

UNIVERSITY OF BAHRAIN

College of Arts



**Department of English
Language and Literature**

**Language Use and Speech Communities: A Study of
Bilingual Language Profile of Communities of Practice
in Education Setting**

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of
MA in Applied English Language Studies

Submitted by

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May 2025

Defense Committee's Approval Page

University of Bahrain

College of Arts

Department of English Language and Literature

Master Degree in Applied English Language Studies

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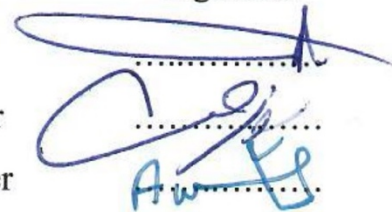
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Abstract

This study investigates bilingual language practices among faculty members and administrators in Saudi Arabian universities, focusing on the use of Arabic and English across personal, academic, and professional domains. Data from 99 participants revealed a distinct functional separation in language use. Arabic predominated in personal contexts (88.6% with family, 72.3% with friends) and internal cognitive processes such as self-talk (63.7%), whereas English was more commonly used in professional settings (52.2%). Participants demonstrated near-native proficiency in Arabic (6/6), while English proficiency was moderate. Receptive skills in English (listening: 5/6, reading: 4.7/6) were stronger than productive skills (writing: 4.2/6). Cultural identity was strongly associated with Arabic (5.8–5.9/6) and less so with English (3.2–3.8/6). Language acquisition patterns showed early exposure to Arabic (mean age: 0.8 years) and an early sense of comfort using the language (5.4 years), contrasted with a delayed onset of English learning (mean age: 7.6 years) and later comfort (12.5 years). Significant correlations emerged: greater immersion in English was strongly associated with higher speaking comfort ($r = 0.71$), while an earlier onset of English learning was negatively correlated with comfort ($r = -0.62$). These findings underscore Arabic's role as a core component of cultural identity, while English serves a primarily utilitarian function in professional and academic contexts. Findings indicate that college specialization exerts a greater influence on bilingual practices than either professional role or gender, highlighting its significance for informing discipline-specific language policy. This illustrates the need for institutional support promoting English-language experiences with identity-sensitive pedagogical approaches to enhance bilingual integration within higher education.

Key Words: Bilingualism, Language Use, Bilingual Language Profile, Sociolinguistic Patterns, Speech Communities, Community of Practice.

Declaration

I declare that this work, which I submitted to the University of Bahrain, contains my own investigation. This research has not been previously accepted for any degree and is not currently considered for any other degree at any other university.

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Profile of Communities of Practice in Education Setting’**

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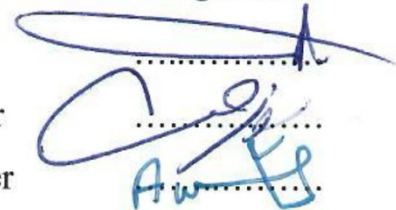
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Dedication

First and foremost, I am deeply grateful to **Almighty Allah** for granting me the strength and perseverance to complete this research. This achievement has been made possible by His boundless mercy and grace.

On a personal note, this journey would not have been possible without the unwavering support of my family and loved ones. I dedicate this work to My husband, for his constant encouragement to pursue my academic aspirations. I also dedicate this research to my Angels (Ghala, Abdulaziz, and Noura), my beloved parents and siblings as I am grateful for their patience, love, and belief in me throughout this process. To Hajar Asiri, my study colleague and companion, who brought light to some dark moments.

This thesis represents not only my academic efforts but also the collective support and love of those who stood by me. To all of you, I am deeply grateful. May this work serve as a humble contribution to the pursuit of knowledge and a testament to the blessings of Allah.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my supervisor, Dr. Madani Othman Ahmad, for his support, insightful guidance, and valuable feedback throughout the course of this research.

My sincere appreciation also extends to my dear colleagues in VDPSSR for their support, to Dr. Zechariah Jebakumar Arulanantham, whose invaluable advice and knowledge contributed greatly to enrich this work.

My heartfelt appreciation goes to all faculty members and administrative staff who participated and generously shared their time and experiences, making this study possible.

