceptions of this pedagogy. The participants commented on the role of translanguaging in reducing foreign language anxiety, fostering an inclusive classroom atmosphere, and thereby increasing classroom participation. In one classroom observation, the teacher used humour to comment on the positive atmosphere of the class and the noticeable shift in class dynamics that had occurred through translanguaging.

Extract: 10

T: Of course, all of you are happy today. You are using Arabic!

Students: (sound of laughing).

T: This has never happened before in my class! **Mashallah shayfah**

almosharkah Akthar men [*God bless you. I can see the participation is higher than*] any other class!

In the previous extract, the teacher noticed the difference in the classroom dynamic. Translanguaging pedagogy made a significant shift in her classroom. Her use of the word ‘happy’ confirmed that translanguaging created a positive atmosphere, increasing the students' enjoyment and, therefore, their participation.

Another teacher remarked on the positive atmosphere and increased participation, observing that the students appeared happy, confident, and relaxed.

Samya: You see that the students are more engaged and participating today. You can hear their voices up louder than in the other classes before, and you feel the students are confident. With the translanguaging spaces, they feel relaxed. Yeah, they can speak freely.

Additionally, Hanouf noted that translanguaging validated students’ identities as bilinguals. Thus, translanguaging induced a positive atmosphere in which all the students were active and engaged.

Hanouf: It was a very active class today, and they were very engaged. Nearly none of them was passive. The whole atmosphere was very positive. So, the benefits of translanguaging come from making them feel at ease and welcoming a significant part of their identity, their mother tongue.

Moving to the students' perceptions of this pedagogy, one of the students in Mera's class commented on the noticeable difference in students' participation when they were allowed to annotate the text and share the main ideas in any language.

Dana: I truly appreciate this teaching approach; it feels much more engaging. Even students who are typically passive in class become active today when given a chance to engage in any language.

Dana was not the only student who noticed a significant increase in classroom participation compared to the previous class. Another student from Amena's class also added:

Reema: Some of the students who participated in today's class were previously passive. For the first time in class, they were active and engaged.

The extract from Reema showed that translanguaging could bring a sense of inclusion by enabling the students who usually stay passive to have a voice in class. As mentioned earlier, the students correlated the English-only policy with adverse affective and interactive reactions. One of the students in Hanouf's class highlighted the role of translanguaging in reducing her foreign language anxiety and increasing her participation.

Layal: It had a positive effect on reducing my anxiety. If the class was in English only, I would not be able to speak, and I would refrain from participating.

Other students from Amena's class added:

Sama: When a student was struggling with an English word, she could say it in Arabic, and she would not feel anxious about her inability to answer in English.

Another student from the same class mentioned that the freedom to express herself in her native language when she struggled to do that in English was relieving. Reema did not feel embarrassed or negatively judged for her inability to speak English fluently. Instead, she had the confidence to have a voice in class and described her experience with translanguaging as empowering.

Reema: When I participated in class today. I could not remember a certain word in English. So, I said it in Arabic instead, and that was liberating.

Translanguaging helped alleviate students' foreign language anxiety and enhance their language learning experience. By not enforcing the restrictive English-only policy in class, the students felt more relaxed and confident, resulting in a more enjoyable learning experience. Students' and teachers' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy highlighted its positive impact on reducing foreign language anxiety and increasing learning enjoyment, leading to greater engagement in class. Translanguaging fostered an inclusive environment, welcoming all students, including those who usually hesitate to participate due to foreign language anxiety or low command of the target language.

4.4.2.5 Translanguaging to Check Conceptual Comprehension.

The findings from the classroom observations showed that translanguaging was employed to check students' comprehension of the English vocabulary, as shown in the following extract:

Extract: 11

T: In recent decades **eyesh ya'ne decades banat?** [*What does it mean, girls?*]

S: **Ogood** [*Decades*].

T: **Ogood ya'ne kam?** [*Decade, how long is a decade?*]

S: **Asharah sanawat.** [*Ten years*].

The previous extract illustrated how the teacher and one of the students engaged in translanguaging to discuss the meaning of the word decade. This enabled the student to showcase her comprehension, allowing the teacher to gauge the student's understanding. In the following extract, translanguaging was also utilised to reflect the students' internal thoughts about the meaning of the word 'campaigner.'

Extract: 12

S1: **Tamooh?** [*Ambitious?*]

T: Hmm

S 2: **Hwa shai evjabi?** [*Is it something positive*] ?

T: **Hwa shai evjabi.** [*It is a positive thing*].

T: **Howa shakhs zay al** activist. [*Someone like an activist*]. A campaigner is a person who does activities to try to change something, such as the law in society.

The previous extract shows that translanguaging was utilised as a catalyst to evaluate the students' comprehension and showcase their cognitive processing of words' meanings. By embracing the students' whole linguistic repertoire through translanguaging, the students could also externalise their thought processes, producing a tangible output that helps in assessing their vocabulary comprehension.

4.4.3 Teachers' Willingness to Adopt Translanguaging in Their Future Classrooms

The findings from the teachers' follow-up interviews indicate that five of the six teachers (Amena, Samya, Thekryat, Mera, and Hanouf) expressed motivation to incorporate translanguaging in their future classrooms. The findings highlight the need to incorporate the translanguaging theory into pre-service and in-service teachers' training and professional development. Such initiatives will enable teachers to appreciate bilingualism and multilingualism as valuable resources, allowing them to implement translanguaging purposefully and skilfully in various contexts.

When Mera was asked about her willingness to adopt translanguaging in her future classrooms, she responded:

Mera: Whenever I used my mother tongue in previous classes, it was just for discussions or explanations. I never thought about giving students exercises in both Arabic and English! Now, I plan to adopt practices informed by translanguaging pedagogy, incorporating it into both oral and written activities.

From Mera's extract, it can be inferred that her use of L1 was mostly spontaneous and limited to specific tasks such as classroom discussions. However, working with translanguaging pedagogy motivated her to consider incorporating translanguaging strategies in different classroom activities, including writing.

Similarly, Thekryat shifted from using L1 as a last resort for teaching beginners to embracing translanguaging with different groups of students. During her past teaching practice, she only resorted to L1 as a last resort when the English-only policy became a linguistic barrier between her and the students. In her follow-up interview, she significantly changed her perspective and expressed a willingness to adopt translanguaging pedagogy to enhance comprehension and meaning-making.

Thekryat: I will always have a place for translanguaging in my future classroom.

Sometimes, it helps, even if the students appear to progress well in class. I can still use translanguaging to check their understanding and reinforce their comprehension.

Another teacher added:

Samya: In my early career, I believed using Arabic in an English classroom was wrong. I now see that students' whole linguistic repertoire could be strategically utilised through translanguaging pedagogy. It is effective in a context like Saudi Arabia because our first language is powerful and cannot be separated from the student's identity.

The previous extract from Samya's interview presents translanguaging as a contextually based pedagogy, reflecting teachers' understanding of their students' needs and Arabic's dominant role in students' bilingual identities.

When it comes to Hanouf, she mentioned having conflicted feelings about her L1 usage in the past. Despite its pedagogical and interpersonal benefits, her L1 usage was always spontaneous and sometimes associated with feelings of guilt. In her follow-up interview, she found the conscious

version of translanguaging to be strategic and purposeful. Therefore, she gained more confidence in translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogy.

Hanouf: I often use L1 unconsciously and rely on code-switching, which makes me feel like I am not doing it correctly, leading to feelings of guilt. However, with translanguaging pedagogy, I find it more deliberate and systematic. I have become more confident in the process.

Moving to Amena, she declared that she rarely used Arabic in her past teaching practice and only used it as a last resort. She associated her use of L1 with a feeling of guilt. However, observing how the students reacted to translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom session changed her perspective and motivated her to adopt translanguaging pedagogy in her future classroom.

Amena: I used to feel guilty about incorporating Arabic into my teaching and rarely did so. However, using translanguaging has shown me that I can use my first language with my students, and it can boost their learning.

One of the crucial factors that shaped teachers' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy in this study is their distinctive stance on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism. As shown in the first two sections of this chapter, the teachers had the agency to challenge monolingual pedagogy. They were empowered by their bilingual competence and critical paradigms like World Englishes. This enabled them to question the monolingual native speaker model and paved the way for embracing translanguaging pedagogy. The current exploratory case study aimed to foster their agency and facilitate the integration of a conscious version of translanguaging in their teaching. Their experience with the translanguaging pedagogy allowed them to perceive its impact on the classroom and motivated them to explore it with different skills in their future classrooms.

4.4.4 Challenges and Potentials Limitations

The challenges associated with translanguaging pedagogy underscore the complex nature of teaching and learning. The teachers involved in this study explored the topic from multiple

perspectives and identified various factors that could pose potential challenges to this pedagogy. Moreover, the findings from classroom observations and students' follow-up focus groups revealed the impact of students' monolingual ideology and the power imbalance between English and Arabic on the topic under investigation.

This section highlights that translanguaging is part of a broader network of interconnected elements, including the sociopolitical status of the languages involved, accessible knowledge about translanguaging in the field of ELT, the social and institutional ecology surrounding this pedagogy, and its applicability to students of different levels.

4.4.4.1 Moments of Reliance on Arabic.

The classroom observations revealed that some students relied on Arabic while working in pairs to prepare for the English classroom discussion. However, the teachers and I adopted a conscious version of translanguaging and paid attention to when and how we can implement this pedagogy to make the most of it. Thus, this limitation was mitigated as students switched to English to present the final output of the activity.

This observation highlights the importance of differentiating between the process and the product of classroom activities in an EFL classroom. Furthermore, it calls for teachers to align translanguaging spaces with classroom objectives, as some activities require input or output in English only. In the following extract, the students were asked to discuss the Saudi traditions of visiting someone's house. Instead of using their whole linguistic repertoire, the extract shows that the students relied solely on Arabic to brainstorm the English output.

Extract: 12

S1: **Netakhar shwai bs mo katheer nos sa'ah.** [*We arrive late, but not too late.*

Half an hour].

S 2: **Alasha ykon ..** [*The dinner is..*].

S1: **Thabeha w ketha.** [*Sheep meat*].

S 2: **Drinks gahwa Saudia.** [*For drinks, Saudi Coffee*].

S 1: **Bardo aseerat wa shahi.** [*Also, beverages and tea*].

S 1: **Laman nozor ahad awal marrah nejeb haja lelbait mathal faza feha ward.** [*When we visit someone's house for the first time, we bring a house gift like a vase of flowers*].

S 2: **Bas alaghlab hala. Alhadyah laman ykon bayt jaded.** [*but mostly we bring dessert. The gift when someone moves to a new house*].

S 2: **Noktobha bel engelezi.** [*Let us write that in English*].

S 1: When you visit someone's house for the first time. We usually arrive on time, but sometimes late, like half an hour late. We usually take a small present, like a vase, and we also bring sweets and Saudi coffee for dinner. The host usually serves **kabsah** [a Saudi dish made of rice with chicken or meat].

Unlike the rest of the teachers, who expressed their willingness to adopt translanguaging pedagogy in their future classroom. Amani was the only teacher who expressed some hesitation and was worried about students' dependence on Arabic. Therefore, she preferred restricting the use of translanguaging to specific tasks and certain levels of students.

Amani: I am concerned that if they use their mother tongue in an English classroom, they will become overly dependent on it, which could hinder their practice of the target language. I do not find it necessary to use translanguaging with level one students, as the curriculum is not too challenging. They can understand it in English since they are familiar with most of the vocabulary.

Translanguaging is more effective for specific situations and complex tasks.

Aligning with Amani, some of the students in the follow-up focus groups pointed out that the overuse of Arabic could limit their immersive experience in the target language. This concern was also discussed between the teachers and the researcher during the development of the lesson, where

the goal was to adopt a conscious version of translanguaging to embrace its pedagogical benefits without compromising the emphasis on the target language in the EFL class.

Students' reliance on their language could stem from the sociopolitical status of English and Arabic in the current context. All participants in this study are Saudi nationals who speak Arabic as their native language, resulting in an unequal power relationship between English and Arabic. This explains the rationale behind the conscious version of translanguaging, as a strong version could increase the dominance of Arabic and diminish the focus on the target language. Another explanation is the students' limited experience with translanguaging pedagogy. The students in this study experienced translanguaging as a one-off pedagogy, and they might have needed more time to practice engaging with their whole linguistic repertoire more confidently.

To minimise students' reliance on their native language during their pair work, a conscious version of translanguaging was implemented. Students were instructed to follow the translanguaging space with an output in English only. By doing so, the instructions aimed to ensure that the students had access to their whole linguistic repertoire throughout the different steps of the activity. In other words, it aimed to maintain the focus on English in the output while embracing the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of translanguaging pedagogy throughout the activity. Finally, while students' reliance on their native language is often seen as a challenge, it can also be viewed through the lens of the essential role Arabic plays in their identities as bilinguals. Their native language cannot be silenced or suppressed; instead, it can be utilised judiciously in certain parts of the lesson.

4.4.4.2 Insufficient Knowledge about Translanguaging Pedagogy.

Besides students' reliance on their native language, another challenge emerged from a lack of knowledge about translanguaging pedagogy. When teachers were asked about their plans to develop translanguaging pedagogy in their future classrooms, three expressed the need for more training to enrich their understanding of this pedagogy and broaden its application to different skills and course levels.

As mentioned in the stance stage, Samya noted that monolingual ideologies underpin the seminars and workshops at the ELI. Moreover, empirical research in the global south is still limited, rendering a research gap in applying translanguaging in different contexts, skills, and professional levels (Prilutskaya, 2021). The ambiguity surrounding this pedagogy necessitates the need for teachers' training and more empirical studies that offer broader guidelines for implementation, which would perhaps alleviate the teachers' worries.

The following extracts show how the teachers still have some questions about the applicability of translanguaging pedagogy. These concerns are valid considering their short encounter with this pedagogy, which was limited to one class.

Samya: I want to learn more about translanguaging strategies! When should I allow translanguaging, and at what stages of the activities should I do it? How can I use translanguaging to amplify students' learning of different skills?

The questions raised by Samya reflect a critical level of ambiguity about this pedagogy. This issue was also raised by Hanouf, who declared:

Hanouf: Maybe I still have, like...not a very clear idea. I need to learn more about this pedagogy to avoid any misconceptions and gain more confidence in its implementation.

Teachers' concerns about the insufficient knowledge surrounding translanguaging pedagogy are well-founded; the lesson we worked on was based on one class, restricted to A1 and A2 level students and did not cover other skills like writing and listening.

4.4.4.3 Absence of a Supportive Ecology.

In addition to the lack of sufficient knowledge about translanguaging pedagogy, one of the teachers marked the absence of a supportive ecology as another challenge. Mera was sceptical about the possibility of generalising translanguaging in different contexts characterised by deeply rooted monolingual ideology in the broader society.

Mera: I do not see any challenges, but there are various contexts to consider. For instance, in a private ESL institute, families might not allow their children to attend if English and Arabic exercises are used in an English course. However, in our situation, it works well, and I do not believe there are any challenges.

During the stance stage, Mera was one of the two teachers who were not sure about the existence of an English-only policy in the ELI. Thus, she did not see her workplace as a challenging environment for translanguaging pedagogy, nor did she feel anxious about using her first language. Alternatively, Mera identified families' negative attitudes towards translanguaging as a possible impediment. Some families may adhere to conventional language ideologies and prefer their children to have an immersive experience in the target language, or to develop a 'native-like accent' or competence. The insights from Mera's interview highlighted the significance of a supportive environment that values bilingualism to promote translanguaging.

4.4.4.4 Challenges Related to the Students' Proficiency Level

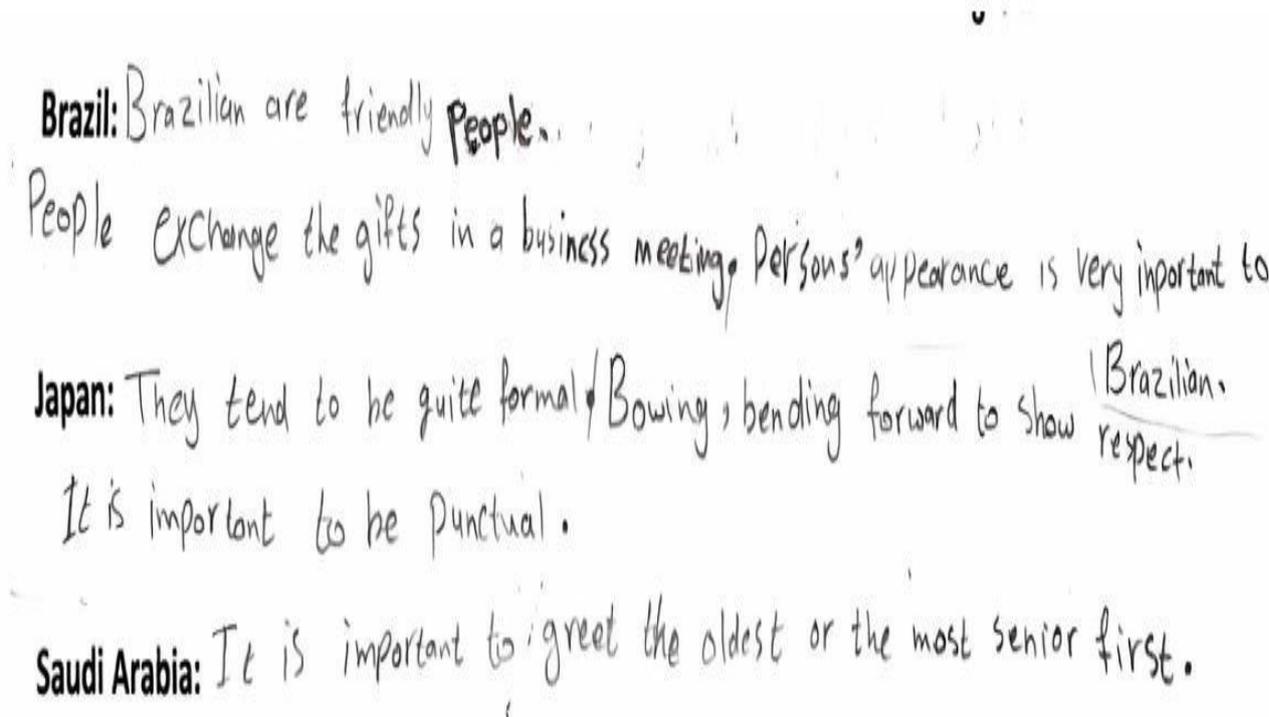
Another challenge highlighted further issues regarding the suitability of translanguaging for beginners. Thekryat was concerned that beginners might struggle to work with both languages simultaneously without depending on literal translation. According to her, translanguaging might be more suitable for students with higher proficiency levels, as they have the linguistic competence to work with both languages without resorting to translation.

Thekryat: Translanguaging is beneficial for teaching advanced levels, but low-level students might struggle to use it effectively. If I ask them to read a topic in Arabic and discuss it in English, they might resort to literal translations, leading to misunderstandings and incorrect meanings.

4.4.4.5 Students' Confusion.

The majority of the students expressed having a positive experience with the lesson, emphasising the effectiveness of translinguaging for the key vocabulary. Still, the findings from classroom observations showed that some students preferred to annotate the reading text in English only, despite having a translinguaging space that allowed them to navigate their whole linguistic repertoire (see Figure 4.3). Later in their follow-up focus groups, five students elaborated on this preference for the monolingual approach, explaining that they found translinguaging for annotating the main ideas of the English text to be confusing.

Figure 4.3: Students' annotating the text in English only



One of the students from Mera's class said:

Alaa: I like to write the main ideas in English, but prefer using translinguaging for vocabulary. Since the reading contains many ideas and is already lengthy, it can be confusing to read a paragraph in English and summarise it in Arabic.

Another student from the same class preferred translanguaging for vocabulary and the pair work discussion. Although she did not find translanguaging to hinder her reading comprehension, dealing with two languages concurrently was confusing.

Jori: It did not hinder my comprehension, but at some points, I got lost between the two languages.

Exploring Alaa and Jori's ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism revealed a tendency toward standard language ideologies. Jori was one of the students who did not oppose the English-only policy and favoured the 'NEST.'

Jori: I prefer a native English teacher because I have previously learned from one and noticed an improvement in my English skills. Even when I do not fully understand something, she can explain it in simple English, which helps me grasp the concepts. As a result, I feel that my English improves with a native speaker.

Similarly, Alaa favoured the British variety of English and considered the 'NEST' to be a better teacher for practising speaking. She stated:

Alaa: If a student wants to make greater progress in speaking, she should be taught by a 'native English teacher' and communicate with someone who speaks English as a first language. This can facilitate language learning.

Another interesting point was raised by Rajeen, who noted that students are more accustomed to translanguaging in the form of translation. However, reading the text in English and annotating the main ideas in Arabic presented a new challenge. It required higher cognitive skills and multi-competence in English and Arabic.

Rajeen: In translanguaging for annotating the main ideas of the reading passage, translation is not effective and time-consuming. Other students might not want to do that. It is easier to summarise the main ideas in English.

A different student from Samya's class did not understand the objective behind translanguaging for the main ideas, which entails students engaging with higher cognitive abilities by synthesising meanings in the two languages. Therefore, she was sceptical about this strategy and described it as confusing.

Layan: Writing the main idea in Arabic might help some students participate in class. However, when I understand the paragraph in English, I can write down the main idea in English, so I do not see the need for Arabic. I prefer English. I get confused between the two languages.

Similarly, a student from Thekryat's class raised the same concern about translanguaging for main ideas by saying:

Shatha: Once I get the idea in English, I do not see the point of summarising it in a different language. I can simply say it in English.

Exploring Shatha's and Layan's ideological stances on standard language might justify their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. They both favoured British and American accents. Additionally, Shatha preferred an immersive experience in the target language, using Arabic only as a last resort.

Shatha: I prefer her to be an Arab. In the class, I want her to speak English only.

But in case I do not understand something, I can talk to her in Arabic, and she will understand me.

Similarly, Layan was one of the students who preferred the English-only policy and was biased toward the 'NEST.' In exploring her stance on monolingual pedagogy, she added:

Layan: I prefer the English-only policy, but I worry that it might make it hard for other students to understand the teacher. I prefer a 'native English-speaking teacher.' There is a significant difference in accent. I feel that some of the teachers

I had in level one negatively impacted my learning experience. If a teacher has a good accent, I will pick it up from her.

Layan's and Shatha's doubts about the significance of using translanguaging for identifying the main idea in reading might have been alleviated if they had been informed about the learning objectives associated with this strategy. However, this awareness could also impact the objectivity of the research; emphasising the pedagogical benefits of translanguaging might lead the students to exhibit bias in favour of translanguaging.

On the other hand, one of the students in Amena's class defended translanguaging for the main ideas of the reading text. She explained how this strategy enabled her to engage at a higher cognitive level, rather than simply copying the same sentences from the English text.

Fatma: The students' answers today were more comprehensive and creative because they were able to generate their own ideas in Arabic. When we annotate the English text in the same language, we just repeat the exact words without fully understanding the content.

The findings from the students' follow-up focus groups showed that some students expressed reservations about using translanguaging to annotate the main ideas of the English text, mainly because they found it confusing. First, translanguaging requires higher cognitive skills, which involve articulating their understanding of the English text in another language rather than simply repeating what is written in English.

Second, this approach differed from their usual classroom practice in that it was perceived as less conventional than what they were accustomed to. It is important to clarify that this translanguaging strategy was introduced as a one-off experience, leaving students with little time to adjust to this sudden change. Without repeated exposure, they likely faced initial confusion regarding how to effectively and deliberately navigate their whole linguistic repertoire in this activity. This could explain why they found it confusing and preferred the more conventional approach of English-only.

Third, some students did not understand the pedagogical objective behind annotating the English text in Arabic, which aims to develop students' metalinguistic awareness and critical thinking. Thus, annotating the English text in the same language was easier and more straightforward for those students.

The fourth reason appeared from juxtaposing the students' stances on standard language ideologies with their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. Four out of the five students who expressed reservations about translanguaging for the main ideas of the reading passage appeared to be influenced by the monolingual native speaker model, which often reflects a hegemonic view of one language and one culture, thereby sidelining the value of bilingualism and translanguaging.

4.4.4.6 “I Came to Class to Learn English!”.

Six students (Hala, Tala, Hawraa, Layan, Ala and Jori) were resistant to accepting translanguaging as a formal pedagogy because they had different learning goals, centred on a more immersive English-only experience. Looking back at the stance stage, it was clear that those students preferred the monolingual approach or had a native speaker bias.

Halal mentioned that she did not engage in translanguaging for the main ideas; her stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism justified her reservations about translanguaging. In the stance stage, Halal emphasised her teacher's 'native-like' accent and preferred British English over other varieties. She was one of the students who supported the monolingual approach when the rest of the students in the focus group criticised its negative affective and interactive implications:

Halal: I prefer the English policy. We are all here to learn English, and it is ok to make mistakes.

The last two students from Amena's class had strong opinions against translanguaging as they found it to limit their immersive experience in the target language.

Tala: I did not like today's class. In the previous classes, we were able to build our linguistic competence by learning to compose pure English sentences without mixing English with Arabic.

Similarly, another student from the same class added:

Hawra: I came to class to learn English. The English I learned in class today is not much compared to the previous classes. I understand that we need to empathise with the other weaker students, but I found today's class a waste of time!

The previous extracts reflected the students' internalised monolingual ideologies, which sought to keep the two languages separate and desire a more immersive experience in the target language.

4.5 The Intersection between the Participants' Stances on Monolingual Pedagogy, Native-speakerism and their Reflections on Translanguaging Pedagogy

The findings of this chapter revealed the interconnection between the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism, and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. In the stance stage, the teachers were able to deconstruct the monolingual native speaker model as they demonstrated agency in their teaching practices, choosing not to adhere to the institution's implicit English-only policy. Moreover, their stance on native-speakerism was underpinned by their positive professional identities as 'NNESTs' and their view of English as a global language. The teachers found validation in their students' recognition of their bilingual identity. Also, they shared a linguistic bond with their students, which fostered a strong connection between the participants and served as valuable pedagogical and interpersonal tools.

Furthermore, most students expressed opposition to the English-only policy for various reasons. These included limited English proficiency, which poses a linguistic barrier that impedes comprehension and effective communication, as well as foreign-language anxiety

. The students' stance on monolingual pedagogy intersected with that of native-speakerism, creating a bias towards the Arab bilingual teacher due to their linguistic bond, which was incorporated into classroom instruction and was shown to facilitate students' learning.

By fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the current context, translanguaging not only challenged the very ideologies that construct native-speaker norms but also created a more inclusive and effective learning environment. The findings from the classroom observations showed how the teachers and their students engaged with this pedagogy, highlighted how the three translanguaging spaces worked out, and what the observed pedagogical functions and implications of this pedagogy.

The reflection stage provided a more comprehensive view of the participants' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. In their follow-up interview, five of the teachers expressed their willingness to incorporate translanguaging in their future classrooms. Teachers' positive perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy were underpinned by their stance on second language teaching, which challenged the monolingual approach and the concept of 'nativeness.' Still, they expressed some valid concerns about translanguaging pedagogy stemming from the lack of supportive ecology, beginners' reliance on their L1, and the insufficient knowledge about this pedagogy.

In their follow-up focus groups, the students expressed a positive experience with translanguaging in their pair work and vocabulary acquisition. Moreover, the teachers and the students highlighted its impact on students' participation and well-being. This is not surprising, since the students had opposed the English-only policy at the stance stage and considered their native language an integral part of their identity, shaping their learning and communication. On the other hand, some students showed resistance to translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogy and preferred a more immersive experience in the target language. Looking back at the students' stance, it was evident that those students were affected by monolingual ideologies or biased toward the native speaker model.

The findings indicate that teachers' identities may shape students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism, and translanguaging. The 'NNESTs' in the current study served as a compelling translanguaging model for their students, fostering students' appreciation of their linguistic repertoire and bilingual identity. Consequently, students viewed their 'NNESTs' as legitimate speakers of the language; this perspective encouraged students to recognise that language proficiency is not limited to 'native speakers' and to challenge the assumption of 'language ownership.'

Although some of the students were inclined to the Anglo-American varieties of the language and favoured 'NESTs', the majority were free from the monolingual and native speakerist ideologies and were all satisfied with the variety of English spoken by their 'NNESTs.' The students perceived their 'NNESTs' as a competent and legitimate bilingual model, away from the traditional monolingual native-speaker reference, which could have a different impact on the students if they were taught by 'NESTs.'

4.6 Conclusion

This exploratory case study highlighted the intersection between the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism, and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. The teachers and the majority of their students questioned monolingual pedagogy and were not biased to the native speaker model. Therefore, the majority of the participants valued translanguaging pedagogy, which challenges the very ideologies that construct monolingual and native-speaker norms.

The findings indicated that while translanguaging pedagogy offered various pedagogical benefits, some students exhibited resistance to translanguaging as a formal pedagogy, either because they found it confusing or because they preferred a more immersive experience in the target language. Furthermore, the teachers shared some challenges that could impede the successful adoption of this

pedagogy. Such findings indicate a need for careful consideration and adaptation in classroom practices.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

The discussion chapter explores the intricate interplay between monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism, and translanguaging pedagogy within the context of English Language Teaching (ELT). The primary objective of this research was to examine how these concepts influence teaching practices and learner experiences in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classrooms. The study revealed that both teachers and the majority of students actively deconstruct standardised language ideologies, challenging the prevailing monolingual and native speakerist norms that often dominate English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and other educational settings. Still, a group of students were affected by native speakerism as a standard dominant ideology that is often shaped by the wider global power attributed to inner circle countries, their language varieties, and publishing institutions (Lowe, 2020; Walsh, 2021). Overall, the findings underscore the intersection between the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism, and translanguaging pedagogy. Through fostering translanguaging in the current context, the study allowed for exploring its affordances in the current context. It highlighted how the participants engaged with this pedagogy and revealed its pedagogical function, implications and challenges.

The current chapter will critically analyse the findings, connect them to the existing literature, and outline the potential for transformative change in language education. The insights garnered from this research not only challenge conventional paradigms but also advocate for a reimagined approach to teaching and learning that embraces students' bilingual/multilingual identities and dynamic linguistic practices.

5.2 Teachers' and Students' Ideological Stances on Monolingual Pedagogy (RQ 1)

In this section, I discuss the findings in relation to the first research question:

1- What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy?

In this discussion, I begin by addressing the implicit English-only policy at the English Language Institute (ELI) and how it perpetuates monolingual pedagogy as the assumed norm. While an examination of the ELI's website and teachers' instructional guide reveals no explicit evidence of such a policy, teachers are still able to identify the prevailing monolingual ideology at the institute, which promotes an immersive experience in the target language while disregarding the use of students' first language (L1). In this chapter, I discuss monolingual pedagogy from different angles, starting with the implicit English-only policy within the institution (the meso level), teachers' and students' resistance to the policy based on their own ideological stances (micro level), and monolingual pedagogy as an assumed norm in the country and the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) (the macro level). To gain a clearer understanding of the teachers' and students' perspectives on monolingual pedagogy, I emphasise the intricate interplay of various factors. These include their shared identities as Arabs and 'non-native' English speakers, students' language proficiency levels and their foreign language anxiety. All of which contribute to their resistance against monolingual pedagogy.

This section also discusses how the participants of this study utilise their linguistic bond to adopt what is shown to be a more humanising approach to second language learning. Furthermore, the study deconstructs monolingual pedagogy as an imposed norm by demonstrating how L1 usage plays a crucial role in enhancing students' metacognitive awareness of second language learning. Ultimately, the study suggests that teachers' use of L1 reflects their context-based teaching, offering a means to overcome the limitations of dominant methodologies rooted in monolingual ideologies, such as the Communicative Language Teaching method (CLT).

5.2.1 The Implicit English-only Policy at the ELI: Monolingual Pedagogy as an Assumed Norm

Exploring teachers' perceptions of the English-only policy at their institution revealed that two of the teachers were uncertain about the policy's status. The other four teachers were able to discern the implicit English-only policy at their workplace, which emphasised an immersive experience in the target language and stigmatised their L1 usage. The fact that the policy is not explicit but rather informal contributes to monolingual pedagogy as a standard assumption and reflects the dominant monolingual ideology in the field of ELT.

Regarding the students, the results from the focus groups were consistent with those of the teachers, verifying the lack of an explicit policy. Out of the twenty-five students, five stated that they had never come across a teacher who enforced a stringent English policy since they joined the ELI. Merely three students verified the presence of such a policy, relying on their prior class experiences. Regarding the remaining majority of the students, their responses showed that the policy was mostly informal, as it was largely dependent on the teacher's preference.

Students viewing the English-only policy as teacher-dependent could be understood via their prior classroom experiences, verifying that some teachers exert agency in challenging monolingual pedagogy. This explains why the current study contradicts the findings of Nguyen et al. (2010), who gathered the data from intermediate and upper-intermediate English major students at the tertiary level in Vietnam and found the English-only policy to be more explicit and agreed upon among teachers. Unlike the current study, the Vietnamese students reported a strong sense of the policy, as all the students agreed that their teachers endorsed an English-only policy at the beginning of the course and never used Vietnamese in class.

In the current study, a review of the teachers' instructional guide and the institute's official website found no evidence of an English-only policy. The teachers perceived the policy more as an implicit expectation than an explicit rule. This creates a contrast between the common practice of bilingualism in the classroom and the prevailing monolingual ideology at the broader macro and meso levels. According to Ricento (2000), the interplay between micro-level classroom dynamics and

macro-level social structures remains inadequately explored in language policy research. The author noted a deficiency in the existing body of research about the interpretation and implementation of educational language policies, particularly in terms of elucidating the interconnections between overarching policy frameworks and their practical application at individual levels.

The discrepancy between teachers' bilingual practices at the micro level and the dominant monolingual ideology at the macro/meso level has led to tension and guilt among a few teachers in this study, restricting them from exploring the full potential of their bilingual competence. This finding aligns with Wei and Lin (2019), who noted that teachers often experience some tension and feel guilty when they deviate from the monolingual assumption and embrace the multilingual reality in their classrooms.

When it comes to the macro level, the linguistic environment of Saudi Arabia is characterised by a monolingual ecosystem, with a lack of linguistic diversity and Arabic being the official and dominant language. Therefore, introducing a foreign language might compel policymakers to conform to an existing perspective of language separation, especially in light of the reported tension between the two languages (e.g., Alqahtani, 2024; Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017; Alsaawi & Almulhim, 2024). According to Alqahtani, the country has traditionally been, and remains, conservative, with its citizens deeply connected to their religion, culture, and language. These cultural and collectivist values can influence the status of both native and foreign languages in Saudi Arabia. In this conservative environment, individuals are likely to preserve their native language, Arabic, when faced with the encroachment of a foreign language like English (Alqahtani, 2024).

Moreover, Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi (2017) noted that various stakeholders, including teachers, employers, senior officials, and parents, still express concerns about the excessive emphasis on English leading to the erosion of local linguistic and cultural identity (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017). Similarly, the Saudi families in Alsaawi and Almulhim's recent study shared that the English-only policy could have a detrimental effect on Arabic and the students' cultural and Islamic identity (2024).

Moving from the macro to the meso level, the teachers in this study illustrated that the monolingual ideology in the ELI can be inferred from the monolingual institutional assessment, the workshops that promote teaching approaches based on monolingual principles and never address L1 usage, and the criticism of teachers who do not adhere to the implicit policy in their teaching.

Hanouf: I have seen that there is a negative perception associated with the employment of Arabic in teaching. I was criticised once for using it in class, which caused me to feel guilty, but I do not think the English-only policy has a solid theoretical foundation. It is more of an assumption.

When asked about the status of the policy in the ELI, another teacher added:

Thekryat: We do not have a clear or explicit policy regarding L1 use.

The implicit English-only policy at the ELI aligns with Cook's (2001) observation, who noticed that the call to exclude L1 from the classroom has never been explicitly conveyed to new teachers. Instead, it is often taken for granted as an assumption. Therefore, the lack of any mention of L1 usage in the intentional policy and teachers' instructional guide establishes monolingual pedagogy as an assumed norm at the meso level. Such practice sends a stronger message than the explicit policy, which at least acknowledges the issue at hand.

The findings of the current study align with those of Alnasser and Almoaily (2022), who noted that the English-only policy in Saudi Arabia is mostly implicit. Their study covered the institutions' policies in different universities and found that most of the participants agreed that their departments lacked an explicit written policy but sought to address the policy informally. Moreover, the implicit English-only policy was also reported at the macro policy level of school education in the United Kingdom. Gundarina and Simpson (2022) noted that the significance of L1 in school education is generally overlooked, attributing this denial to the "powerful ideology of monolingualism and homogeneity" that dominates the education policy in England (p. 525).

A possible explanation for considering the English-only policy as an assumed norm is the lack of representation of studies from different contexts. Unlike the findings of the current study, where the policy is challenged due to several factors, including the sociocultural and linguistic bonds between the participants, Cook (2001) noted that the policy was seen as a better fit in contexts where the teachers did not share the same L1 as the students or when students came from multilingual backgrounds. Similarly, Wiley (2014) argued that in English-speaking Western countries like the United States, most teachers are monolingual and lack the necessary training to instruct linguistically varied students effectively. Therefore, the English-only policy became a mechanism that compensated for teachers' inability to speak their students' language.

5.2.2 Teachers and Students Confronting Monolingual Pedagogy

The findings showed that most of the students (twenty out of twenty-five) opposed the English-only policy and preferred bilingual instruction. All the students naturally utilised their L1 in their collaborative work, attributing their foreign language anxiety and low English proficiency as the main reasons for viewing the policy as a linguistic barrier to comprehension and effective communication. Similarly, the teachers did not adhere to the policy, as they mostly accepted their students' use of Arabic and commonly employed it for a wide range of pedagogical and interpersonal benefits.

The findings regarding students' positive perceptions of L1 usage in the current study align with Neokleous (2017), who examined students' views in eight schools in Cyprus and found that most participants approved of the advantages of L1 usage and acknowledged that it was impossible to remove from the classroom. Additionally, similar acts of resistance to monolingual pedagogy were found in Vietnam. Nguyen et al. (2010) found that most students opposed the policy. Thus, the author called on teachers to abolish enforcing a rigid monolingual approach on their students.

Regarding the teachers, the study aligns with the systematic review of L1 usage conducted by Shin et al. (2020). The authors examined many empirical studies across different English as a Foreign

Language (EFL) contexts. They discovered that most teachers and students recognised the important contribution of the first language to second language (L2) learning.

Nevertheless, teachers' beliefs in bilingual instruction do not disregard the fact that some of them associated their use of L1 with feelings of guilt at some points in their teaching experience. Hall and Cook (2012) highlighted the complexity of teachers' attitudes regarding using L1 in their classrooms by indicating that teachers' beliefs could be more intricate than mere emotions of guilt. Many factors could shape teachers' cognition, including their background, past learning experience as bilinguals, and practice. Moreover, their beliefs could be influenced by other stakeholders, such as their colleagues and policymakers. The findings of this study align with Hall and Cook's (2012) argument, demonstrating that teachers' cognition is complex and extends beyond feelings of guilt. The teachers in this study exhibited resilience, overcoming their guilt by drawing on their local knowledge, learning experiences, and bilingual competence.

However, understanding teachers' cognition about second language teaching could justify why other studies came with contradicting findings, highlighting teachers' resistance to L1 usage and preference for a more immersive approach to second language learning (e.g., Bateman, 2008; Hobbs et al., 2010; Shabir, 2017). Proponents of the monolingual approach (e.g., Duff & Polio, 1990; Halliwell & Jones, 1991; Macdonald, 1993) usually base their argument on Krashen's Comprehensible Input hypothesis (1985), which emphasises the importance of an immersive learning experience and perceives L1 as the threat that minimises students' exposure to the target language.

Nevertheless, this false assumption is invalid in the 21st century, which is marked by an advancement in technology and unlimited opportunities to learn the language outside the classroom. For instance, Chaitanya (2024) noted that mobile-assisted language learning, such as gamification, podcasts, and Duolingo, has become a widely known phenomenon across the globe to the extent that some students have come to the belief that classroom teaching alone cannot develop their language proficiency. The classroom is an inherently restricted medium for second language learning, whether

we allow L1 or not. Thus, instead of picturing L1 usage as the enemy against developing the students' communicative competence in L2, the focus should be shifted to building the students' autonomy and introducing them to unlimited opportunities for language learning outside the classroom, especially in the modern world, where technology and media are inseparable from our students' lives.

5.2.2.1 Pedagogical Benefits of L1 Usage.

The majority of students in this study expressed high support for integrating L1 in vocabulary instruction. Moreover, they viewed L1 usage as a vital pedagogical tool fostering their learning, comprehension and facilitating effective communication. When it comes to the teachers, they challenged monolingual pedagogy and utilised their shared mother tongue with their students to scaffold their learning, boost their meaning-making, increase their metalinguistic awareness, boost their intercultural communication, and save classroom time. They reported on the value of bilingual instructions, particularly in teaching vocabulary and grammar to beginners (A1) and pre-intermediate (A2) students.