Latifah Khalid Alhusain

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List of Abbreviation

BLP	Bilingual Language Profile
CoP	Community of Practice
SpCom	Speech Community
CC	Communicative Competence
FL	Foreign Language
LP	Language Policies
CLIL	Content Integrated Language Learning
CBT	Content Based Teaching

Chapter One

Introduction

Chapter One

Introduction

1.0 Introduction

Communities can be understood and delineated through various dimensions such as space, place, affiliation, and practices. While traditionally seen as social units beyond households, communities can span national and international boundaries (Bucholtz & Hall, 2004). Online communities, for instance, may involve thousands of members without physical interaction. Anthony Cohen (1986) emphasizes the significance of boundaries in defining communities, suggesting that their uniqueness and distinctions are key. He posits that communities are characterized by members sharing something in common that sets them apart from other groups. Central to the concept of community is the shared system of interaction and symbols, which are learned, taught, and recognized by participants. Speech communities exemplify how language ideologies and social identities are formed through shared linguistic systems and awareness among members (Morgan, 2008).

Speech communities manifest in diverse social and political contexts, ranging from nation-states to online forums dedicated to niche topics like extraterrestrial sightings. These communities gain prominence when their distinctiveness is highlighted in times of crisis or when hegemonic powers perceive them as problematic. Researchers also emphasize speech community distinctiveness, making them a unit of study (Morgan, 2008). However, the concept of speech community is subject to continual critique. Critics attribute various societal issues such as poor literacy, epidemics,

unemployment, and crime to speech communities. Despite being a fundamental concept, speech communities face ongoing scrutiny and criticism.

The study of speech communities is fundamental in various branches of linguistics, particularly those concerned with representative samples of populations, individual speakers, or experimental subjects (Patrick, 2004). These branches often attribute linguistic systems to socially coherent bodies and rely on concepts such as 'native speaker', 'competence/performance', and 'acceptability'. Linguistic systems are exercised by speakers within social spaces, where they are acquired, changed, manipulated for communication, and undergo attrition.

In sociolinguistics, the concept of speech communities is central, yet there's little agreement or theoretical discussion regarding it. The term 'SpCom' has been used to denote geographically bounded urban communities, urban neighborhoods, subgroups, immigrant populations, national groups, rural populations, and even specific temporary groups such as members of a jury (Patrick, 2004).

For instance, Labov (1989) applied the concept to large and small urban communities like Philadelphia and Anniston, Alabama, respectively. It has also been used to describe Anglo-Saxon England (Labov, 1982), and urban immigrants (Kerswill, 1994).

In rural contexts, it has been used for named settlements of specific language speakers (Bavin, 1989). Joly (1981) applied the concept to the Afro-Hispanic population of Panama's Costa Abajo.

In higher education, a comparative analysis of speech communities' language use among faculty and administrators could provide insights into how linguistic practices

vary within different social groups within the academic setting. Understanding how language functions within these communities can shed light on issues related to language policy, education, and social dynamics within the university environment.

Studying speech communities in higher education presents a compelling field of inquiry owing to the intricate interplay between language, culture, and society within the country. In Saudi Arabia, with Arabic as the official language, but a plethora of regional dialects and expatriates' languages, higher education embodies linguistic diversity reflective of its multicultural populace. This diversity is further nuanced by social stratification based on factors like gender, age, and tribal affiliations, influencing linguistic practices across different segments of society.

This study investigates the bilingual language profiles within two distinct communities of practice in higher education institutions: faculty and administrative members. Focusing on how bilingualism manifests in communication within and between these communities, the research aims to discern patterns of language use and explore how these profiles evolve or remain stable in intercommunity communication settings. The study addresses the intricate dynamics of bilingualism in the academic environment, shedding light on the linguistic practices that shape communication and identity negotiation processes among members of these communities. So, this study tries to answer the main question:

How does the bilingual language profile differ between faculty members and administrators within higher education settings, and what factors contribute to these differences?

1.1 Statement of Research Problem

The research problem entails investigating the dimensions of language use within speech communities comprising faculty and administrators in universities. Despite existing studies exploring language practices in educational settings, a significant gap exists in understanding how language is employed across different stakeholder groups within university environments. While some research has examined language practices in educational settings, little attention has been directed toward examining the dynamics and interactions among faculty members and administrators within higher education institutions.