Similar to this study, Tanriseven and Kirkgoz (2021) highlighted the pedagogical benefits of incorporating L1 in the EFL classroom in Turkey. The findings showed that L1 plays a role in facilitating students' vocabulary and grammar learning. Furthermore, it helped in managing classrooms, giving instructions, checking for comprehension, and establishing a friendly classroom environment.

In a broader context, the study corresponds with Kohi and Lakshmi (2020), who gathered their data from a cohort of fourteen teachers from twelve different nations who teach English in EFL and ESL classrooms. Approximately 78% of the teachers used their learners' first language for its pedagogical benefits, which included scaffolding students' learning, translating key vocabulary, and explaining classroom materials.

When it comes to students' views of L1 usage, Turnbull and Arnett (2002) noted that studies on the students' attitudes toward L1 usage are relatively limited. Among the studies that investigated

students' perceptions of using L1 in the EFL classroom is that of Wangdi and Shimray (2022). The Saudi students in the current context and the Thai EFL students in the study of Wangdi and Shimray (2022) share the same stance on L1 usage, particularly highlighting the effectiveness of translation and the role of L1 in enhancing grammar and vocabulary acquisition. This shared perspective underscores the importance of incorporating L1 as a supportive tool in language learning.

5.2.2.2 Affective and Interactive Reactions to L1 Usage.

Most students in the current study correlated the English-only policy with adverse affective and interactive reactions. Their comments demonstrated a collective appreciation of their teacher's use of their native language, viewing it as a display of comprehension and empathy towards the difficulties they encounter as beginners and pre-intermediate students.

Similarly, the teachers emphasised that embracing L1 fostered a welcoming and inclusive atmosphere that alleviated foreign language anxiety and promoted students' engagement.

The Affective Filter hypothesis by Krashen (1981) stressed that teachers should create an environment with minimal emotional barriers, allowing students to be more responsive to and open to comprehending the classroom materials. In this sense, the teachers in this study accepted their students' use of L1 to lower the Affective Filter and scaffold their students to reach their potential development level in the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978).

The teachers saw their linguistic bond as a means to create a welcoming and inclusive atmosphere without foreign language anxiety. This humanising aspect of language teaching and learning was emphasised by Edstrom (2006), who provided her rationale for opposing the English-only policy by stressing teachers' duty to acknowledge and accept each student's individuality, treat them with empathy and benevolence, and create a secure environment where they can freely express themselves.

Consistent with the current study, Iswati and Hadimulyono (2018) highlighted the affective benefits of using L1 in their investigation of its role in the EFL classroom in Indonesia. They observed that L1 use helps reduce learners' affective filter by making them feel more secure, comfortable, and ultimately confident in using the target language. The overall findings indicate that L1 should be incorporated into L2 classes, as its absence could impede learners' learning process.

Similarly, Sali (2014) found that using L1 can assist instructors in establishing personal connections, engaging with the students, and cultivating an improved ambience in a Turkish EFL classroom. Similar affective and interactive benefits were also seen in the study of Neokleous (2017). The author investigated the role of L1 in the EFL classroom in Cyprus and confirmed its role in boosting self-assurance among the students. When 75.4% of the participants in the study were unsure how to respond, they were more comfortable asking questions in their L1 instead. This supports the current study's findings, as the teachers and students described the English-only policy as a linguistic barrier that limited their participation. Both the students in the current study and the study of Neokleous (2017) associated the monolingual approach with adverse affective and interactive reactions, such as foreign language anxiety and lower participation levels.

Although it might be wrongly assumed that using L1 could hinder students from practising the target language, the study by Iswati and Hadimulyono (2018) examined video recordings in a Chinese EFL classroom using conversation analysis techniques. The research indicates that using L1 in the Initiation-Response-Feedback cycle could catalyse initiating discourse and increase participation in the target language. The researcher contends that using L1 in the cycle may serve as a mediating tool and facilitate learning the target language.

5.2.3 Unlocking Language Learning: Harnessing L1 as a Powerful Metacognitive Tool

In the current study, students were invited to reflect on their language-learning journey, share their strategies for learning a second language, and explore the role of their native language in this

process. Almost all the students declared that they do not learn English independently from Arabic. The results of the students' focus groups revealed that they employed their L1 as a learning strategy to improve understanding, aid in the acquisition of vocabulary, and support comprehension. The study aligns with McManus's (2021) comprehensive overview of what is currently known about prior language knowledge and experience in second-language learning, confirming that adults' second-language learning differs from first-language acquisition because prior language knowledge and cross-linguistic influence shape how adults learn and use an additional language.

The students in this context stressed the significance of translating English to Arabic to assist them in developing their linguistic skills, especially for vocabulary learning and meaning-making. The findings were supported by several studies, including the one conducted by Al-Musawi (2014). The author examined the learning strategies of Arab students in an EFL context and found that they rely on translation to expand their vocabulary. The findings were also consistent with studies from broader EFL contexts like Iran, in which Karimian and Talebinejad (2013) documented the students' use of translation as an effective strategy to facilitate foreign language learning, and Taiwan, where Liao (2006) asserted that the use of translation in the process of learning a foreign language is extensively utilized, despite the widespread criticism levelled against it by language instructors. The authors confirmed that many students of foreign languages rely on translation to help them understand, retain, and eventually master the language.

Hall and Cook (2012) explained that some language teachers overlook or oppose their students' use of translation because they often correlate it with the discredited grammar translation method, which fails to develop the students' communicative competence. Another reason is the monolingual ideology that underpins the dominant language teaching methodologies (East & Wang, 2024), and the predominance of the direct method, which rejects translation and follows the way in which children learn their first language (Garcia & Wei, 2017). In response to these outdated perspectives, Ellis and Wulff (2019) contested the monolingual model, arguing that, unlike children who learn their first language implicitly, second language acquisition is predominantly characterised

by explicit learning. Furthermore, Galante (2020) pointed out that second language learning is more intricate, particularly in the context of globalisation, human mobility, and multilingualism. This has led to a transition from monolingual to multilingual perspectives, reshaping our comprehension of second and third language acquisition.

To conclude, investigating the students' metacognitive awareness of second language learning in the current study confirmed that they naturally engage in cross-language connections as a learning strategy. Still, language policies and teaching methodologies are underpinned by monolingual dogmas that are not in line with contemporary studies on second language learning (e.g., Bukhari, 2017; Moore, 2013; Shin et al., 2020; Gass, 2020).

The purpose of this study is not to promote a regression to the traditional method of grammar translation nor to diminish the importance of fostering students' communicative competence in EFL classrooms; instead, it is to urge a re-evaluation of the current monolingual ideologies and teaching methodologies in the field of ELT. Therefore, I argue that by acknowledging the spontaneous, inevitable, and dynamic nature of bilingualism. We explore new horizons and unlimited opportunities for second language learning and teaching that break away from monolingual restrictions. In this sense, translanguaging can be an innovative perspective to language teaching and learning that centres the learner's bilingual identities and rich linguistic repertoire.

5.2.4 Teachers' Belief in their Context-Based Teaching

All teachers in the current study believed in their context-based teaching, which values students' use of L1 as a resource and draws on their local knowledge and understanding of their context. Still, they hold conflicting views about the suitability of the communicative language teaching (CLT) and Task-based Teaching (TBLT) methods to their context.

On one hand, Amena, Hanouf and Samya held a critical view of the CLT and TBLT methods for some shortcomings stemming from their monolingual underpinning. Their views align with many scholars, who criticised the monolingual roots of those methods (e.g., East & Wang, 2024; Cook,

2001; Nguyen et al., 2010; Garcia & Wei, 2014; McMillan & Rivers, 2011). Similar concerns about the suitability of the CLT method for the EFL classroom were documented in China (Rao, 2013) and Saudi Arabia (Abahussain, 2016). Rao (2013) argued that teachers in China and other EFL contexts cannot rely solely on the CLT method to meet their students' needs. Instead, they should adopt a more responsive, localised teaching approach based on certain strategies, including translation.

Additionally, Abahussain (2016) noted that the tension between the powers of Arabic and English could form a barrier against adopting the CLT in the Saudi context. The author highlighted the inevitable influence of teachers' local knowledge and the use of Arabic as a valuable teaching tool.

Moreover, the findings from Amena's interview indicated that teachers' cognition could shape their practice and become a pedagogy. When asked about her perceptions of the CLT and TBLT methods, she added:

Amena: Honestly, I am not strictly following one of these methodologies.

My teaching is based on, as I told you, my own teaching strategies.

Like the rest of the teachers, Amena demonstrated a context-based teaching approach that values her local knowledge and adapts her teaching practice to meet the needs of her students.

Amena's response could be seen in the light of what Kumaravadivelu described as a *Postmethod Pedagogy* (Kumaravadivelu, 2001). Bacus (2021) explained that post-method pedagogy represents a shift away from conventional teaching methods, arising from their shortcomings. The findings of this study align with Bacus's observation of the increasing trend of teachers transcending the limitations of traditional methods, necessitating that they adapt their practices according to their context and beliefs (2021).

Overall, the findings from Amena, Hanouf and Samya showed that they exercised significant agency by questioning the dominant monolingual approach in ELT and the ELI's implicit English-only policy. Instead, they valued their local knowledge and believed in their context-based teaching. Similar acts of teachers' agency have been documented in various studies (e.g., Skilton-Sylvester, 2003; Swan, 2015; Wiese, 2001). Teachers' belief in their local knowledge appeared to be a driving

force against conventional language ideologies, as documented in other contexts such as China (e.g., Huang, 2019) and other EFL contexts, including India, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, and Vietnam (e.g., Swan, 2015). The teachers in this study argued that those methodologies are based on a false premise, assuming that bilinguals arrive in the classroom with a 'blank mind,' as quoted in Samya's interview. Ultimately, their perceptions of the CLT and TBLT methods aligned with their views on second language teaching, challenging the standard and monolithic perspective on languages.

On the other hand, Thekryat, Amani, and Mera demonstrated a more adaptable interpretation of CLT and TBLT methods. They viewed these methods as complementary to their teaching philosophy, which recognises the essential role of L1 in second language learning. Their perspectives underscore the significance of flexibility in language teaching approaches. The findings from Thekryat, Amani, and Mera correspond to Swan (2015) who collected data from interviews with 15 teachers of English from seven countries. One of the teachers in Vietnam adapted the CLT method by drawing on their bilingual knowledge and using the first language to meet the demands of their teaching context (Swan, 2015). By incorporating students' native language into CLT and TBLT, educators can create a more effective language-learning environment that respects students' linguistic identities and enriches their educational experiences. (e.g., Aoyama, 2020; Bui & Tai, 2022; Wang, 2023).

In conclusion, the teachers in the current study demonstrated a belief in context-based teaching. Half of the teachers challenged the monolingual foundations of the CLT and TBLT methods while valuing their local knowledge, which acknowledges dynamic bilingualism. The other half expressed a more adaptable viewpoint, indicating the potential alignment between these methods and the use of the first language.

Teachers' belief in context-based teaching is rooted in their conviction about the value of their local knowledge, bilingual competence, and awareness of the socio-cultural and institutional factors

that affect their context. While the communicative teaching method is praised for fostering meaningful interaction and authentic communication in the classroom (Qasserras, 2023; Althagafi, 2023), many of its limitations stem from its monolingual foundation, which overlooks the essential role of L1 in an often flawed effort to replicate the monolingual native speaker model (Cook, 2001; Garcia & Wei, 2014). In this context, translanguaging can function as a flexible and context-based pedagogy within the framework of communicative language teaching. “Flexible weak versions of pedagogic approaches, which encourage teacher variation within a recommended framework, have a much better chance of helping teachers to help their learners to learn” (Tomlinson, 2005, p. 143).

5.3 Teachers’ and Students’ Ideological Stances on Native-speakerism (RQ 2)

In this section, I discuss the findings concerning the second research question:

2: What are the teachers’ and students’ ideological stances on native-speakerism?

Investigating the participants’ stance on native speakerism revealed this ideology to be complex and context-dependent. While the majority of the participants were free from the native speaker bias, a group of students showed that this ideology is shaped by the broader global discourse, which promotes language standardisation by promoting the monolingual native speakers of the English-speaking Western countries and the Anglo-American varieties.

5.3.1 Native-speakerism among Some of the Students

Despite the students in the current study not being taught by ‘Native English-Speaking Teachers’ (NESTs), some of them were affected by native-speakerism as a standard ideology shaped by global discourse. The native speakerist ideology persisted among the five students who preferred ‘NESTs’ for their idealised native accents and speaking teaching skills. The students were influenced by the monolingual native speaker model of the Inner Circle, assuming the ‘NEST’ to be monolingual and of British nationality. Additionally, ten students were strongly inclined to the Anglo-American

varieties of the language. They assumed that British English is the 'authentic' variety of the language, and perceived American English as the 'cool' variety of everyday communication.

Students often perceive the American variety of English as "cool," a perception shaped mainly by the dominance of American culture in media representations and the Hollywood industry (Eriksson, 2019). As noted by Ullah and Akram (2023), the exportation of American culture through Hollywood films and music has contributed significantly to the expansion of English's dominance. Furthermore, British institutions (e.g., Cambridge and the British Council) dominate the textbook market and English proficiency testing in Saudi Arabia. This could have subliminally shaped students' assumptions of British English as the authentic variety of the language. Overall, the findings of the current study support Holliday's et al. (2015) argument, asserting that native speakerism is often underpinned by global power attributed to inner circle countries, their language varieties, and publishing institutions.

Knowing that some of the students in the current study were affected by the native speakerist ideology despite not being taught by 'NESTs' indicates that this standard language ideology is not necessarily based on direct experience but on "assumptions of proper standards of English" as seen to be embodied by the 'native speaker' and the institutions of English-speaking Western countries (Lowe, 2020, pp. 23,57). In other words, the students' stance on native speakerism results from being influenced by standard language ideologies that are often promoted through "powerful institutions, including the education system and mass media" (Walsh, 2021, p. 775). Such observations highlight that native speakerism is more about "the relationships between linguistic standardisation, 'native speaker' status, linguistic power and prestige" (Lowe, 2020, p. 17)

The findings of the current study align with those of Alghofaili and Elyas (2017) in the Saudi context. The authors found that some university students preferred 'NESTs' for their competence in teaching speaking skills. One of the students in their study found the pronunciation 'NESTs' to be ideal for second language learning. In a broader context, the study supports similar findings in the United States context, where Mahboob (2004) investigated the same topic among adult students

enrolling in an ESL program. The author found that ‘NESTs’ are often regarded as the most effective in teaching spoken language proficiency. Similar conclusions were drawn by Butler (2007a), who documented students' bias towards ‘NESTs,’ particularly for their American accents, and perceived them as demonstrating superior pronunciation.

Students’ inclination towards the Anglo-American varieties was also reported in Eriksson’s (2019) study. The author surveyed Swedish upper school students and found that they felt British and American English should be the primary focus of their classes. The author concluded that British English held a significant position among the students. They regarded it as superior to other varieties and perceived American English as ‘cool.’ Moreover, this study echoes the perceptions of Chinese university students reported by Evans (2010), in which British English was described as ‘standard’ and American English as ‘casual.’

The idealisation of the ‘NESTs’ and the Anglo-American varieties of English is rooted in Kachru’s model (1990), which some scholars have criticised for portraying English speakers in Inner Circle countries as the primary language owners (e.g., Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose et al., 2020). For the students who showed a preference for the standardisation of English, their knowledge of the language varieties was restricted to the two dominant Anglo-American varieties: British and American English. This proved a lack of awareness about the other global varieties of the language. Students’ narrow perspectives about the language varieties are unsurprising since even Kachru’s approach was criticised for failing to capture the various varieties inside the Inner Circle (Bruthiaux, 2003).

A limited understanding of English as a global language and the multitude of variations within the language underpinned students' inclination towards the dominant Anglo-American varieties of the language. This limited awareness of the dynamic nature of the English language stems directly from native-speakerism, which idealises the concept of nativeness and fails to recognise that English has developed into a global language with a diverse range of varieties. To bridge this limited

understanding, the study underscores the call of Huang (2019), who advocated for raising students' awareness of critical paradigms like world Englishes, English as a lingua franca, and considering the imperial and sociopolitical hierarchy of English and other languages. Moreover, promoting translanguaging, as demonstrated in the studies of Makalela (2015) and Darvin and Norton (2023), can encourage critical reflection on standard language ideologies, cultivate students' appreciation of all the languages in their repertoire and validate the legitimacy of their identities as multilingual speakers beyond the native speaker model.

5.3.2 Students and Teachers Redefining Language Norms Beyond Native-speakerism

Moving from the group of students influenced by the native speakerist ideology, the findings showed that the teachers and the remaining majority of the students were free from native-speakerism. The 'Non-Native English-Speaking Teachers' (NNESTs) in this study felt valued and appreciated by their students for sharing the same linguistic bond. According to the teachers and their students, this connection fostered both interpersonal relationships and pedagogical benefits in the EFL class. Additionally, students' acknowledgement of their teachers' competencies played a significant role in enhancing the professional image of these 'NNESTs.'

The teachers perceived English as a global language and did not give any significance to speaking English with a native accent. They did not associate a teacher's competence with belonging to Inner-Circle countries or speaking the dominant Anglo-American varieties of English (British or American). Four teachers mentioned that they prefer exposing the students to different varieties and accents. The other two teachers did not focus on linking English to a particular country or culture.

This study contradicts the findings from Eriksson (2019), in which upper secondary school teachers in Sweden held British and American English in high esteem and primarily instructed their students using those varieties. Additionally, the teachers in the current study hold a different view from the Chinese teachers in Huang's study (2019). When questioned about which variety of English

should be learned and taught, all the participants in Huang's study suggested either American or British English.

On the contrary, the 'NNESTs' in this context have a critical awareness of paradigms like World Englishes. Subsequently, they did not perceive the dominant Anglo-American language varieties as superior to others. This can be attributed to their postgraduate degrees in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, which have cultivated their critical awareness of English as a global language. As one of the teachers explained:

Samya: Under the framework of World Englishes. Acquiring a native accent is insignificant. Nowadays, the number of 'non-native' English speakers outweighs the number of 'native speakers.' We should be aware of the different English varieties worldwide and not be restricted to the Anglo-American varieties of the language. There are hundreds of forms of speech around the world. Those varieties should be represented in the curriculum, and English speakers from different countries should be included.

Teachers' stance on native-speakerism aligns with the study of Swan (2015). The author interviewed teachers from China, India, Indonesia, Singapore, Thailand, the Philippines, and Vietnam. The findings emphasised the impact of the global spread of English on transforming common perceptions of native-speaker status, indicating that English is no longer exclusively associated with English-speaking Western countries. The teachers in Swan's study understood the role of English within their regional contexts, which gave them confidence in their local knowledge and enabled them to counter the native speakerist ideology.

Interestingly, this study aligns with Houghton and Rivers's argument that Holliday's (2006) view of native-speakerism does not fully capture the complexities of this ideology in various contexts. This is especially relevant in countries without histories of colonialism and imperialism, such as the context examined in this study. They added that countries without these historical power imbalances may be able to execute the ideology differently (2013).

The findings of this study proved that native-speakerism is not a static ideology that affects different contexts equally. The teachers in this study did not feel discriminated against or marginalised by ‘NESTs.’ They felt empowered by their bilingual identities and their shared L1 with their students. Subsequently, the study invites educators to move beyond the ‘native-non-native’ dichotomy and consider more relevant distinctions in today’s context, specifically between monolingual and multilingual instructors. This perspective aligns with Kramsch and Zhang's (2018) call to move beyond teachers’ ‘nativeness’ and shift the focus to their multilingual competence.

Another significant factor that could have shaped the teachers’ stance on native-speakerism is the sense of empowerment derived from their affiliation with the Saudi institution. According to the employment reports at the ELI, the Saudi teachers make up the majority (185 out of the 225). This act demonstrates that native-speakerism is absent from the recruitment policy, as it does not impact employment practices. As noted by Swan (2015), the role of teachers’ affiliation and belonging to their workplace showed to diminish the ideology of native-speakerism. Neither the teachers in the current study nor those in Swan’s (2015) study experienced feelings of inferiority or self-marginalisation, as they were empowered by their strong sense of affiliation and their confidence in their local knowledge.

Since several sociopolitical and interpersonal factors influence the ideology of native-speakerism, it is crucial to consider the local contextual factors to grasp how native-speakerism is viewed across different settings (Nomura & Mochizuki, 2018). This study proposes that the professional identities of ‘NNESTs’ are influenced by their professional settings, local knowledge, and their students’ perceptions of them. Those factors shaped the teachers’ stance on native-speakerism in the current context, leading to a positive professional identity. On the other hand, Kim (2011) reported different findings, showing that the ‘non-native’ English speaker enrolled in a teachers’ education program in the United States suffered an inferiority complex. The participants felt that only ‘NESTs’ spoke perfect English and viewed them as ideal English teachers.