This research addresses the need to illuminate the complexities of language use across various dimensions within these speech communities. This includes investigating the disparities and convergences in language history, language use, language proficiency, language attitudes among faculty and administrators. Moreover, the study intends to discern the influence of contextual factors, such as academic disciplines, on shaping language practices within university settings. its potential to illuminate the complexities of language use within higher education institutions, thereby contributing to both the theoretical and practical dimensions of sociolinguistics and educational policy. By focusing on the language history, language use, language proficiency, and language attitudes among faculty and administrators, this research addresses a critical gap in the existing literature, which has largely overlooked the intricate dynamics of language within university settings.

1.2 Research Questions

- a) How does the bilingual language profile differ between faculty members and administrators within higher education institutions?
- b) What factors contribute to these differences?

1.3 Research Objectives

- a) To analyze the language history, language use, language proficiency, language attitudes among faculty and administrators in universities.
- b) To investigate the influence of contextual factors, including academic disciplines, on language practices within university settings.
- c) To assess the effectiveness of communication within and between faculty, administrative and communities in universities.

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study's significance lies in its contribution to a holistic comprehension of the linguistic landscape within universities. Insights garnered from analyzing language use dimensions among speech communities can inform strategies aimed at promoting effective communication, fostering intercultural understanding, and cultivating a supportive academic milieu within higher education institutions. Ultimately, bridging the research gap will enable the development of targeted interventions to enhance language policies and practices.

Theoretical Contributions:

This study will provide a nuanced understanding of speech communities within academic contexts, particularly in a non-Western setting. The investigation into how faculty and administrators use language can reveal new sociolinguistic patterns,

contributing to the global body of knowledge on language and society. The concept of speech communities, as discussed by Bucholtz and Hall (2004), highlights the importance of shared linguistic systems and social identities. This research will expand on their work by applying these concepts to the higher education context, thus broadening the scope of sociolinguistic theory.

By examining the influence of academic disciplines on language practices, this study will contribute to the understanding of how contextual factors shape linguistic behaviors. Previous research has emphasized the role of context in language use (Morgan, 2008), and this study will provide empirical evidence from a unique cultural and institutional context, enriching the theoretical discourse on language and context.

Practical Contributions:

Insights from this study can inform language policies within higher education institutions. Understanding the linguistic dynamics between faculty and administrators can help develop strategies to enhance communication, thereby improving administrative efficiency and academic collaboration. Effective communication strategies are vital for the smooth operation of educational institutions, and this research can provide data-driven recommendations to foster better language practices in universities.

The study's focus on intercultural understanding within speech communities can help universities create more inclusive and supportive environments. As higher education is a home to a diverse population, including many expatriates, fostering intercultural competence is essential for effective communication and collaboration. This aligns with the need for higher education institutions to prepare students and staff for global citizenship (Deardorff, 2006).

The study's findings can help bridge socioeconomic and cultural gaps within the academic community. As Anthony Cohen (1986) emphasizes, the boundaries that define communities are crucial for their identity. By understanding these boundaries in the context of language use, the research can promote greater cohesion among diverse university stakeholders where all members feel heard and valued and ultimately lead to improved academic performance and student satisfaction.

1.5 The Study's Setting

The study was conducted in Saudi Arabian higher education institutions. A total of 90 participants were selected based on their representation across different speech community groups (faculty and administrators) and various academic or administrative departments of different Saudi universities. The participants were asked to self-report language proficiency and usage across different contexts through the Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) questionnaire (Birdsong, Gertken, & Amengual, 2012). Semi-structured interviews will be conducted to further explore participants' bilingual experiences and perspectives.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Speech Community:

A speech community is a group of people who share a common language or dialect and adhere to a shared set of linguistic norms and practices. These norms and practices help define their identity and distinguish them from other groups (Morgan, 2008). Like Teenagers using slang only their friends understand or Doctors using medical jargon.

Bilingual Language Profile (BLP):

The BLP is a tool designed to assess an individual's language proficiency, use, and dominance in two languages. It involves self-report measures where participants evaluate their language abilities and usage in various contexts (Gertken & Amengual, 2012).

Language Ideologies:

These are the beliefs and attitudes that people hold about languages and their use in social contexts. Language ideologies shape how language is perceived and utilized within communities (Bucholtz & Hall, 2004).

Communities of Practice:

Communities of practice are groups of people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavor. These groups are characterized by mutual engagement, a joint enterprise, and a shared repertoire (Wenger, 1998). E.g. A group of science teachers regularly meeting to share classroom strategies and solve challenges.

Language Attrition:

Language attrition refers to the gradual loss of proficiency in a language due to lack of use. This phenomenon often occurs in bilingual or multilingual contexts (Schmid, 2011). E.g. An immigrant who once spoke fluent Spanish but, after many years of using only English, gradually forgets words and grammar in Spanish.

Intercultural Competence:

Intercultural competence is the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately with people of other cultures. It involves understanding and respecting cultural differences (Deardorff, 2006). E.g. A business manager successfully negotiates a deal with partners from another country by understanding their cultural norms, gestures, and communication style.

Sociolinguistic Patterns:

Sociolinguistic patterns refer to the variations in language use among different social groups, influenced by factors such as socioeconomic status, ethnicity, gender, and age (Labov, 2001). E.g. Teenagers often use informal slang and emojis in text messages, while adults prefer standard grammar and full sentences.

Social Stratification:

Social stratification is the hierarchical arrangement of individuals in a society based on socio-economic factors such as wealth, education, occupation, and power (Grusky, 2018).

1.7 Organization of the Thesis

This thesis consists of five chapters, structured as follows:

Chapter 1 provides the introduction and brief background information about the topic. It presents a general theoretical overview and justification of the problem, the variables related to it and the nature of the problem, followed by the research questions and objectives. The significance of the study and justification for conducting it are considered. Finally, the setting of the study is described, and definitions of the main terms are provided.

In Chapter 2, an overview of theories and theoretical models is presented. This is followed by a review of literature and previous studies in different contexts.

Chapter 3 provides a detailed description of the methodology, data collection and analysis procedures. It also describes the population of the study, the sample, and the reasons for selection. The research design, research tools and reliability and validity of the instruments are described. The chapter concludes with details about the procedure, analysis, and statistical methods used.

Chapter 4 presents the results and answers the research questions. The quantitative results include the BLP questionnaire data on participants' self-reported language proficiency and usage across different contexts. Language proficiency, frequency of use, and dominance will be discussed as well as the participants semi-structured interviews responses.

Finally, Chapter 5 offers a summary and conclusion, with recommendations, implications and limitations of the research. The significance of the research results and its influence for future research are proposed.

Chapter Two

Theoretical Framework and Literature

Review

Chapter Two

Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

This chapter states and explains the theoretical framework related to the Speech Communities and literature review of previous studies conducted in the field of Communities of Practice (CoP).

2.0 Introduction

Communities can be understood through a variety of lenses—geographical space, shared location, group affiliation, and common practices, or any combination of these elements. While “community” typically refers to a social group larger than a single household, it can also describe national or even international collectives. In the digital age, online communities illustrate this broad definition, as they may include thousands of members who interact without ever meeting face-to-face, hearing each other’s voices, or seeing one another.

Cohen (1985) suggests that communities are best understood through the concept of boundaries—both in terms of what brings people together and what differentiates them from others. He proposes that a community consists of individuals who (a) share something significant in common, and (b) are thereby set apart from members of other groups. At the heart of any community, particularly a speech community, lies a shared system of communication—symbols, norms, and modes of interaction—that members learn, practice, and recognize as common. This shared linguistic framework forms the basis for constructing both language ideologies and social identities.

People typically belong to multiple communities and subgroups, shaped by factors such as social class, ethnicity, nationality, profession, and religion. Language, while not usually the sole

factor defining these groups, often interacts with them in nuanced and sometimes politically sensitive ways. Bilingual individuals, in particular, may participate in many different communities, not all of which operate bilingually.

Baker and Prys Jones (1998) introduced the concept of a “language community” to describe groups of individuals who use a particular language in some or all aspects of their daily lives. These communities can be quite small or encompass large populations within cities or regions. For example, bilingual neighborhoods like Little Havana in Miami, Little Italy in Boston, or Chinatown districts in cities like San Francisco and London, serve as bilingual hubs within broader urban environments.