The study of Amin (1997) highlighted the role of the students' perceptions in shaping the professional identity of the 'NNESTs.' Unlike the current study, where the teachers felt valued by their students for drawing on their shared cultural and linguistic bonds, Amin (1997) reported conflicting findings, revealing that the 'NNESTs' in their study felt a sense of powerlessness. This was mainly due to their students' biases, which led them to view 'NESTs' of white ethnicity as the ideal teachers.

On the other hand, the findings of Wang and Fang (2020) align with the current study in highlighting that Native-speakerism, although widely acknowledged in the field of ELT, was not a prominent feature in their research results. Similar to this study, the authors found that teachers' local knowledge is a powerful influence in deconstructing native-speakerism. Moreover, the current study aligns with Huang (2019) and Swan (2015), where the teachers challenged native-speakerism by drawing on their local knowledge and multilingual competence as 'NNESTs.' The teachers in this study and previous studies (e.g., Huang, 2019, and Swan, 2015) demonstrated great agency and confidence in their teaching abilities. They effectively related to and communicated with students through their shared mother tongue and cultural background, saw themselves as role models for second language learning, and had a deeper understanding of students' learning difficulties.

Regarding the students, it is essential to note that their stance on native-speakerism, particularly their preference for native Arabic-speaking teachers, aligns with their stance on monolingual pedagogy, which was characterised by a strong inclination towards bilingual instruction. The students favoured Arab native teachers for the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of having a shared linguistic bond. Furthermore, the students were aware of the importance of becoming familiar with various varieties of English, or they had different learning objectives that did not focus on knowing about the language's varieties. When asked about their perceptions of their teachers' accents, all the Saudi students were satisfied with the variety of English spoken by their Saudi 'NNESTs.'

Similar findings were reported by Alghofaili and Elyas (2017), who interviewed Saudi university students and found that they were free from native-speakerism and content with the familiar variety of English spoken by their Saudi teachers. As noted by Ahn and Kang (2017), the issue of familiarity plays a significant role in students' perceptions of English varieties. The authors found that the Korean students in their research had a generally favourable attitude towards Korean-accented English compared to other varieties. This could explain the Saudi students' agreeable attitude to their teacher's Saudi-accented English in this study.

Furthermore, students' desire to be familiar with the various language varieties aligns with the perceptions of South Korean university students in Ahn and Kang (2017). Similar to the students in this study, the authors found that their students reflected an understanding of the extensive worldwide use of the English language. Subsequently, they were eager to get acquainted with different language varieties to boost their communicative competence. Their study highlighted the importance of students' critical awareness of English as a global language, as it demolished the native speakerist ideology. This aligns with Huang's (2019) observation regarding the importance of cultivating students' awareness of English's global spread, which challenges the assumed superiority of Anglo-American varieties over other forms of English.

Students' bias towards the 'NNESTs' who share the same linguistic bond with them is reported by Larasati et al. (2022). They examined the attitudes of 241 high school students toward 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs' in Indonesia. Similar to this study, the findings revealed that 96% of the participants favoured 'NNESTs' for incorporating their first language while teaching English. The findings of this study also echo the students' perceptions in Hong Kong, where Ma (2012) concluded that students favoured 'NNESTs' for several pedagogical reasons, including using their shared L1 in vocabulary and grammar teaching, meaning-making, and communication.

In the current study, students' emphasis on the interpersonal benefits of having Arab teachers suggested a preference for a more relatable and empathetic approach to English language teaching.

The impact of the interpersonal aspect on students' inclination towards 'NNEST' was confirmed by Alghofaili and Elyas (2017). The Saudi university students demonstrated a preference for 'NNESTs' due to their greater understanding of the challenges students encounter when speaking English. Similarly, Mahboob (2004) noted that the ESL students in the United States were inclined towards the 'NNESTs' for their better understanding of their students' needs since they had personally experienced the same challenges of second language learning. The students in Mahboob's and the current study looked up to their 'NNESTs' as positive models for language learning. The impact of the interpersonal aspect on students' inclination towards 'NNEST' was also reported in China. Feng and Zhang (2022) investigated Chinese university students' perceptions of 'NESTs' and 'NNESTs' using a questionnaire and interviews. Their findings correspond to the current study, as participants leaned toward 'NNESTs' due to their greater understanding of the students' needs. Both the students in the current study and in Feng and Zhang's (2022) study perceived the shared second language learning journey between them and their 'NNESTs' teachers as a bonding experience.

To understand the students' stance on native speakerism, it is important to discuss it in light of their second language learning ideologies and the contextual factors that shape the current case study. Students' stance on native speakerism showed to intersect with their stance on monolingual pedagogy. The majority of the students revealed a strong bias towards native Arabic-speaking teachers, as their shared cultural and linguistic background built a sense of connectedness that influenced their perceptions of the topic under investigation.

The overwhelming majority of teachers concurred that the students regard the Saudi teacher as someone they can identify with due to their shared mother tongue and similar educational and cultural backgrounds. They emphasised the significance of having a common native language with their students and how students appreciated this bond, as it aided communication when the students struggled to express themselves in English. Moreover, the students believed that sharing the same native language reflected well on their learning experiences. One student commented that their shared

linguistic identity facilitated better communication with the Arab teachers. Additionally, another student reported that ‘NESTs’ faced challenges in conveying complex meanings, particularly to students with a low command of English.

Understanding the students' educational background could explain their distinctive stance on native-speakerism. In Saudi public schools, the recruitment of teachers is mainly limited to Saudi citizens. The student's previous educational background could influence their stance on native-speakerism, leading them to prefer being taught by someone familiar, such as the Saudi teacher. The findings of this study align with Boyle's observation that ‘NNESTs’ benefit from students' cultural connections (Boyle, 1997). Additionally, the study corresponds with Beckett and Stiefvater's research, which found that ESL international students appreciated instruction from ‘NNESTs,’ especially those who were attuned to their cultural backgrounds and individual needs (Beckett & Stiefvater, 2009).

The findings in this section could have a substantial impact on teachers, students, stakeholders, and language teacher hiring practices. These groups should adopt an impartial perspective toward both ‘NESTs’ and ‘NNESTs,’ taking into account their language backgrounds, teaching abilities, and expertise. It is essential to reassess the ideology of native speakerism, as it is complex, dynamic, and shaped by ethnographic and contextual factors. To challenge the native speaker fallacy, students and teachers should recognise the diversity of linguistic varieties and understand English with the critical paradigm of world Englishes and English as a lingua franca. These paradigms have progressed beyond native-speakerism by emphasising the language's diversity and not limiting authentic English to the varieties spoken by a limited number of native speakers.

5.4 Fostering Translanguaging Pedagogy (RQ 3)

This exploratory case study involved fostering a translanguaging pedagogy to answer the third research question:

3. How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?

In this section, I discuss the findings from the classroom observations to highlight the affordances of this pedagogy in the current context, emphasising how it influenced teachers' practices and students' learning experiences. It is important to note that the pedagogical functions, as well as the challenges that emerged from this pedagogy, were verified across the other research tools and will be discussed in section 5.5 of this chapter. Consequently, this section will concentrate on the key findings and main themes that arose from the classroom observations.

5.4.1 The Impact on Teachers' Practice

Navigating teachers' perspectives of monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism revealed a philosophical stance that moved away from these ideologies. However, the teachers declared in the stance stage that their use of L1 was spontaneous, often employed as a last resort, and sometimes accompanied by feelings of guilt despite their belief in the value of bilingualism. It is worth noting that teachers' beliefs about second language teaching do not necessarily align with their teaching practice. To illustrate, Haukas (2016) found that although instructors generally hold positive views on multilingualism, they frequently do not reflect these attitudes in their teaching. Furthermore, Borg (2017) explained that teachers are often unable to put their beliefs into practice due to contextual restrictions. In the current study, several personal and ecological constraints were identified, including teachers' limited knowledge of this pedagogy, the dominant monolingual beliefs in the ELI, and the monolingual classroom objectives and assessments. Moreover, Liu et al. (2020) highlighted additional constraints related to the limited research on implementing translanguaging pedagogy and the support needed for instructors to integrate this pedagogy into their classrooms.

In response to these constraints, this exploratory study aimed to develop teachers' capacity to implement translanguaging pedagogy in the English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classrooms. The

findings from classroom observations and teachers' interviews signified the evolution in teachers' practice. It showed how teachers successfully created translanguaging spaces that utilised the students' whole linguistic repertoire. The teachers were able to reflect on the purpose of those spaces before delivering the lesson. Additionally, the classroom observation revealed that they implemented a conscious version of translanguaging by distinguishing between the process and product of activities, providing students with clear instructions and expectations regarding their linguistic choices.

Furthermore, the findings from the classroom observations showed that teachers' spontaneous translanguaging complemented the planned translanguaging strategies. By actively engaging in translanguaging, the teachers acted as bilingual role models for their students. This approach helped to challenge standardised language ideologies and empowered students to utilise their whole linguistic repertoire without the fear of violating the English-only policy.

Underpinned by their philosophical stance, which challenged monolingual pedagogy, the teachers in this study showed contradicting results compared to those in Poland, where Sobkowiak (2022) indicated a significant lack of teacher-initiated natural translanguaging practices during the class, likely due to their preference for primarily using English in the classroom.

Similar to this study, Liu et al. (2020) and Tian and Shepard-Carey (2020) collaborated with classroom teachers to move the theory of translanguaging into practice. Liu et al. (2020) worked with a researcher in an EAP course at a Chinese institution. Like this study, the author showed that teachers developed more positive attitudes toward translanguaging after witnessing its impact on students' learning. Additionally, Tian and Shepard-Carey (2020) adopted the three strands of translanguaging pedagogy proposed by Garcia et al. (2017) to inform teachers' practice and assist them in implementing translanguaging pedagogy in their classrooms. Like this study, the teachers developed a better understanding of translanguaging pedagogies and became more skilled at creating translanguaging spaces purposefully and judiciously.

Although the present model of fostering translanguaging pedagogy showed strong potential in evolving teachers' practices and promoting translanguaging pedagogy in EAP classrooms, the study was conducted on a small scale with six teachers in a setting marked by an implicit English-only policy and the absence of institutional support. Therefore, I cannot say that it has a strong transformative effect on the institution under investigation. I also worry about teachers' commitment to this pedagogy, considering the time and effort it could take without a supporting curriculum or suitable classroom materials. This note was also raised by Ticheloven et al. (2021), who indicated that the strategic implementation of this pedagogy might be challenging because it requires extra effort and time from classroom teachers.

To sustain this pedagogy in teachers' future classrooms, there is a strong need for policy adaptations and teachers' training, as these crucial factors could determine the transformative potential of this pedagogy. Gorter and Arocena (2020) suggested that in-service training for teachers on multilingual approaches could help inform their practice. Their study offered valuable insights, including the need to update teachers' training programs with the modern concepts of multilingualism and translanguaging, which have gained significant popularity in applied linguistics and sociolinguistics via the Multilingual Turn (May, 2013).

5.4.2 Students' Engagement with Translanguaging Pedagogy in Class

The six classroom observations revealed how the students engaged in strategic translanguaging spaces designed to explore the implications and pedagogical functions of this pedagogy. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the study employed a conscious version of translanguaging, paying attention to the educational setting, its objective, and the status of English and Arabic in the research context. The conscious version of translanguaging aligns with Mendoza et al.'s (2023) recent call for scrutinising the sociopolitical, historical, and geographical contexts in which this critical approach is applied, since these factors influence individual language ideologies and their equitable use of the resources in their linguistic repertoire. In the current context, the

conscious version of translanguaging considers the power imbalance between Arabic, the native language of all participants, and English, the target language.

Exploring students' engagement with translanguaging strategies revealed some challenges, echoing Mendoza et al.'s (2023) call for reflecting on the context in which this critical approach is applied. Since a homogeneity of Saudi students and teachers marks the context of the current study. The study documented moments of students' reliance on their native language along with other challenges that will be discussed in detail in section (7.5.2).

Despite these challenges, observing the students' engagement with the translanguaging strategies offered fascinating insights into the pedagogical and interpersonal implications of this pedagogy. Most of these implications were verified across the three research tools and are discussed as part of teachers' and students' perception of this pedagogy (see section 7.5.1). One of the distinctive pedagogical implications that only emerged from the classroom observations was the role of translanguaging in enhancing students' intercultural competence. Similar findings were raised by Tai and Wong (2023) in an ethnographic project conducted in the U.S. The findings uncovered that a translanguaging space enabled students to recognise various languages as valuable resources, fostering an appreciation for linguistic and cultural diversity within their community.

The following extract from the classroom observations shows how the teachers and their students in the current study engaged in translanguaging to compare cultural traditions and social norms across different countries.

T: Some languages have different ways of saying 'you'. There's a formal word to use in formal situations like work and a different word for family and friends. **Feh endahom taregatain enahom vogolo** 'you' [*There are different ways to say you*]
We have a formal word to use in formal situations. Can you think of the Arabic way to say 'you' in formal situations? **Kaif tetkalami ma'a maso'ol kabeer?** [*How do you talk with someone in a high position?*]

S: **Hadratek** / *An expression used to address people in formal situations*] T:

Hadratek. Excellent!

T: **Sahbatek tgoli laha enti golti sah? Laken ma'a maso'ol** high authority **ma yenfaa' tgoli enta. Tgoli hadratek.** [*Use you when you speak to your friends, but when you speak to someone in high authority, you cannot use you. You should use **Hadratek**.*]

After discussing greetings in Brazil and Japan, translanguaging was used to draw the students' attention to the custom of addressing people of higher authority in Saudi Arabia.

Through this cultural mediation, translanguaging fostered cross-cultural communication. The classroom observation showed that translanguaging was successfully employed to articulate cultural concepts, traditions, or societal norms that may lack clear equivalents in English, such as the word **Hadratek**, which is a gender-neutral noun used to address people in formal settings.

Moreover, the other implications that emerged from the classroom observations confirmed the vital role of translanguaging in scaffolding students' learning during their pair work, contributing to their English language development. Similar findings were found in Indonesia, where Rasman (2018) highlighted how students utilised their linguistic repertoire (Indonesian, Javanese, and English) to support one another in completing tasks. This collaborative approach helped them finish their assignments and enriched their vocabulary learning.

In this sense, fostering translanguaging in students' pair work functioned as a scaffold to boost students' learning and meaning-making, corresponding to Vygotsky's social-cultural theory, which highlights the importance of guidance and collaboration in helping learners reach their full developmental potential in Vygotsky's perspective on the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978).

Besides the impact of translanguaging on fostering students' intercultural competence and scaffolding their foreign language learning in pair work, the classroom observation revealed that

teachers and students could employ translanguaging as a comprehension check. The following extract illustrates how translanguaging was employed to document the students' internal thinking of the meaning of the word campaigner.

S1: **Tamooh?** [*Ambitious?*]

T: Hmm

S 2: **Hwa shai eyjabi?** [*Is it something positive?*]

T: **Hwa shai eyjabi.** [*It is a positive thing*]

T: **Howa shakhs zav al** activist. [*Someone like an activist*]. A campaigner is a person who does activities to try to change something, such as the law in society.

Similar findings were shared by Tai (2024), who found that students' translanguaging could serve as interactional resources that helped them articulate their conceptual understanding. The author explained that this process provides teachers with valuable diagnostic information to evaluate students' current knowledge levels during the learning process.

5.5 Teachers' and Students' Perceptions of Translanguaging Pedagogy (RQ 4)

In this section, I discuss students' and teachers' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy, focusing on the following questions:

4: What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experiences with translanguaging pedagogy?

The stance stage highlighted the connection between the participants' views on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism. The teachers asserted their agency by challenging monolingual approaches, demonstrating confidence as 'NNESTs' who leveraged their bilingual identities as

valuable teaching assets. Likewise, most students rejected the English-only policy and appreciated their ‘NNESTs’, recognising their shared mother tongue as a crucial bond that helped in deconstructing native speakerism.

Through classroom observations, the teachers were able to deconstruct standard language ideologies by creating translanguaging spaces that utilised students’ linguistic repertoire. Moving to the students’ follow-up focus groups and teachers’ follow-up interviews will shed light on the participants’ experiences/perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy and explore the extent to which their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism intersect with translanguaging.

5.5.1 Benefits of Translanguaging Pedagogy

The pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of translanguaging pedagogy were among the prominent themes validated across the three research tools. In this section, I focus on the teachers’ follow-up interviews and students’ follow-up focus groups to discuss the role of translanguaging in boosting students’ vocabulary learning, metalinguistic awareness, meaning-making, participation, and well-being.

5.5.1.1 The Impact of Translanguaging on Students’ Learning and Well-being.

Many scholars noted that the lack of empirical research on translanguaging renders a research gap, especially in the impact of translanguaging on students’ well-being, metalinguistic awareness, and second language learning (e.g., Huang & Chalmers, 2023; Prilutskaya, 2021; Treffers-Daller, 2023). This study filled a significant research gap by highlighting translanguaging’s pedagogical and interpersonal implications in the EFL classroom. By validating the students’ identities as bilinguals and valuing all the resources in their linguistic repertoire, the teachers and students emphasised that translanguaging created an amiable and inclusive atmosphere in which most students enjoyed language learning away from the restriction of the English-only policy.

Since the students in the stance stage correlated the English-only policy with foreign language anxiety and low participation, translanguaging created an amiable atmosphere where the teachers and students experienced language learning enjoyment. One of the teachers added:

Mera: The students were delighted. It makes them more active. It was their first time seeing both languages incorporated into a reading activity. The class was different; everyone was active, even the quiet students.

Another student echoed the teacher by saying:

Dana: I truly appreciate this teaching method; it feels much more engaging. Even students who are typically passive in class become active participants when given the chance to engage in any language.

Similar findings were reported by Fang and Liu (2020), who noted that some university teachers in China employed translanguaging for pedagogical and interpersonal benefits, including creating a “warm classroom atmosphere” (p. 15). In the same vein, Sanjaya et al. (2023) noted that translanguaging created a safe space for Indonesian EFL school students. The students in their study engaged in translanguaging to seek help, communicate freely, and express their emotions, ultimately reducing foreign language anxiety. This aligns with the findings of the current study, which revealed that appreciating the students' rich linguistic repertoire fostered a positive learning environment where students felt confident and enjoyed foreign language learning. Thus, the students were moved to engage and participate in class.

The impact of translanguaging on increasing students' participation was echoed in the study of Elashhab (2020). The findings from a mixed-method approach highlighted the role of translanguaging in boosting students' engagement among Saudi university students. In the same vein, Yasar Yuzlu and Dikilitas (2022) investigated the perceptions of students in an EFL class in Turkey. Similar to this study, they found that translanguaging provided them with a sense of comfort and motivation to use English.

In addition to the interpersonal and interactive advantages of translanguaging, the students' and teachers' perceptions of translanguaging revealed that it enhanced vocabulary acquisition and meaning-making. In the Saudi context, the study aligns with Elashhab (2020), who investigated translanguaging strategies among Saudi medical students in an EAP classroom. The findings suggested that translanguaging helped to maintain discussions, facilitate vocabulary acquisition, and promote meaning-making. In the same context, Bin Ghali (2023) explored students' reflections on translanguaging pedagogy in collaborative reading tasks among university students in Saudi Arabia. The findings correspond to the current study, confirming the role of translanguaging in enhancing students' comprehension and fostering their metalinguistic awareness.

In contrast to the current study, which utilised translation limitedly in one of the translanguaging strategies for teaching key vocabulary and was described by students as the most valuable moment, Vaish (2019) relied on translating English texts into students' home languages as the main translanguaging strategy. According to the author, this method was intended to reinforce students' understanding of English words and increase their "metalinguistic awareness of synonyms or near synonyms between languages" (Vaish, 2019, p. 248). However, the author found that requiring students to translate those texts was often time-consuming and inefficient. This limitation informed the choice of translanguaging strategies in the current study. As detailed in the methodology chapter, the teachers and I decided to use translation to a limited extent by focusing on translating the key vocabulary of the reading passage. The purpose of including translation in the current study was to enhance vocabulary comprehension and enable the students to use the key vocabulary in English output.

In line with the studies exploring the pedagogical benefits of translanguaging, Carroll and Sambolin Morales (2016) utilised translanguaging pedagogy in an ESL classroom in Puerto Rico. Like this study, their study was one of the few that reflected a thoughtful implementation of this pedagogy. They emphasised the distinction between the process and the product, as well as when to use translanguaging versus English only. The study offered similar findings as translanguaging

fostered collaborative learning and served as a scaffold in students' collaborative work. Additionally, their findings support the current study's findings, showing that translanguaging can function as a comprehension check, allowing students to demonstrate their internal thinking without being hindered by their low proficiency levels or the English-only policy. However, their study differed from the current one in that it occurred in a different context, where macro- and meso-level language policies actively promote bilingualism. Subsequently, all the students in the ESL classroom engaged enthusiastically with translanguaging, unlike the current study, in which some students preferred the monolingual approach, as shown later in this chapter.

Building on the previously discussed studies that highlight the positive implications of translanguaging, it is essential to note that translanguaging is not a linear process. Studies have shown that various factors, including teachers' and learners' ideologies, as well as the surrounding ecology and monolingual language policies, can pose challenges or resistance to this approach (e.g., Allard, 2017; Liu et al., 2023; Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020).

In the Saudi context, Alzabidi and Al-Ahdal (2022) examined the students' perceptions of translanguaging in upper-secondary education. Although most students acknowledged engaging in spontaneous translanguaging in their classroom, their findings contradict the current study, as the students chose the traditional monolingual method over translanguaging. Unlike the current study, the study by Alzabidi and Al-Ahdal (2022) lacked a translanguaging design, and the students' experience was limited to spontaneous translanguaging. Most importantly, the students were influenced by their teachers' monolingual ideologies and were concerned about negative judgments from their teachers when they did not adhere to the English-only policy.

5.5.2 Challenges of Translanguaging Pedagogy

In addition to the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of translanguaging discussed in the previous sections, the teachers shared some challenges that could hamper the potential of this pedagogy. Part of the challenges emerged from the current context, where English and Arabic do not

enter the classroom on equal footing, leading to documented instances of students relying on their native language. Other challenges include limited knowledge about translanguaging pedagogy and teachers' uncertainty about its applicability in various contexts, across different skills and language proficiency levels.

Besides those challenges, this section addresses the students' confusion with translanguaging for the main ideas, which caused some students to view this strategy as the least valuable part of the class. Additionally, I discuss why a group of students resisted accepting translanguaging as a formal pedagogy.

5.5.2.1 Students' Reliance on Arabic.

This research setting is marked by linguistic homogeneity among all the Arab participants. Additionally, the students are beginners (A1) and intermediate (A2) English language learners in a context where English is a foreign language. Thus, one of the teachers raised concerns about the student's reliance on Arabic in the reflection stage. Her critical reflection of this pedagogy aligned with the call of Canagarajah (2011a), who urged educators to cultivate a critical awareness of the use of translanguaging in their lessons and how their students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds impact their pedagogical choices. The teacher's concern was validated by the findings from classroom observations, which revealed that some students relied on Arabic while working in pairs to prepare for the English classroom discussion. However, the teachers and I adopted a conscious version of translanguaging and paid attention to when and how we can implement this pedagogy to make the most of it. Thus, this limitation was mitigated as students switched to English to present the final output of the activity.

The students' overuse of Arabic in their pair work can be attributed to three main reasons. First, the fact that the translanguaging lesson was a one-off experience could have limited students' exposure to this pedagogy. They may have required additional classes to adapt to translanguaging as a formal pedagogy and engage with their linguistic repertoire more confidently. Second, the students

are beginners and pre-intermediate, and their limited proficiency in the target language caused some reliance on their native language. Third, there was linguistic homogeneity among all participants, as all students and teachers are native Arabic speakers. This has considerably exacerbated the power disparity between the two languages, given Arabic's natural and dominant role in fostering greater mutual understanding among the participants.

Similar findings regarding the inequitable treatment of various languages due to the different socio-politically constructed statuses of English and other languages were seen in Rosiers (2018). The author observed an unequal treatment of languages stemming from the predominance of Turkish-speaking students in two elementary multilingual classes in Belgium. Moreover, Galante (2020) found that the predominance of Chinese students in an English-language program at a Canadian university led to students' reliance on their L1. As a result of this challenge, Saud (2023) found that although all the teachers in Nepal's multilingual classrooms acknowledged the importance of translanguaging, some expressed concerns about losing the focus on the target language. The same concern was raised by one of the teachers in the current study. Amani was the only teacher who was worried about students' dependence on Arabic. Therefore, she preferred to restrict the use of translanguaging to specific tasks and to certain levels of students.

On the other hand, Xiao and Lertlit (2023) reported findings that differ from those of the current study. They found that the students in Thailand, despite expressing positive attitudes toward translanguaging, hesitated to use their mother tongue when interacting with their 'NESTs.' This reluctance stemmed from the fact that the teachers did not speak the students' first language. Such findings suggest that linguistic homogeneity among the participants may influence their linguistic choices.

To mitigate this challenge that hinders students from utilising their linguistic repertoire, Rasman (2018) suggested raising students' awareness of language bias. "Once the students are aware of their bias, they could freely enlarge their boundaries of translanguaging space" (p. 693).

Additionally, I suggest working with what I label as a conscious version of translanguaging, which

distinguishes between the process and the product of the activity, employs translanguaging strategically, and ensures that students engage with their linguistic repertoire during the input and the output of the classroom activity. Although some students in the current study relied on their native language during pair work, they were able to engage with their full linguistic repertoire, as the next step of the activity required them to produce English output. This planned alternation between L1 and L2 could mitigate students' reliance on one language over another.

Finally, we, as teachers, must deconstruct the monolingual mindset that often seeks an immersive experience in the target language. Instead, we should perceive the translanguaging space as a space for building our students' bilingual identity and fostering their agency over their learning, allowing them to explore their linguistic repertoire in translanguaging spaces with 'creativity and criticality' (Wei, 2018, p. 22).

5.5.2.2 Absence of a Supportive Ecology for Translanguaging Pedagogy.

Another potential challenge to translanguaging pedagogy was raised by one of the teachers in the reflection stage. Mera was sceptical of the possibility of generalising translanguaging in contexts characterised by pervasive monolingual ideology. She identified families' negative attitudes towards translanguaging as a possible impediment. Mera's concerns were justified, as research by Ticheloven et al. (2021) revealed that some parents of school children in the Netherlands held negative views about translanguaging. However, their study differed from the current one in that the families' negative perceptions were rooted in fears that their minority children might experience language alienation as a result of translanguaging pedagogy. Furthermore, Allard (2017) noted that the absence of a supportive ecology significantly hindered the transformative potential of translanguaging at a small-town school in the U.S. This limitation not only affected teachers' ability to implement bilingual instruction effectively but also restricted opportunities for collaboration among educators.

5.5.2.3 Addressing the Empirical Research Gap in Translanguaging Pedagogy.

In the current study, teachers were asked about the challenges of implementing translanguaging in their future classrooms and how they can adopt and further develop this pedagogy. Three teachers indicated that they still lack sufficient knowledge about this pedagogy. They raised a few questions about its applicability to students with varying language proficiency levels and its adaptability to skills beyond reading. This emphasises the need for further research and teacher training to bridge gaps in content knowledge across contexts effectively.

Similar to the EAP teachers in the current study, Galante (2020) found that although teachers in Canada's multilingual English program were enthusiastic about implementing this approach, they encountered challenges stemming from their unfamiliarity with the pedagogy. This obstacle hindered their ability to apply translanguaging strategies in their classrooms.

In the same vein, Canagarajah (2011b) noted that while spontaneous translanguaging has received much attention in everyday life, there are few empirical studies on official translanguaging that offer practical methods for implementing it in the classroom. Although there has been growing research on translanguaging in the last decade, studies on translanguaging pedagogy remain scarce in EFL contexts (Prilutskaya, 2021),

The lack of pedagogical knowledge about translanguaging can be attributed to the challenges of implementing translanguaging in EFL contexts, where monolingual ideologies and English-only policies still prevail at the meso and macro levels (Tian & Wei, 2024). Moreover, the research gap could also be attributed to the relatively recent introduction of the translanguaging theory since the publication of Garcia and Wei's influential work in 2014.

By undertaking additional empirical studies in diverse contexts, teachers can address their questions and enhance their confidence and understanding of translanguaging pedagogy. This underscores the necessity for further research in EFL settings, focusing on various classroom activities, assessing the effectiveness of translanguaging, and exploring its applicability across different language proficiency levels. To address the gaps in empirical research, I advocate for

increased collaboration between teachers and researchers to move the theory of translanguaging into practice. The expanding body of research on translanguaging pedagogy could serve as a foundation for transforming traditional beliefs about language teaching and learning. It could pave the way for more innovative pedagogies that embrace bilingualism, moving away from the longstanding reliance on the problematic monolingual native speaker model.

5.5.2.4 Issues Related to Employing Translanguaging with Beginners.

The teacher's interview uncovered other concerns about the suitability of translanguaging for teaching beginners. Thekrayat was concerned that beginners might face challenges working simultaneously in both languages without relying on a literal translation. Some beginners may translate the reading text word-for-word, disregarding the cultural and linguistic disparities between the target language and their native language due to their limited linguistic competence in the target language. Therefore, Thekrayat suggested that translanguaging is more suited for proficient users with better competence in the target language, enabling them to navigate the learning process without the need for translation.

Thekrayat's concern about the suitability of translanguaging for beginners echoes Baker (2011), who stressed that translanguaging is most suited for bilingual students with a good command of both languages. According to Baker (2011), it is an approach that helps them preserve and enhance their bilingualism rather than being used for teaching a second language to beginners. On the contrary, the study conducted by Liu (2021) explored students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy in Bangkok and revealed that students from different language proficiency levels believed in the pedagogical benefits of this pedagogy.

Liu found that while emergent bilinguals engaged with translanguaging for comprehension and meaning-making, translanguaging promoted proficient bilingual learners' higher thinking skills and aided in developing their bicultural identities (2021). Additionally, Fang and Liu (2020) concluded

that EFL teachers in a university in China found translanguaging to be more essential for low-proficiency students.

Based on the findings of this study, I argue that by restricting translanguaging to advanced users, we deprive beginners of a natural and valuable source. The findings of this research proved that students constantly engage in spontaneous translanguaging behind their teachers' backs, and we should harness this use instead of acting blind to it. Moreover, translation could be avoided if the teachers design the activities consciously to avoid this issue. Still, the teacher raised a valid point, as her concern was discussed while working on the translanguaging strategy used in the vocabulary activity. Subsequently, translation was used strategically, with students initially asked to match English vocabulary with its Arabic equivalents. Later, students were tasked with reading Arabic sentences and composing new sentences in English without relying on translation. This approach underscores the importance of careful planning for translanguaging activities to maximise the potential of this pedagogy. By providing structured guidance, teachers can mitigate drawbacks such as literal translation, which may occur in the absence of effective instructions. This thoughtful design ensures that students engage with both languages meaningfully and enhances their overall learning experience.

5.5.2.5 Students' Confusion.

The findings from the focus groups showed that some of the students (five out of twenty-five) considered translanguaging for the main ideas of the reading passage as the least useful moment in class. Those students preferred to annotate the English text in the same language and described the deliberate use of their whole linguistic repertoire as confusing. For instance, one of the students remarked:

Alaa: I like to write the main ideas in English but prefer using translanguaging for vocabulary. Since the reading contains many ideas and is already lengthy, it can be confusing to read a paragraph in English and summarise it in Arabic.

Translanguaging can demand higher levels of critical thinking and metalinguistic awareness, which some students may find challenging. One student admitted that reading and summarising the main ideas of the text in the same language is easier, as they can copy key sentences without fully grasping the passage's content.

Fatma: When we annotate the English text in the same language, we just repeat the exact words without fully understanding the content.

For this reason, another student added that reading and annotating a text in the same language is more straightforward than engaging with translanguaging.

Students' confusion could be linked to the brief duration of the one-hour translanguaging lesson. The fact that the translanguaging lesson was a one-off pedagogy could have affected their reaction to this pedagogy, particularly when it requires a higher level of cognitive thinking than what they are used to in their previous classes. The students were accustomed to spontaneous translanguaging and had never experienced the deliberate engagement with their whole linguistic repertoire to articulate nuanced ideas and engage in critical thinking. Therefore, the study suggests that some students may need more time to adjust to this pedagogy. Similar findings about students' initial confusion with translanguaging were documented by Fallas Escobar (2019), who observed that students experienced initial apprehension throughout the translanguaging activity in the EFL program at a Costa Rican university, but their reluctance eventually dissipated. The author justified this reaction by explaining that students are familiar with spontaneous translanguaging but not accustomed to translanguaging in a planned classroom activity.

Moreover, Ticheloven et al. (2021) reported that while some students in four multilingual schools in the Netherlands enjoyed translanguaging, others found it confusing. To mitigate this issue, one of the teachers in their study suggested introducing students to translanguaging at an earlier age and allowing them to be explicitly trained in using the right repertoire in the right situation, keeping in mind that “for 15 years they have been making sure that they keep their languages separate” (p. 17).

5.5.2.6 Students' Resistance to Translanguaging as Formal Pedagogy.

Six students (Hala, Tala, Hawraa, Layan, Ala and Jori) were resistant to accepting translanguaging as a formal pedagogy because they had different learning goals, which were centred around having a more immersive experience in English only. This finding underscores the need to consider learners' needs and belief systems, as it could interfere with this critical pedagogy. Similar findings of students' reluctance to accept translanguaging as a formal pedagogy were documented among Chinese university students in the EAP classroom (Liu et al., 2023). In the same vein, Xiao and Lertlit (2023) noted that the monolingual teaching approaches were preferred over translanguaging by a small group of school students in Thailand.

The students in the current study could not adapt to the sudden shift in the EFL classroom, where their use of L1 is no longer a covert practice behind their teachers' backs. This shift entailed intentionally integrating L1 use into classroom activities, allowing students to draw on their linguistic repertoire rather than remain constrained by the restrictive English-only policy. In this context, translanguaging was seen as a departure from the standard and, crucially, was not valued because it did not provide the fully immersive experience they desired in the target language. Such perspectives indicated internalised monolingual ideologies and a false sense of monolingual identity. This false sense could stem from social factors such as a family's background and the fact that Arabic is the only language spoken at home. The intersection between students' monolingual beliefs and social factors, such as family backgrounds, was highlighted by Liu (2021). The author explained that students from bilingual families were more likely to engage in translanguaging and held positive beliefs about the benefits of bilingualism.

To provide an equitable learning environment that validates all students' needs and fulfils their language learning goals. Liu and Fang (2022) suggested that teachers and students may establish a mutual agreement on the use of translanguaging at the beginning of the course, including

determining the proportion of L1 usage. Moreover, I propose that instructors focus on fostering students' autonomy and emphasise that the English class offers a limited opportunity for language learning due to time and setting constraints. Hence, the belief that achieving fluency in the target language can be achieved only through a more immersive experience in the English classroom is a fallacy. Students should possess autonomy for their learning, particularly in today's modern world, when technology and media play a vital role in everyone's life and provide significant prospects for second language learning, as shown in Chaitanya (2024).

By exploring the challenges surrounding the implementation of this pedagogy, the findings of the current study suggest that its successful adoption could require more than a philosophical stance that challenges traditional ideologies. This entails considering the surrounding educational and social factors, such as educational policy, families' backgrounds, and students' learning goals. Garcia et al. (2014) asserted that as long as the potential of translanguaging is overlooked at the macro and meso levels, the use of translanguaging as a pedagogical method by teachers and students will continue to be considered unauthorised.

The monolingual ecology of this study might have deprived some students of the opportunity to understand and develop their bilingual identity, leading them to perceive languages from a monolingual mindset. To sustain this promising pedagogy, this study calls for re-examining monolingual language policies at the macro and meso levels and the monolingual curriculum and assessment in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). All these factors foster monolingual ideology as an assumed norm and force students to be inclined to the monolingual approach to second language learning.

5.5.3 Teachers' Willingness to Adopt Translanguaging in their Future Classroom.

By fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the current study, the teachers saw translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogy that validates their stance on second language teaching and learning. This

helped to increase their confidence in using translanguaging and alleviated any lingering feelings of guilt they had in the past. As seen in the study of Liu et al. (2020), the authors discovered that assessing teachers in exploring this pedagogy in the EAP class in China served as an effective model for professional development. Therefore, both the teachers in the current study and Liu et al.'s study showed an increased confidence in translanguaging as a legitimate pedagogy. Most of this confidence resulted from experiencing its use and observing its promising impact on students' learning. Similar findings regarding teachers' willingness to adopt translanguaging were further seen in Nepal. According to Saud (2023), the EFL teachers in Nepal showed positive attitudes toward translanguaging and expressed an intention to use it in their future classes.

5.6 The Intersection Between the Participants' Stances on Monolingual Pedagogy, Native - speakerism and their Perceptions of Translanguaging Pedagogy

The findings of this study echo Garcia and Kleyn (2016) by emphasising the importance of teachers adopting an ideological stance that diverges from conventional language ideologies to promote translanguaging pedagogy. Nonetheless, this study advocates extending the investigation to include students' perceptions towards monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism, as these appear to interact with their perspectives on translanguaging pedagogy.

As noted by Darvin (2024), for translanguaging pedagogy to meet its full potential, not only should teachers be able to engage with translanguaging as a legitimate and purposeful pedagogy, but students also need to be invested in the translanguaging spaces. Darvin explained that students' investment can be seen in light of challenging the deeply ingrained ideologies that influence their attitudes toward languages and language acquisition, acknowledging their multilingual identities and appreciating the significance of all the languages in their linguistic repertoire (2024).

The findings of the current study showed that the students who were not invested in the translanguaging spaces (Hala, Tala, Hawraa, Layan, Ala and Jori) were influenced by standard

language ideologies. For instance, Jori did not oppose the English-only policy and favoured the 'NEST.' Similarly, Layan and Tala were among the students who preferred the English-only policy. Along the line, Alaa favoured the British variety of English and considered 'NEST' as the ideal teacher for speaking skills. Additionally, Halah and Hawraa were inclined toward the native-speaker model and perceived translanguaging negatively.

Similar findings regarding the influence of the monolingual and native speakerist ideologies on students' perceptions of translanguaging were documented by Liu et al. (2022), who found that a small group of EAP students at a university in China showed resistance to translanguaging pedagogy. According to the authors, students' preferences for a pure English-speaking setting reflected the ideology of native-speakerism and the structuralist perspectives on English, which contradict the core values of translanguaging.

On the other hand, the teachers and the rest of the students in the current study showed an ideological stance that challenges standard language ideologies and aligns with translanguaging pedagogy. Therefore, they embraced translanguaging pedagogy and showed overall positive attitudes towards it. The teachers in this study not only expressed a willingness to have a place for translanguaging in their future classrooms. They served as a compelling translanguaging model for their students, potentially shaping their ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism by cultivating an appreciation of their students' full linguistic repertoire and bilingual identity. Similar findings were documented by Makalela (2019) in the South African classrooms. The teachers in Makalela's study had the agency to disrupt monolingual bias and serve as multilingual models for their students, inspiring them to embrace their linguistic repertoire and cultivate multilingual identities (2019).

Discussing the interplay between the participants' ideological stances on second-language learning and teaching and their perceptions of translanguaging requires addressing another factor: the absence of 'NESTs' in the current study. If the students in the current study had been taught by monolingual 'NESTs', they might have developed a different understanding and been influenced by

the standard monolingual ‘native speaker’ model. Being taught by competent ‘NNESTs’, the students may have developed a broader understanding that goes beyond the traditional monolingual, monocultural and nativist view of the English language and its speakers. This understanding appeared to influence their perceptions of their teachers’ ‘non-native’ accent. As all the students were satisfied with that accent, even those inclined towards the Anglo-American varieties of the language. In summary, a competent bilingual ‘NNEST’ can positively shape students’ views on translanguaging by modelling its use and validating all the languages in their linguistic repertoire. This influence can reframe students’ understanding of competence in language use, moving beyond the traditional native speaker norm. It validates bilingual and multilingual individuals as legitimate speakers, recognising the diverse varieties of the English language.

5.7 Challenging Neoliberal Ideologies in English Language Teaching: Embracing Translanguaging and Transcultural Perspectives

The findings of the current exploratory case study can be discussed in light of the neoliberal ideologies that dominate the fields of ELT in different parts of the world (e.g., Ali & Hamid, 2022; R’boul, 2022; Romero, 2022). These neoliberal ideologies promote an “English-only mentality,” leading to the marginalisation of other languages (Barnawi & Al-Hawsawi, 2017, p. 216). Moreover, they foster native-speakerism and monolingual pedagogy by reinforcing “the supremacy of native-like communicative acts, behaviours, mindset and lifestyle in teaching English” (R’boul, 2022, p. 83).

By embracing translanguaging pedagogy, the participants in the current study challenged the neoliberal approach to English education. Translanguaging, as shown in this study, not only challenged the very ideologies that construct monolingual and native-speaker norms but also created a more inclusive and effective learning environment that centred student well-being and holistic learning. This humanising approach to language teaching does not align with the neoliberal

ideologies that picture the field of ELT as market-driven, focus on standardised outcomes and promote individualism and competitiveness (Daghigh et al., 2022).

The findings of the current study align with those of Galante (2020), demonstrating that translanguaging is consistent with contemporary understandings of languages and English language teaching. Translanguaging pedagogy challenges the notion of one language, one culture and shifts the focus from the speakers' nativeness to their bilingual/ multilingual competence, particularly in the age of globalisation and the multilingual realities of many individuals around the world (Truan, 2024; Walsh, 2021). Teachers' and students' critical examination of monolingual pedagogy, native speakerist ideology and monocultural norms can be read not just from a translanguaging lens but also from a "transcultural perspective" (Baker & Sangiamchit, 2019, p. 474). Baker (2024) noted that the 'trans' prefix in transcultural communication and translanguaging theories highlights the importance of moving beyond the ideological confines of specific national languages and cultures. Thus, transcultural communication and translanguaging are interrelated concepts that emphasise the fluidity and interconnection of languages and cultural identities.

5.8 Conclusion

The 'NNESTs' and the majority of their students successfully challenged monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerist ideology, viewing second-language learning as a dynamic process of languaging. On the other hand, a group of students showed to be affected by the native speakerist ideology. Comparing the findings with the broader literature revealed that standard language ideologies are often shaped by global discourse, media representation and dominant institutions in the inner circle.

The process of fostering translanguaging enabled exploration of its affordances and implications for teachers' professional practices and students' learning. Ultimately, the reflection stage highlighted the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits of translanguaging while also acknowledging potential and actual challenges.

This chapter has illuminated the critical interplay among participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism, and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. Among the interesting findings is the role of the teacher's identity in shaping students' stance on translanguaging pedagogy. The bilingual 'NNESTs' in this study could have positively shaped students' views on translanguaging by modelling its use and validating all the languages in their linguistic repertoire. This influence can challenge common assumptions underpinning native speakerism, redefining competence and legitimacy beyond the native speaker norms. Moreover, the chapter interpreted the findings in light of the neoliberal ideologies that dominate the field of ELT and linked this study to the emerging theoretical framework of transcultural communication. These insights not only contribute to the existing literature but also pave the way for future research to explore this pedagogy across different contexts.

CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

This exploratory case study critically explored the role of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teachers in recognising and addressing the often-subtle standard language ideologies at the macro and meso levels. It navigated teachers' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism, examined translanguaging pedagogy's theoretical and practical dimensions, and negotiated its implications within their classrooms. Following a translanguaging-oriented session conducted at the English Language Institute (ELI), the teachers and I developed a reading lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy. The study focused on the perspectives and practices of six 'Non-Native English-speaking Teachers' (NNESTs). It employed a combination of interviews and classroom observations to capture their ideological perspectives, professional practices, and perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

In addition to the teachers, students' voices were equally prioritised; twenty-five students participated in six focus groups. The research sought to understand their ideological positions on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism, their engagement with translanguaging pedagogy through classroom observations, and their perceptions of this pedagogy. Lastly, I examined how the ideological stances of teachers and students influenced their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy.

This chapter summarises the key findings related to the four primary research questions. Following this overview, I outline the study's contribution and limitations and offer recommendations for future research. Additionally, I illuminate the study's implications for policy and practice at the end of this chapter.

6.2 Overview and Summary of Findings

This section summarises the answers to the study's four main research questions.

1. What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy?

Investigating the participants' stances on monolingual pedagogy was based on exploring their perceptions of the English-only policy at the ELI, the use of first language (L1) in the classroom, students' metacognitive awareness of second language learning, and finally, teachers' opinions of the dominant language teaching methodologies, including the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) methods.

None of the six teachers referred to an explicit policy at the ELI. While two of the teachers were uncertain about the status of the policy and described it as unclear, the others were aware of the implicit monolingual ideology at their workplace, which emphasised an immersive experience in the target language and sometimes stigmatised L1 usage. The absence of an explicit policy regarding L1 usage reflects monolingual pedagogy as an assumed norm. It can be seen in the light of the dominant monolingual ideology in the field of ELT. Nevertheless, the findings revealed teachers' strong agency in challenging monolingual pedagogy and acting as dynamic policymakers in their classrooms.

Their resilience was evident in their critical questioning of the monolingual fallacy and their steadfast commitment to context-based teaching that embraces the use of L1 in the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. The teachers' advocacy for L1 usage was grounded in its pedagogical, interpersonal, and interactive advantages. Although they showed different opinions about the suitability of the dominant teaching methodologies to their context, they all placed significant value on their local knowledge and teaching strategies, believing that incorporating L1 not only enhances understanding but also fosters a more inclusive and engaging learning environment.

The findings from the students' focus groups were consistent with those of the teachers. Only three out of the twenty-five students experienced a classroom with an explicit English-only policy. This verifies teachers' agency in challenging the implicit English-only policy at the ELI. Investigating the students' metacognitive awareness of second language learning confirmed that they naturally engage in cross-language connections as a learning strategy. Moreover, the findings from the students' focus groups revealed their strong preference for their teachers' use of Arabic. Most of the students opposed the policy because they did not consider it suitable for beginners and students with low proficiency levels. Additionally, they correlated it with adverse affective and reactive reactions, including emotions of uneasiness, embarrassment, and lack of confidence, which, as a result, decreased their engagement in class.

2: What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on native-speakerism?

In examining teachers' perceptions of native-speakerism, six 'NNESTs' were interviewed about their professional identity, mainly how they judge their accents and competencies compared to 'Native English-speaking Teachers' (NESTs). Moreover, their perceptions of their students' stance on the 'native' and non-native' English speaking teachers' dichotomy. The study revealed that the teachers at the ELI did not believe in the superiority of the 'native speaker.' Instead, their professional identity was influenced by their belief in their bilingual competence and the sociocultural and linguistic bonds they share with their students. Among the key themes that emerged from this study was the impact of students' recognition on fostering teachers' positive self-image.

The teachers in this study were able to counter the native speakerist ideology and the fallacy of the native speaker's superiority. Delving deeper into their cognitions and professional identity as 'NNESTs' revealed some crucial factors that contributed to eradicating the uncritical adherence to the ideology of native-speakerism. As discussed in section (4.3.4), the teachers were aware of the critical paradigms of world Englishes and global English. This critical awareness of the English language

allowed them to challenge standard language ideologies and the biased assumptions surrounding language legitimacy and ownership that often stem from native speakerism. Furthermore, it dismantled the attributed superiority of the native accent and the Anglo-American varieties of the language. Teachers' stance on native speakerism not only validates diverse linguistic identities but also promotes a more equitable understanding of English, recognising that proficiency and meaningful communication can exist beyond traditional standards.

Most importantly, the findings from the students' focus groups revealed that the ideology of native speakerism is not necessarily based on direct experience. Although the students in the current study were not taught by 'NESTs', some were nonetheless affected by native-speakerism as a dominant standard ideology. The native speakerist ideology persisted among the five students who preferred 'NESTs' for their idealised native accents and teaching of speaking skills. These students were influenced by the monolingual native-speaker model associated with the Inner Circle, assuming that a 'NEST' would be monolingual and of British origin. Furthermore, ten students showed a strong preference for Anglo-American varieties of English, viewing British English as the 'authentic' variety and American English as the 'cool' choice for everyday communication.

The students' perspective on native speakerism appeared to be shaped by the broader global power attributed to inner-circle countries, their language varieties, and publishing institutions. As the UK and the U.S. dominate the publishing and entertainment industries, students were inclined toward the varieties spoken in those countries. Moreover, they assumed that the 'NEST' would be monolingual and of British nationality. All this underscores the influence of the monolingual native speaker model of the Inner Circle in shaping the native speakerist ideology.

On the other hand, the majority of the Saudi students were free of the native-speaker bias. Their shared cultural and linguistic background with their teachers built a strong sense of connectedness that influenced their perceptions of the topic under investigation. This led to some evident bias toward their Saudi 'NNESTs' for the pedagogical and interpersonal benefits that come with being taught by someone they could easily identify with. Six out of the twenty-five students

showed a deeper understanding of the global spread of English. They were aware of the diversity of the language in terms of accents and dialects. The last group, consisting of nine students, had a neutral stance as they neither prioritised the Anglo-American varieties of English nor desired to learn about different varieties of English. Still, they proved to be free from the native speaker bias, as they did not associate their views on intelligible accents and correct pronunciation with a particular variety. Nor did they view American or British English as superior to other varieties.

3. How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?

In the stance stage, the teachers indicated that their use of L1 was often spontaneous, unsystematic, used as a last resort, and sometimes associated with feelings of guilt. Although they all challenged the implicit English-only policy at their institution and valued the use of L1 for its pedagogical and interpersonal benefits, the lack of an official theory legitimising their practice is the reason behind not exploring its full potential.

In the process of developing a reading lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy, the teachers and I discussed how to tailor this pedagogy to our teaching context. Our discussion led to what I label as a conscious version of translanguaging pedagogy. What makes this version conscious is its acknowledgement that named languages do not hold equal status in the classroom. It considers the socio-political dynamics involving English and Arabic, particularly in the context of the Saudi EFL classroom. In such a context, promoting a strong version of translanguaging could inadvertently elevate the status of Arabic while diminishing students' opportunities to learn English.

The findings from the classroom observations revealed the development in teachers' practice. They successfully implemented a conscious version of translanguaging by purposefully integrating students' whole repertoire into the classroom activities, distinguishing between the process and

product of activities, and providing students with clear instructions and expectations regarding their linguistic choices at each stage. These careful reflections on students' language use were crucial in maintaining alignment with educational objectives and assessments at their institution.

Furthermore, the findings from the classroom observations showed that teachers' spontaneous translanguaging complemented the planned translanguaging strategies. By actively engaging in translanguaging, the teachers acted as bilingual role models for their students. The findings indicate the role of teachers' identity in shaping students' perceptions of monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism and translanguaging. A competent 'NNEST' can effectively influence students' perceptions of translanguaging by demonstrating its application and acknowledging all the languages within their linguistic repertoire. This approach can redefine competence beyond the native speaker standard and affirm students' identities as legitimate speakers of the language.

The observed pedagogical benefits of the classroom observation included supporting students' learning through scaffolding, fostering their metalinguistic awareness, enhancing their intercultural competence, checking students' comprehension, increasing students' participation, and improving their well-being. However, the findings from classroom observations also raised concerns about students' resistance, confusion, and reliance on their native language during pair work. Other research tools confirmed most of the challenges and pedagogical functions documented in classroom observations. Therefore, I will discuss some of the implications of this pedagogy in the following research question to avoid repetition.

Among the distinctive findings that emerged from classroom observations is students' reliance on their native language. This can be attributed to three primary factors. First, beginners and pre-intermediate learners often have limited proficiency in the target language. Second, the linguistic homogeneity among all the participants who speak Arabic as a native language significantly intensified the power imbalance between the two languages. Third, students' reliance on Arabic may be attributable to the fact that the translanguaging lesson was a one-off experience, which may have limited students' exposure to this pedagogy. The students may have required additional classes to

adapt to translanguaging as a formal pedagogy and to engage more confidently with their whole linguistic repertoire.

The possibility of students relying on their native language was discussed during the lesson development process. Therefore, the teachers and I made sure that an English output followed the translanguaging spaces. This alternation between the translanguaging spaces and the English output in classroom instruction ensured that students navigated their whole repertoire through the different steps of the activity. Additionally, other solutions could include a more longitudinal approach to translanguaging pedagogy to help students adapt to this pedagogy and navigate their whole repertoire more confidently. Moreover, fostering learners' awareness of, appreciation for, and development of their complete linguistic repertoire would have enabled them to utilise it more effectively. This can be accomplished by asking students straightforward questions, such as: When should we use our native language in the classroom? How does it benefit us? In what situations can it be counterproductive? When is it important for me to use English? Moreover, when is it essential to use my own language? Nevertheless, the teachers and I chose not to use those questions with the students in this study to avoid influencing their objectivity regarding the topic and to prevent any external pressure. It was crucial to gather the students' authentic experiences with this pedagogy and to explore how their underlying language beliefs might affect their approach to it.

4: What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experiences with translanguaging?

The intersection between the participants' stances on monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy was evident throughout the different stages of this research. The teachers and the majority of their students questioned monolingual pedagogy and were not biased towards the native speaker model. Therefore, the majority of the

participants valued translanguaging pedagogy, which challenges the very ideologies that construct monolingual and native-speaker norms.

Through fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the current research context, this exploratory case study promoted teachers' agency and assisted them in incorporating translanguaging strategically and thoughtfully. Teachers' newfound confidence in translanguaging pedagogy as a legitimate approach was bolstered by their firsthand experiences with translanguaging and its perceived positive effects on students' learning, emotional well-being and engagement in class.

In their follow-up interview, five of the teachers expressed their willingness to incorporate translanguaging in their future classrooms. Teachers' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy were underpinned by their stance on standard language ideologies, which challenged the monolingual approach and the concept of 'nativeness.' Still, they expressed some valid concerns about translanguaging pedagogy, such as the lack of supportive ecology, students' reliance on their L1, and insufficient knowledge about this pedagogy.

In their follow-up focus groups, students reported a positive experience with the translanguaging strategies used during their pair work and vocabulary activity. The students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy demonstrated its efficacy in reducing foreign language anxiety, promoting active participation, inclusion and improving vocabulary learning. Students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy underscored their stance on the English-only policy. In the stance stage, they opposed the monolingual approach and found their native language to be an integral part of their identity, shaping their learning and communication. Moreover, they associated the English-only policy with adverse affective and interactive reactions, such as reducing their participation and increasing foreign language anxiety.

However, some students found translanguaging to summarise the main ideas of a reading text confusing. The fact that the translanguaging lesson was a one-off pedagogy could have affected their reaction to this pedagogy, particularly when it requires a higher level of cognitive thinking than what

they are used to in their previous classes. The students were accustomed to spontaneous translanguaging and had never experienced the deliberate engagement with their whole linguistic repertoire to articulate nuanced ideas and engage in critical thinking. Therefore, the study suggests that some students may need more time to adjust to this pedagogy.

Finally, expanding upon students' critical perspectives on translanguaging, six students showed resistance to translanguaging as they preferred an immersive experience that exclusively emphasises the use of English. The students who did not favour this pedagogy had revealed their inclination towards the monolingual pedagogy and the native speakerist ideology in the stance stage. Overall, the findings highlight the intricate interplay between the participants' language ideologies and their perceptions of translanguaging.

6.3 Contribution of the Study

It is crucial to view the EFL classroom through a poststructuralist lens, shifting away from traditional approaches that are firmly anchored in monolingual and native-speakerist ideologies (Tian & Wei, 2024). The study's contribution relied on highlighting the intersection between the participants' ideological stances on monolingual pedagogy, native-speakerism and their perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy. In doing so, the study responds to Tian and Wei's (2024) most recent calls for more empirical studies to explore the roles of teachers and students, focusing on how they navigate and integrate various linguistic sources within the context of broader policies, structures, and ideologies. In response to this call, the study captured the multiple layers of the classroom ecology that have shaped the participants' experience with translanguaging pedagogy. Group (2016) noted that language learning involves three interconnected layers of influence: the micro level, which focuses on personal interactions between individuals; the meso level, which encompasses the roles of institutions and communities; and the macro level, which reflects the broader ideological frameworks present in society. The study captured those intricate and multiple layers by delving into the

participants' perceptions of the dominant ideologies in the field of English Language Teaching ELT (macro level), their awareness and resistance to the implicit English-only policy in their institution (meso level), and the agency they showed in departing from the monolingual approach and the native speaker norms in their classroom interaction (micro level).

Additionally, the study covered a significant contextual gap by uncovering the under-investigated Saudi context. This contextual gap was emphasised by Prilutskaya (2021), who concluded that most of the empirical studies in translanguaging were conducted in North America and Europe, rendering a research gap in the global south. The data included 233 studies worldwide, with only 3% in the Middle East and 13% in the Asian context. Moreover, this research covered a significant contextual gap by uncovering the affordances of translanguaging pedagogy in higher education. As noted by Liu et al. (2022), the available literature on translanguaging tends to focus on elementary and secondary classes with little to no knowledge about the EAP classroom. Prada and Nikula (2018) emphasised that both educational and geographical contexts are crucial for implementing translanguaging pedagogy, as the academic material and students' literacy levels vary across different settings.

Moreover, the study addressed the latest developments in translanguaging research, specifically focusing on "translanguaging in context" (Mendoza et al., 2023, p. 1). The authors raised concerns about persistent linguistic hierarchies in different contexts impacting individuals' fair access to their whole linguistic repertoire. They noted that translanguaging may increase the use of the dominant societal language in some contexts. To avoid the increase of the dominant societal language in the current setting, the teachers and I agreed on adopting a conscious version of translanguaging. A conscious version of translanguaging aimed to ensure that students have access to their whole linguistic repertoire while considering the influence of linguistic homogeneity among the participants, their language proficiency levels, and how these factors could impact their access to English and Arabic. A conscious version of translanguaging entails that teachers thoughtfully create translanguaging spaces within the lesson and provide students with clear instructions regarding the

expected outcomes of each activity, specifying whether they should use only English or navigate their whole linguistic repertoire.

Ultimately, the value of this study relied on its effort to challenge the prevailing restrictive ideologies and monolingual language policies in the field of ELT (Tian & Wei, 2024). Despite the limited models around fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the literature and the uncertainty regarding the applicability of this pedagogy in various contexts (Prilutskaya, 2021; Tian & Shepard-Carey, 2020), the study offered a more context-specific and nuanced perspective on translanguaging pedagogy. It emphasised the importance of assisting teachers in translating the theory of translanguaging into practice, exploring translanguaging as a pedagogical, purposeful approach and building their agency to depart from dominant standard language ideologies at the meso and macro levels. By doing so, this study responds to Fang and Liu's (2020) call for further studies to develop guidance for implementation, thus possibly eliminating teachers' concerns and unanswered questions about this pedagogy.

Through the development of a lesson informed by translanguaging pedagogy, the study offered valuable insights into the practical implications of this pedagogy in the EFL classroom. The lesson offered significant findings into the impact of translanguaging pedagogy on students' learning and well-being. By doing so, the study addressed a notable gap, as many scholars have highlighted the absence of empirical research on the effects of translanguaging on enhancing students' well-being, metalinguistic awareness, and second language learning. (e.g., Huang & Chalmers, 2023; Prilutskaya, 2021; Treffers Daller, 2023).

The current research offered three main translanguaging strategies that could be adopted and further developed into future research. These strategies are: 1-Alternating between the two languages for learning the key vocabulary of the reading passage. 2-Creating a translanguaging space for annotating the reading passage in any language (English and/or Arabic). 3-Creating a translanguaging

space in students' pair work to prepare for the classroom discussion in English. Additionally, it provided a comprehensive application of translanguaging pedagogy by integrating two approaches: the fixed language alternation model proposed by Williams (1994) and the more fluid concept of a translanguaging space, which enables students to navigate their linguistic repertoire with "creativity and criticality" (Wei, 2018, p. 22). Therefore, the contribution of the study lies in bridging the gap in the literature, where the implementation of this pedagogy has been restricted to translation (Kim & Weng, 2022) or to code switching (e.g., Allard, 2017; Alzabidi & Al-Ahdal, 2022; Xiao & Lertlit, 2023). This limited interpretation can be viewed in light of contextual constraints, such as the imposed English-only policy, which inhibits teachers' ability to explore different translanguaging strategies more effectively (Kim & Weng, 2022).

Building upon the three key principles of translanguaging pedagogy: Stance, Design, and Shifts (Garcia et al., 2017), which were limited to the teachers' role in the effective implementation of this pedagogy. The study incorporated the students' voices and highlighted them as active agents in the successful implementation of translanguaging pedagogy. As noted by Kim and Weng (2022), teachers' use of translanguaging alone is insufficient to achieve meaningful and productive outcomes; students' perceptions of translanguaging play a crucial role in determining the success or failure of this pedagogy.

6.4 Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of this study is its research sample, which included a small group of six Saudi female 'NNESTs' and twenty-five Saudi female EFL students. However, I believe that the rich and intricate insights captured from these participants would have been diminished if I had employed a quantitative approach with a larger sample size. Conducting face-to-face individual interviews and

small focus groups fostered an informal atmosphere, allowing for vulnerability, trust, and a deeper exploration of the participants' beliefs and experiences.

Additionally, a constraint stemming from the research sampling was the absence of 'NESTs' among the participants. Nevertheless, this limitation underscored the dominance of native speakerism as a prevailing standard ideology. As noted in this study, native speakerism is not necessarily based on direct contact but underpinned by the dominance of the monolingual native speaker model and the institutions of the Inner Circle. Some of the students in the current study were inclined to this model by assuming the 'NEST' to be British, monolingual, to have an ideal accent, and to be more competent in teaching speaking skills. Moreover, they favoured the British and American English over other language varieties, perceiving the British variety as authentic and the American variety as cool. Students' views on those varieties seem to be influenced by media representations, such as Hollywood films, and influential institutions like the British Council and Cambridge dominate textbooks and English proficiency tests in Saudi Arabia.

While the absence of 'NESTs' may seem like a limitation at first glance, it has actually led to intriguing findings. This situation highlights that native speakerism is influenced by the wider global power attributed to English-speaking Western countries, their language varieties, mass media, and publishing institutions.

However, further research on the effects of 'NESTs' on the topic under investigation would broaden understanding and lead to more nuanced findings. The absence of 'NESTs' in the current study may have influenced students' perceptions of monolingual pedagogy, native speakerism and translanguaging. Being taught by competent 'NNESTs,' the students may have developed a broader understanding of language proficiency, recognising that competence is not restricted to the traditional native speaker model. The students in the current study were able to deconstruct standard language ideologies because they saw their 'NESTs' as a compelling bilingual model, inspiring them to embrace their linguistic repertoire and appreciate their bilingual identity.

This raises important questions about how teachers' identities influence students' perceptions of translanguaging. Specifically, if teachers are monolingual 'native speakers', they may inadvertently reinforce students' beliefs in standard language ideologies, potentially limiting the effectiveness of translanguaging practices in the classroom. Further research is needed to explore this relationship and its implications for effective translanguaging implementation.

Another limitation related to the research sample is the exclusive focus on female participants, a constraint imposed by gender segregation policies in the Saudi educational system. The female participants in this study seemed to adopt a feminist approach to second language learning and teaching. In their interviews, some of the teachers in the study referred to their students as 'Banati', meaning my daughters. The teachers and their students advocated for empowering all students, particularly marginalised voices of students with lower language proficiency levels and participation rates. This perspective reflects a humanising approach to second language education, prioritising the creation of a safe learning environment and the well-being of all students. However, the impact of gender was not part of the study question. This limitation calls for further research on how intersectionality influences classroom dynamics and language practices by comparing classes across genders.

Another challenge inherent in qualitative research included considering the external validity of this research and the researcher's bias. To address these issues, I employed construct validity, as suggested by Yin (2018), by utilising multiple data collection sources to support the findings. I also refrained from directly working with my students to avoid influencing their judgments of my teaching. Nonetheless, my position as an insider Saudi female 'NNEST' and a researcher has provided valuable insights into the experiences of both students and teachers, granting me a deeper understanding of the broader sociocultural factors that shaped their perceptions of the topics explored.

Finally, an important limitation stems from the fact that this research is based on a one-off pedagogy. Yin (2018) argued that qualitative case studies can provide valuable, rich, and contextual

insights, even when derived from a limited number of observations. He asserted that the true strength of qualitative research lies in its capacity to capture complexities and subtleties that can reflect broader trends. Each lesson in the current study yielded meaningful qualitative data that captured the nuances of translanguaging practices and their immediate effects on teaching and learning. The consistency of my findings across the three research tools, as well as their alignment with the broader literature discussed in chapter seven, significantly enhances the validity and reliability of this study. This alignment indicates that the identified themes, such as students' confusion, resistance and unequal treatment of languages, are not only robust but also reflective of established patterns, particularly arising from implementing this pedagogy among beginner and intermediate students in the EFL classroom.

However, this study recognises the need for a longitudinal study to gain deeper insights over time. This exploratory case study is limited to six one-time lessons and does not aim to provide longitudinal findings. A longitudinal study would allow for the observation of how translanguaging practices evolve and their long-term impacts on both teaching and learning. By examining these practices over an extended period, researchers can identify trends, changes, and the sustainability of pedagogical strategies. This approach would provide a more comprehensive understanding of the dynamics involved in translanguaging, which a single snapshot cannot capture. Ultimately, such a study would contribute significantly to the field by highlighting the ongoing development of effective teaching methods and their implications for student outcomes.

6.5 Recommendations for Future Research

Identifying this study's limitations can illuminate potential directions for future research and address existing gaps in the literature. This research focused solely on translanguaging in a reading lesson among two proficiency levels: beginner and pre-intermediate students. The participants were restricted to female 'Non-native English-speaking Teachers' (NNESTs) and EFL students.

Additionally, another limitation was related to the short duration of the classroom observation. As

previously noted, the students experienced translanguaging in only one class, which may have influenced their engagement with this pedagogical approach.

Given these limitations, I recommend that future research investigate the potential of translanguaging across various skills and proficiency levels. This would provide more practical models for implementing translanguaging in diverse contexts and examine how students' proficiency levels could affect their engagement, learning, and perceptions of this pedagogy. Additionally, exploring the benefits of translanguaging in classrooms with both monolingual 'NESTs' and multilingual students could yield valuable insights into how translanguaging functions in different contexts and among various participant groups.

Furthermore, a longitudinal study focusing on tracing the lasting impact of translanguaging on students and teachers could offer significant perspectives, particularly regarding students' ability to leverage their whole linguistic repertoire, its impact on their learning, and the extent to which translanguaging can be sustained by teachers and lead to systemic change in different contexts.

While the qualitative methodology used in this exploratory case study allowed for an in-depth exploration of the participants' underlying beliefs, perceptions and experiences of the topics under investigation, future research could also incorporate quantitative methods to measure the impact of translanguaging on student learning. An intriguing direction for future research could involve involving a wider array of stakeholders, such as educational leaders and policymakers. Investigating how their perspectives on monolingual pedagogy and native speakerism might influence language policy, recruitment practices, curriculum design, assessment, and ultimately, the implementation of translanguaging pedagogy would be valuable.

6.6 Implications to Policy and Practice

The main implication of this study is its attempt to deconstruct standard language ideologies and promote translanguaging as a transformative pedagogy, urging teachers, students, educators, and policymakers to move away from long-held assumptions that have shaped policy and practice. Doing

so will significantly advance toward inclusion, diversity, and linguistic equality in language education.

Still, Garcia et al. (2014) argued that if the potential of translanguaging is neglected at both the macro and meso levels, its use as a pedagogical method by teachers and students will remain unauthorised. To fully leverage the advantages of translanguaging, it is crucial to incorporate it in teacher education, curriculum design, and student assessments. Students' resistance to translanguaging as a formal pedagogy can be predicted if it comes into conflict with their monolingual curriculum and assessments. Therefore, the study highlights the critical need to reassess monolingual language policies at both macro and meso levels, as well as assessments and curricula underpinned by the monolingual native speaker model. This re-evaluation is essential to effectively support the shift from the conventional ideologies and start perceiving the ESL classroom from a poststructuralist lens.

To pave the way to this shift, promoting teachers' agency against restrictive language ideologies through translanguaging pedagogy could be the starting point. The current study revealed that the implicit English-only policy is more of an assumed norm than a reflection of classroom reality. Still, the conflict between the micro and meso levels created tension and limited teachers' potential to explore their bilingual instruction more strategically. Thus, some teachers in the stance stage associated the use of L1 with feelings of guilt before, and students felt more comfortable speaking their L1 secretly behind their teachers' backs. This tension could be resolved with an institutional stance that understands the value of bilingualism. Such a stance could create a more supportive environment for teacher agency, leading to a more dynamic and effective educational system in the Saudi EAP classroom and other contexts.

Still, deconstructing native-speakerism and monolingual bias in SLA would have been challenging since doing so would compromise discipline identity (Ortega, 2019). Translanguaging

challenges the traditional "target-language-only" or "one language-at-a-time" approach, which has historically served as the dominant ideology in the field of ELT (East & Wang, 2024, p. 10). Many students and teachers still believe in the outdated assumption, although not explicitly stated, that the ultimate goal of second language learning is to imitate the monolingual native speaker model and to equip students with the ability to communicate with the 'native speakers' of English (Hall & Cook, 2012).

Teachers have a crucial role in building students' critical awareness of their language use and constructing their identities as bilinguals or multilinguals. In order to deconstruct the native speaker model, the teachers can start by shifting students' focus from imitating the native speaker model toward the successful L2 user. This can be achieved by including 'non-native' English speakers as inspiring language users. Other simple strategies could include drawing students' attention to the representations of language speakers in their curriculum and the varieties of English they use.

Additionally, the implications of this study align with the recent calls that urge educators and policymakers to go beyond the native-non-native dichotomy and shift the focus to a more significant distinction that responds to the Multilingual Turn (May, 2013) and global spread of English, that is, between monolingual and multilingual teachers (e.g., Ellis, 2016; Kramsch & Zhang, 2018; Lee & Canagarajah, 2019). The study calls for acknowledging the contributions of bilingual and multilingual teachers, especially their capacity to traverse many linguistic and cultural barriers irrespective of their 'nativeness'.

As a final implication of this study for policy and practice, I would like to conclude that it is time to question the English-only policy and reflect on the tension between the imposed top-down policy and teachers' desire for more agency over their teaching. The field is slowly shifting towards a multilingual turn, and the change could start with teacher education and training, which plays a vital role in shaping teachers' professional identity and critical awareness of how colonial histories and power dynamics shape language education practices and policies. Teachers' training and professional development programs can incorporate vital strategies, such as workshops that provide a solid

theoretical background in translanguaging and transcultural communication, to achieve the challenging shift from conventional language ideologies towards multilingualism. Furthermore, by providing practical exercises that demonstrate how to integrate translanguaging into lesson plans and classroom activities, those workshops could train teachers to adopt a culturally responsive teaching approach that values students' bilingualism or multilingualism. Hopefully, these essential shifts will inform a gradual reform of policy, teacher education, curriculum, and assessment design, moving away from the dominant monolingual and native speakerist ideologies to pave the way for translanguaging pedagogy.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Layout and content of one of the reading lessons

READING

READING 1

PREPARING TO READ

1 You are going to read an article about customs and traditions in different countries. Before you read the article, read the definitions below. Complete the sentences with the correct form of the words in bold.

appearance (n) the way someone or something looks
culture (n) the way of life, especially customs and beliefs, of a group of people
exchange (v) to give something to someone and receive something that they give you
expect (v) to think that something will or should happen
formal (adj) (of clothes, behaviour or language) serious or very polite
greet (v) to welcome someone with particular words or actions
relationship (n) the way two people or groups feel and behave towards each other

- 1 I love travelling because I enjoy experiencing other _____ and their food, celebrations and traditions.
- 2 In Japan, it is customary for business people to _____ business cards when they meet for the first time.
- 3 In Korea and some Spanish-speaking countries, people do not _____ a woman to change her last name when she gets married.
- 4 In Thailand, people _____ each other by holding their hands together, bowing and saying 'Sawadee', which is similar to 'Hello' or 'Good day' in English.
- 5 Many languages have two ways to say *you*. They have a _____ word to use in polite situations like work and a different word for family and friends.
- 6 I always spend a lot of time on my hair and clothes before a special occasion. I want to make sure my _____ is perfect.
- 7 In most cultures, people who have a close family _____ enjoy spending time together and giving each other gifts.

Appendix 1: (continued)

- 2 What 'rules' do visitors to your country need to know in order to be polite? Write notes in the table.

USING YOUR
KNOWLEDGE

custom/behaviour	rules
greeting (kissing, shaking hands, etc.)	
giving gifts	
behaviour in business meetings	
business dress code	
punctuality	

- 3 Work in small groups. Discuss the following questions.
- 1 Share the information from your tables. Which rules from your tables are similar? Which are different?
 - 2 The article discusses correct behaviour in Brazil, Japan and Saudi Arabia. What do you know about the specific customs of these countries?

WHILE READING

Annotating a text

Active readers often annotate (make notes) while reading. There are many ways to do this. You should try different techniques and choose the ones which work best for you. Below are some suggestions:

- Highlight the main ideas in a bright colour or put brackets around them.
- Highlight key words and phrases in a different colour. Use the same colours in all your annotations.
- Underline, circle or box important details such as examples, reasons and supporting arguments. In the margin, identify the type of detail you marked.

Also, as you read, write notes in the margins: summarize main ideas in your own words, outline or list important supporting details, write any questions you have, write your opinion or your reaction to the text. Working with the text in this way will help you learn and remember the important information.

- 4 Read the article on customs around the world on page 86 and annotate the text while you read. Part of the text has been annotated as an example.
- 5 Read the article again and circle the customs which are not mentioned.
- | | |
|---------------------|-------------------------|
| a greetings | e table manners |
| b personal space | f giving business cards |
| c giving gifts | g being punctual |
| d business meetings | |

READING FOR
MAIN IDEAS

READING 1 85

CUSTOMS AROUND THE WORLD

BY ANDY SCHMIDT

1 In recent decades, foreign travel has become a multi-billion dollar industry. International travel has many benefits, but visitors can run into trouble if they don't know some basic 'rules' about the **cultures** they're visiting. It is very important for travellers to take the time to learn about the cultures they plan to visit so that they know what to **expect** and how to avoid cultural misunderstandings. That is why we are presenting this 'Customs around the world' series, where we will look at three different cultures every month to help you become a well-informed traveller. This month's exciting destinations are **Brazil**, **Japan** and **Saudi Arabia**.

Why learn about cultures before travel –

- know what to expect
- avoid misunderstandings



BRAZIL

Brazil-friendly, informal; greetings important

- 2 In general, Brazilian culture is informal. Most Brazilians are very friendly people, so it is important to say hello and goodbye to the people you meet. Normally women **kiss** men and each other on the cheek, but men usually **just shake hands**. Brazilians typically **stand** very close to each other and **touch** each other's arms, elbows and back regularly while speaking. Even if this is unusual in your culture, try not to move away if this happens. If you go to a business meeting, you are not expected to take a **gift**. In fact, an expensive gift can be seen as suspicious¹.
- 3 On the other hand, if you are invited to someone's house, you should take a gift – for example, flowers or chocolate. However, avoid anything purple or black, as these colours are related to death.
- 4 If you are invited to dinner, arrive at least 30 minutes late, but always dress well, because a person's **appearance** can be very important to Brazilians.

JAPAN

- 5 The Japanese are quite different from the Brazilians. They tend to be quite **formal**, so don't stand too close. Kissing or touching in public is not common. When you meet Japanese people socially, they may shake your hand. However, bowing, bending forwards to show respect, is the traditional greeting.
- 6 In a business meeting, the Japanese often like to know what your position is in your company before they talk to you. You should hand over a business card using both hands, and when you receive a business card, you should immediately read it carefully. It is important to be **punctual**². You should arrive early and dress formally. Gifts are often **exchanged**, but the recipient may refuse the gift at least once before accepting it. You should remember to do the same if you receive a gift. When you present your gift, you should say that it is a token of your appreciation³.



SAUDI ARABIA

- 7 Saudi Arabia is a very traditional country. In business situations you should know that hierarchy⁴ is important to Saudis. Therefore, it is important to **greet** the oldest or the most senior person first. Men may shake hands with men, and women with women, always using the right hand. Men and women do not touch or shake hands in public.
- 8 Personal **relationships** are very important in Saudi Arabia. In a business meeting, do not start with business matters immediately. Instead, start by asking about people's family or health. Arrive on time for business meetings, but do not be surprised if others are late. Punctuality is less important in Saudi Arabia than it is in Japan or the US. Business dress is formal. Men should wear dark suits and ties and women should wear modest clothes.
- 9 Gifts are not expected at business meetings until those involved have formed a strong relationship. If you are invited to a Saudi home or office, acceptable gifts are good-quality chocolate, coffee or dates. Be careful not to admire the things the host owns, because he or she will feel obliged to give an item to you as a gift.

¹**suspicious** (adj) causing a feeling of distrust or that something is wrong

²**punctual** (adj) on time

³**token of your appreciation** (n) an inexpensive gift meant to express thanks or gratitude

⁴**hierarchy** (n) status; a system for organizing people according to their importance

Appendix 1 (continued)



DISCUSSION

8 Work with a partner. Discuss the questions.

- 1 Which of the customs in the article surprised you the most?
- 2 Which of the three countries has customs that are the most similar to the customs of your country? If you live in one of the countries described in the article, which customs from another country do you find most interesting? Why?

Appendix 2: Sample worksheet of translanguaging activities

Translanguaging عنوان البحث: الدمج اللغوي

Unit 4: Customs and Traditions. Page: 84

الوحدة الرابعة: العادات والتقاليد

1-Key Vocabulary: First, check the lesson's key vocabulary and definitions on (page 84). Then, match the following vocabulary with their Arabic equivalents between parentheses (Exchange-Expect-Formal-Greeting-Relationships).

- 1- من الأتفضل الحرص عل الرسمية في (العلاقات) داخل العمل.
- 2- الثوب هو لباس (رسمي) للرجل السعودي.
- 3- أنا (أتوقع) أن يفوز فريقى المفضل.
- 4- قبل العسلات، كان (تبادل) المنتجات بين الناس وسيلة للشراء.
- 5- (الترحيب) في اليابان يشمل الاحضاء للشخص المقابل.

Compose full sentences in English using the following key vocabulary of the reading passage:

(Exchange-Expect-Formal-Greeting-Relationship)

- 1-
- 2-
- 3-
- 4-
- 5-

2-Reading: Customs Around the World (Page 86).

Summarize the customs of each country: Use Arabic and/or English.

Brazil:

Japan:

Saudi Arabia:

3—Discussion (Pair Work): Prepare for the task in any language, including Arabic and/or English. Then, share your discussion with the class in English.

ماهي عادات الزيارة المنزلية في السعودية؟ تناقشي حول الموضوع مع زميلتك باي لغة تفضلين مستعينة بالمعطيات التالية ثم تحدثي امام الفصل مستخدمة الإنجليزية فقط

(Arrival time, Dinner, drinks, Greeting, Clothes, Gifts)

Appendix 3: Participants' consent form (teachers and students)



Participants Consent Form for Teachers and Students

Name of department: School of Education

Title of the study: **Disrupting Monolingualism Through Enabling Translanguaging: Teacher-Researcher Collaboration in English for Academic Purpose Classroom**

- I confirm that I have read and understood the Participant Information Sheet for the above project and the researcher has answered any queries to my satisfaction.
- I confirm that I have read and understood the Privacy Notice for Participants in Research Projects and understand how my personal information will be used and what will happen to it (i.e. how it will be stored and for how long).
- I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw from the project at any time, up to the point of completion, without having to give a reason and without any consequences.
- I understand that I can request the withdrawal from the study of some personal information and that whenever possible researchers will comply with my request. This includes the following personal data:
 - Audio recordings of classroom observations that identify me;
 - audio recordings of interviews or focus groups that identify me;
 - my personal information from transcripts.
- I understand that anonymised data (i.e. data that do not identify me personally) cannot be withdrawn once they have been included in the study.
- I understand that any information recorded in the research will remain confidential and no information that identifies me will be made publicly available.
- I consent to being a participant in the project.
- I consent to being audio recorded as part of the project.
-

(PRINT NAME)	
Signature of Participant:	Date:

Appendix 4: Participant's information sheet (teachers and students)



Participant Information Sheet for Teachers and Students

[FOR USE WITH STANDARD PRIVACY NOTICE FOR RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS]

Name of department: School of Education

Title of the study: Disrupting Monolingualism Through Enabling Translanguaging: Teacher-Researcher Collaboration in the English for Academic Purpose Classroom

Introduction

I am an English language lecturer at the English Language Institute, and I'm pursuing my Ph.D. study under the joint supervision program between King Abdul-Aziz University in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, and the University of Strathclyde in Glasgow, the UK. This study is an integral research project for the Ph.D. thesis I'm conducting under the external supervision of Dr. Tomasz John, Dr. Navan Govender, and the internal supervision of Dr. Nashwa Saaty for a Ph.D. dissertation in the School of Education at the University of Strathclyde.

What is the purpose of this research?

One of the study's goals is to explore teachers' and learners' awareness of monolingualism and native speakerism and the extent to which their belief systems interact with their practice and attitudes toward using L1 in the classroom.

In this design-based research (DBR) study, the researcher will collaborate with a classroom teacher in an English for academic purpose (EAP) course at the English Language Institute to challenge the conventional and monolingual classroom rules and discover the innovative possibilities of applying translanguaging in the classroom. The teacher-researcher collaboration will raise teachers' awareness of pedagogical translanguaging and enable both the researcher and the participants to identify, explore and re-design existing pedagogical practice by drawing on translanguaging to move the theory into practice.

Appendix 4: (continued)

The final aim of the study is to explore both the teachers' and the learners' reflections and attitudes on pedagogical translanguaging, and how this has influenced their perceptions and/or attitudes toward monolingualism and native speakerism, if at all.

Do you have to take part?

Participation is completely voluntary, and the person has the right to refuse participation, reject answering any question, and withdraw at any time before the data analysis without any consequence.

What will you do in the project?

The study will be conducted in the English language institute, and the data collection will last for 3 months. The first stage of the study will explore teachers' and learners' perceptions of monolingualism and native speakerism through the use of teachers' interviews and students' focus groups. In the second stage, the researcher will collaborate with a classroom teacher in an English for academic purpose (EAP) course at the English Language Institute to challenge the conventional and monolingual classroom rules and discover the innovative possibilities of applying translanguaging in the classroom. The collaboration will start with raising teachers' awareness of pedagogical translanguaging and what makes it different from code-switching and translanguaging, distinguishing between spontaneous and pedagogical translanguaging, and finally discussing translanguaging theory and creating strategies to move the theory into practice. To co-develop teacher capacity in translanguaging pedagogy, the researcher will assist the teacher in implementing translanguaging through co-designing a lesson plan focusing on employing translanguaging in skills like reading, listening and creating a translanguaging space for oral interactions between the teachers and the learners. In the third stage, the researcher will observe, and audio record the translanguaging informed classroom and the observation will include both the teachers and learners. Finally, teachers' and learners' perceptions of pedagogical translanguaging will be documented using follow-up teachers' interviews and students' focus groups.

Why have you been invited to take part?

The aim of this study is to explore teachers' and learners' perceptions of translanguaging and their ideologies of monolingualism and native speakerism in the EAP classroom. To achieve this goal, certain criteria will be considered in inviting the research participants. You have been invited because you meet the inclusion criteria of the research participants in this study. The sampling procedure will involve the purposeful sampling of five English language teachers. With regards to students, the researcher will use convenience sampling of fifteen students from the observed classrooms. The teachers' inclusion criteria are:

- English language teachers recruited in the English language institute at a university in Saudi Arabia.
- English for academic purpose teachers.
- Teachers of Levels 101,102.
- Bilingual, English /Arabic speakers.

Appendix 4: (continued)

The teachers' exclusion criteria include:

- Native English speakers.
- Teachers of courses other than the EAP.

For the students, the only inclusion/exclusion criteria will be that the students are enrolling in the EAP classes of the teachers who are involved in the study. Teachers' consent will be obtained first, and they will have the right to withdraw from the study at any time before the data analysis. In terms of students' agreement, all students will complete a consent form indicating their approval to participate in the study.

What are the potential risks to you in taking part?

No physical or psychological harm is expected to come to a participant as a result of participating in this research. Taking part in this study will help to understand teachers' and learners' stances toward monolingualism and native speakerism. Also, your participation will move the theory of translanguaging into practice and explore its implications in an under-investigated context.

What information is being collected in the project?

This research aims to study teachers' and learners' existing language ideologies in relation to monolingualism and native speakerism and the extent to which their belief systems interact with their practice and attitudes towards using L1 in the classroom. It starts with interviewing the teachers to capture the influence of monolingualism from teachers' training and educational backgrounds and whether their current teaching practices interrelate with their former experiences with language teaching and learning. It then explores the extent to which they abide by the monolingual instructional strategies and their attitudes towards the students' use of L1 in their classroom. After, it navigates into their identities as non-native English teachers and how they see themselves in terms of competence and preference by the students. Furthermore, the study interviews the learners to discover their beliefs about language learning as emergent bilinguals and whether they perceive English and Arabic as two monolithic entities or one linguistic system. Moreover, the study explores the learners' attitudes toward the English only-policy. Also, it explores their preferences for their EFL teachers' native language and how they respond to their teacher's use of Arabic in the classroom.

In this study, the classroom observations will focus on classroom interaction and the language used between the teachers and their students. The researcher will observe how translanguaging-informed pedagogy can be used by the teacher in the classroom. Also, it will observe if the students are willing to breach the usual English-only policy and speak in Arabic if the teacher gives them permission to speak in the language they feel comfortable with. The researcher will take notes of teachers' attitudes to their students' use of L1 by noticing the kind of feedback they give to the students. Finally, the classroom observation will help in exploring the impact of translanguaging on the student's level of participation and whether the weak students who usually remain passive will be able to overcome their anxiety and participate in class.

Appendix 4: (continued)

Finally, the researcher will explore both the teachers' and the learners' reflections and attitudes on pedagogical translanguaging, and how this has influenced their perceptions and/or attitudes toward monolingualism and native speakerism, if at all. Using teachers' stimulated recall interviews will shed light on the potential of the researcher-teacher collaboration, its capabilities in changing teachers' beliefs, and developing translanguaging pedagogy. Furthermore, it discusses the perceived pedagogical benefits and the challenges of moving the theory into practice from the teachers' perspectives. On the other hand, the learners' follow-up focus groups will discuss if pedagogical translanguaging has any positive or negative impact on the lesson's meaning-making, the student's level of participation, and their foreign language anxiety, if at all.

Who will have access to the information?

Only the researcher and the academic supervisors (Dr Tomasz John and Navan Govender) will have access to the data in this study. The supervisors might need to access the data for research purposes. (e.g., checking the codes and themes, and assisting with the data analysis process). The Participants' information and responses in the interviews and focus groups will remain confidential and won't be shared with other ELI faculty or administration.

Where will the information be stored and how long will it be kept for?

When the researcher transcribes the audio records of the classroom observations, the teachers' interviews, and the students' focus groups. The name of teachers and learners will be replaced with pseudonyms. A code book will be created which connects their pseudonym with their real name. The code book will be kept in a locked location separate from the data.

All participant information, including a key for the code names and personal contact details, will be stored in a separate and password-protected location from the raw data. All data will be stored on the university's OneDrive in a password-protected folder and only the researcher and her supervisors (Dr Tomasz John and Navan Govender) will have access to it. The data will be deleted after the completion of the degree.

What happens next?

The study is going to be published at the University of Strathclyde to fulfill the requirements of a Ph.D. in education. Furthermore, the researcher intends to present the findings of the study at a conference and publish it in an academic journal. The researcher's mobile number and email will be written on the consent form. If any of the research participants is interested in the research findings or would like to find out more about the project, they can contact the researcher via her mobile number or email. The researcher is going to meet with them in person to answer their questions and give them a synopsis of the research outcomes if needed.

4: (continued)

Researchers' contact details:

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Mobile number: 0544455146

Jeddah, Saudi Arabia

Chief Investigator details:

First supervisor at Strathclyde University:

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Glasgow, Scotland

Second supervisor at Strathclyde University:

Dr Navan Govender

Appendix 5: Students' consent form in Arabic

نموذج الموافقة على المشاركة البحثية

(طالبات)

عنوان البحث:

تعطيل أحادية اللغة من خلال تمكين الدمج اللغوي: تعاون المعلم والباحث في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية الأكاديمية

يرجى قراءة ما يلي والتوقيع عليه إذا كنتي تتفقين على ما ينص.

عزيزتي الطالبة،

أنا ايمان السلمي، وأقوم بإجراء مشروع بحثي لمرحلة الدكتوراة بكلية التعليم بجامعة سترانكلايد في المملكة المتحدة. يدور موضوعي حول تعطيل أحادية اللغة من خلال تمكين الدمج اللغوي. تعاون المعلم والباحث في فصول اللغة الإنجليزية الأكاديمية.

قد يكون لدراستي بعض النتائج الإيجابية في تطوير ممارسات الأساتذات. أود أن لاحظ الفصول الدراسية، وتسجيل بعض الملاحظات الميدانية مع القيام بالتسجيل الصوتي للطالبات في مجموعات نقاش مركزة. سيتم مسح التسجيلات سرعان الانتهاء من استخدامها. إذا كنت ترغبين في رؤية نسخة من ملاحظاتي يرجى تدوين ذلك أسفل استمارة الموافقة.

أوافق على المشاركة بحرية وطوعية في البحث حول الموضوع المذكور أعلاه وبلغني أنه سيتم التعامل مع ردود المشاركات في هذا البحث بسرية تامة وأن أسماء جميع المشاركات ستبقى مجهولة. وأنا أدرك أن المشاركة تطوعية تماما وأنا حرة في الانسحاب في أي وقت خلال الملاحظات الفصلية. بالإضافة إلى ذلك، أنا حرة في رفض الإجابة على أي سؤال لا أود الإجابة عليه. لقد تم اخباري أن اسمي لن يكون مرتبط بأي تقرير من قبل الباحثة.

إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة عن دراستي، لا تترددي في التواصل معي عبر بريدي الإلكتروني:

Eman.alsolami@strath.ac.uk

لقد قرأت وفهمت ما تنص عليه هذه الدراسة وأوافق بالمشاركة في هذا المشروع البحثي

نشكر لكم حسن تعاونكم

Appendix 6: Focus group questions before piloting

Section 1: Native Speakerism

1. As regards the identity of your English teacher. (Arabic native, English native, other) Which one do you prefer, and why?
2. Do you think it's important for your teacher to use a standard variety of English, e.g., British or American? Why?

Section 2: Monolingual Pedagogy

3. As emergent bilinguals, do you perceive English and Arabic as separate linguistic systems? Or do you think in Arabic when you learn English?
4. How do you feel when the teacher has a strict English-only policy in the classroom?
5. To what extent do you abide by the English-only policy?
6. Do you favour the teacher's use of Arabic in the classroom? Why? When?

Section 3: Pedagogical Translanguaging (Follow-up Questions)

7. How does employing translanguaging in your brainstorming for academic writing reflect on your writing skills?
8. Do you experience foreign Language anxiety? If yes, does pedagogical translanguaging positively or negatively affect your foreign language anxiety?
9. How do you react when your teacher uses translanguaging in class regarding learning and participating?

Appendix 7: Teachers' interview questions before piloting

Section 1: Native Speakerism

1. Do you think that students consider teachers' identity and whether they are 'native' or 'non-native' English-speaking teachers? How? Why? In what ways?
2. How do you perceive yourself as a non-native language teacher compared to native teachers in terms of accent, competence, and preference by the students?
3. Who do you think could set better models for their students, native or non-native English teachers? Why?
4. Do you consider exposing your students to different varieties of English, or do you think they should only learn standard English? Why?

Section 2: Monolingual Pedagogy

5. What were the hegemonic teaching methodologies and language learning theories in your pre-service teacher education? Do you use any of these methodologies? Give Examples?
6. What is the ELI's policy regarding the use of Arabic in English classrooms?
7. Do you use Arabic in class? When and why? How do you feel about it?
8. Do you think that using Arabic when you are teaching English is pedagogically effective? Why and why not? When, Examples?
9. How do you react to your students' use of Arabic when teaching English? Do you reward them, do you penalise them, or neither?

Section 3: Pedagogical Translanguaging (Follow-up Interviews)

10. How do you compare pedagogical translanguaging to other teaching methods you have used in the past?
11. What are the benefits and challenges of implementing pedagogical translanguaging in your classroom?
12. How does translanguaging impact your classroom dynamic and the lesson meaning-making?

13. To what extent are you willing to adopt pedagogical translanguaging in your future classrooms?
And what else would you do to utilise translanguaging more effectively?

Appendix 8: Focus group questions after piloting

Section 1: Native Speakerism

1. As regards the identity of your English teacher? (Arabic native, English native, other) Which one do you prefer, and why?
2. Do you think it's important for your teacher to use a standard variety of English, e.g. a British or American? Why?
3. Are you satisfied with the variety of English spoken by your teacher?

Section 2: Monolingual Pedagogy

4. As an English language learner, do you rely on Arabic sometimes when you study for your English exams? For example, in translating new words or comparing the sentence structures between the two languages. Or do you avoid comparing and translating between the two languages?
5. Do you think there is an English-only policy at the university, in the institution, or in your EAP classroom? How do you know? How does this make you feel?
6. To what extent do you abide by the English-only policy when talking to your teacher, in a group, or in pair work?
7. Are you in favour of the teacher's use of Arabic in the classroom? Why? When?

Section 3: Pedagogical Translanguaging (Follow-up Focus Group Questions)

8. Do you think using translanguaging in reading to discuss main ideas and translate key vocabulary could improve or hinder your comprehension of the reading passage? Explain.
9. Did pedagogical translanguaging have any positive or negative effect on your foreign language anxiety? Give examples
10. How did you react when your teacher used translanguaging in class in terms of learning and participating? What moments in the teaching did you find most and least useful? Could you provide an example?

Appendix 9: Teachers' interview questions after piloting

Section 1: Native Speakerism

1. Do you think that students consider teachers' identity and whether they are 'native' or 'non-native' English-speaking teachers? How? Why? In what ways?
2. How do you perceive yourself as a non-native language teacher compared to native teachers in terms of accent, competence, and preference by the students?
3. Who do you think could set better models for their students in terms of native or non-native English teachers? Why?
4. Do you consider exposing and using different varieties of English, or do you think they should only learn standard English? why?

Section 2: Monolingual Pedagogy

5. Do you think the monolingual teaching methodology, such as the communicative, task-based method, is suitable for our Saudi students? Why? Do you think your past experiences of learning English have affected the way you teach it now?
6. What is the ELI's policy regarding the use of Arabic in English classrooms?
7. Do you use Arabic in class? In which skill? why? How do you feel about it?
8. Do your students use Arabic in class? If students do, why do you think they might use Arabic? How would you typically respond to this? Do you reward them, do you penalise them, or neither?
9. Do you think that using Arabic when you are teaching English is pedagogically effective? Why and why not? When, Examples?

Section 3: Pedagogical Translanguaging (Follow-up Interviews)

10. How do you compare pedagogical translanguaging to other teaching methods you have used in the past?
11. What are the benefits and challenges of implementing pedagogical translanguaging in your classroom?

12. How does translanguaging impact your classroom dynamic and the lesson's meaning-making?

13. Do you think there is a place for translanguaging in your classroom? Why/why not?

If so, what do you think you would like to do (or what do you need) to continue developing your translanguaging pedagogies?

Appendix 10: Transcription of classroom observation with Arabic utterances in bold

Level: pre-intermediate

Unit: Four

Reading Topic: Customs Around the World

Task: Translanguaging in pair work. Preparation for the classroom discussion

Student 1: Fe alyaban laman takhde alhadyah tgoli fe albedayah no badain yelazem takhdyha ana katabt gifts are often exchanged. Etha ma arafti toktoheha belenglish oktoby belarabi (In Japan, when you receive a gift, you have to say no first, then you accept it. I wrote gifts are often exchanged).

Student 2: Abgha agolaha belarabi bs mani arfah kaif aseegha (I want to say it in Arabic, but I do not know how to phrase it).

Student 1: Ektobi yajeb rafed alhadyah belbedayah thoma gbolaha (Write you have to reject the gift first, then you accept it).

Student 2: In Saudi Arabia, women and men do not touch each other in public.

Student1: Eywa (yes).

Student 1: Fel Saudi yetakharoon ahyanan (In Saudi Arabia, people sometimes arrive late).

Student 2: Fayen legetiha? (Where did you find that?).

Student 1: Here, arrive on time but sometimes late.

Student 1: Katabti walla tehtajen shai? (Have you written it? Do you need help)?

Appendix 11: Sample of teacher's interview transcription (teacher's stance on native-speakerism).

Interviewee: Samya

Interviewer: Eman

Date of Interview: Sunday, 21 May

Location of Interview: English Language Institute. Building 237

Section 1: Native-speakerism

Interviewer: So, this is the interview with Dr. Samya. The first question:

1. Do you think that students consider the English teacher's identity and whether she is 'native' or 'non-native'? How, why, and in what ways?

Interviewee: Since I've worked here in the language institute, I've found out that, actually, I've noticed that (..) since the beginning of the first classes, the students are looking at the teachers and trying to see if they are from the same nationality or not. And I find some other girls are coming to my class with their friends and asking, Can I join your class? They say oh, we have teachers from, you know, non-native Arabic speakers, so they can't communicate with them effectively. So, they prefer to have Saudi teachers.

Interviewer: Okay., good. The second question:

2- How do you perceive yourself as a non-native English-speaking language teacher compared to native teachers in terms of accent, competence, and student preference?

You've already answered the last part of the students' preference, but how do you compare yourself to native English-speaking teachers in terms of accent and competence?

Interviewee: Accent and competence! If you're looking at accents, recently, or actually in the last 10 years, we found out that there is a new term or concept called English ah (...)

Interviewer: English as a global language?

Interviewee: No, World Englishes. You know, there are many forms of English. We are not only considering native accents here, but different varieties of English in all the countries that speak English as a second language. These people are also competent or similarly competent to the native speakers. So, they are also included as kinds or forms of World Englishes.

Interviewer: Yes. So, the accent. Is (...)

Interviewee: It is not that important, actually, these days.

Interviewer: What about competence? Do you think native English-speaking teachers are more competent as teachers?

Interviewee: To be honest, if you look at yourself as a teacher and as a learner before becoming a teacher, and how you learned the language, you know, actually through your experience, how you learned the language and the procedures and all the steps that you went through, to become, to have this high competency. So, you always understand your students more than the native English speaker who just came to teach the content. They do not have that background or experience in the students' struggles or learning challenges.

Interviewer: Yes

Who do you think could be better models for their students in terms of native or nonnative English-speaking teachers? I think you already answered that. Right? You mentioned that non-native English teachers could be better models for their students.

Could you remind me why you talked about...ah?!

Interviewee: As I said, because they put themselves in the same shoes as the students. They learn the language through the same processes.

Interviewer: Okay.

3. Do you consider exposing and using different varieties of English, or do you think they should only learn 'Standard English'?

Interviewee: If you go to the street, you find out that the people who are speaking English as a second or foreign language are more than the people who are speaking English as a first language. So, we should not stick to the two or three restricted versions of English as British, American and Australian forms of the language. There are hundreds of forms of the language around the world. So, I would prefer that they include people from different countries and nationalities in the books. People who speak English as a second language, such as in India and Malaysia. Yeah, countries like that.

Appendix 12: Research Questions with subheadings

1- What are the teachers' and students' stances on monolingual pedagogy?

A) Is there an English-only policy in the ELI and the EAP classroom from the teachers' and students' perspectives? To what extent do they abide by the policy and why?

B) Do the teachers think the teaching methodologies underpinned by monolingual ideologies, such as the communicative teaching method, are suitable for their Saudi students? Why?

2: What are the teachers' and students' ideological stances on native-speakerism?

C) How do the teachers perceive themselves as 'non-native English-speaking teachers' in terms of accent, competence, and preference by the students?

D) Do the teachers consider using or exposing students to different varieties of English, or do they focus on 'standard English'? Why?

E) What are the students' preferences for their EFL teacher's identity (Arabic native speaker, 'English native-speaking teacher,' or other) and why?

F) What are the students' perceptions of the dominant Anglo-American varieties of the language compared to other varieties? Are they satisfied with the variety of English spoken by their 'non-native English-speaking teachers'?

3: How do the teachers and students engage with translanguaging pedagogy during the classroom observations? What are the pedagogical functions of fostering translanguaging pedagogy in the classroom?

4: What are the teachers' and students' perceptions of translanguaging pedagogy? How do their stances on monolingual pedagogy and native-speakerism interact with their experience with translanguaging pedagogy?

- G) Does pedagogical translanguaging have any positive or negative effect on students' learning and participation?
- H) What are the challenges and benefits of implementing pedagogical translanguaging from the teachers' and students' perspectives?

Appendix 13: Research sample (Teachers)

Teacher's Name	Academic Qualifications	Course Level	Languages Spoken Other Than English and Arabic	Years of Teaching Experience	Number of Students Enrolled in Class	Number of Students in Focus Groups
Samya	PhD in education	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	14 years	20	5
Amena	Master's in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL)	Beginners (A1)	--	17 years	25	4
Thekryat	Master's in TESOL	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	5 years	19	3
Mera	Master's in applied linguistics	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	12 years	27	5
Hanouf	Master's in TESOL	Pre-intermediate (A2)	--	5 years	25	5
Amani	Master's in applied linguistics	Beginner (A1)	Spanish	6 years	18	3

Appendix 14: Research sample (Students)

Student's Name	Age	Language Proficiency Level	Languages Spoken Other Than English and Arabic	Track	Years of Studying English
Amna	18	A1(beginner)	--	English for Academic Purposes (EAP)	10 Years
Bodor	17	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Dalia	19	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Reema	19	A1	Turkish	EAP	10 years
Sama	19	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Fatma	19	A1		EAP	10 Years
Tala	19	A1	--	EAP	10 Years
Layal	17	A2 (pre-intermediate)	--	EAP	12 years
Rajeen	18	A2	--	EAP	10 Years
Hanan	19	A2	--	EAP	12 Years
Fatena	19	A2		EAP	10 Years
Ruba	19	A2	Korean	EAP	12 Years
Danah	17	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Jori	19	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Alaa	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Lubna	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years

Hawra	18	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Meznah	19	A2	French	EAP	12 years
Nada	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Layan	19	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Halah	18	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Lena	19	A2	--	EAP	12 years
Shatha	17	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Amal	18	A2	--	EAP	10 years
Ruba	19	A2	--	EAP	10 years