Members of these neighborhoods often belong simultaneously to broader language communities. For instance, a Haitian Creole-speaking family running a store in Miami’s Little Haiti also interacts with the wider English-speaking community of the city and the United States, even if not all members are equally proficient in English. Similarly, the roughly 2,000 students attending Hawaiian-medium immersion schools across Hawaii form a type of language community, even though many of them come from English or Hawaii Creole English-speaking homes and primarily use Hawaiian in school settings.

Like the Haitian Creole speakers, these students are also part of the larger English-speaking population in Hawaii and the broader United States. Notably, the size or geographical concentration of a group is not a defining feature of a community. A language community may consist of just a few individuals or millions, and may or may not be tied to a specific location. While physical spaces such as neighborhoods, schools, or workplaces provide a setting for linguistic interaction, a language community can also exist without clear geographic boundaries.

For example, Ultra-Orthodox Jewish communities in New York and Israel use Yiddish as their everyday language despite living in broader societies where English and Modern Hebrew are dominant, respectively. In both settings, Yiddish symbolizes cultural continuity and shared identity. In contrast, Modern Hebrew represents the revival and modern expression of Jewish life within the Israeli Orthodox community.

2.1 Theoretical Framework

2.1.1 Communities of Practice

Sociolinguists have embraced the term "communities of practice" to highlight the dynamic nature of these social groups. Communities of practice are composed of individuals who unite around shared goals, gradually creating distinctive practices, beliefs, values, and power dynamics (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 1999). Examples include factory workers, extended families, friendship circles, fitness classes, and kindergarten classrooms. This study examines the language history, language use, language proficiency, language attitudes for interaction between two distinct communities of practice within educational settings.

The concept of Communities of Practice (CoP), proposed by Lave and Wenger (1991) provides a robust theoretical foundation for studying how language use and identity are shaped in social groups. In their seminal work, Lave and Wenger define CoPs as groups of individuals who engage in shared practices and mutual learning. These practices evolve over time as participants develop and negotiate knowledge and skills within a specific context. The framework is grounded in the idea that learning is inherently social and situated within a community context, rather than an individualistic or abstract process.

In the context of educational settings, CoPs are particularly relevant for understanding how language is used in bilingual communities, where individuals navigate between languages and dialects depending on the context, audience, and purpose. The interaction between language use and the social structures of the community plays a pivotal role in shaping identity, affiliation, and belonging. The CoP framework highlights several core principles that are essential for understanding the bilingual language profiles in educational settings. Members of a CoP engage in practices that define the community's shared knowledge and skills. In bilingual educational settings, the ways in which individuals use language—whether in one language or another, or code-switching between languages—contribute to the construction of their social identities. The ability to communicate effectively in both languages (or more) within these communities is crucial for acceptance and belonging.

Lave and Wenger (1991) introduce the concept of 'legitimate peripheral participation' (LPP), which describes how newcomers to a CoP initially participate in peripheral activities before gradually taking on more central roles. In bilingual educational settings, new participants (e.g., new students or teachers) might start using one language predominantly, but through increased participation in classroom activities and peer interactions, they become more proficient in both languages. The shifting language practices during this process allow for the negotiation of bilingual identities within the group.

2.1.1.1 Shared Practices and Language Use

One of the key elements of a CoP is the development of shared practices, which evolve over time and through repeated interactions. In bilingual educational communities, the collective language practices—such as how language is used in specific contexts, what varieties are considered prestigious, and how language relates to academic achievement—are shaped by the

group's shared norms and values. These shared practices may vary between communities and can influence members' linguistic behavior, as they move between different CoPs (e.g., peer groups, classrooms, meetings).

2.1.1.2 Coherence and Boundaries

Communities of practice are cohesive units, but they also have flexible boundaries. While they share common goals and practices, individuals in CoPs also interact with other communities that may have different practices, norms, and language use. In bilingual educational settings, this concept is crucial for understanding how language boundaries are drawn, how communities might switch between languages or adopt different dialects, and how bilingualism is negotiated across various educational contexts. The ability to traverse multiple communities with different linguistic practices is a key feature of bilingual identity development.

The CoP framework also takes into account the power dynamics within communities. The status of certain languages or dialects can influence an individual's ability to participate in or lead a CoP. Language use is not only a means of communication but also a tool that reflects power relations. For example, bilingual members might be marginalized if their non-dominant language is not valued or respected within the educational environment. Bilingualism should not be seen as a static trait but as a set of dynamic practices that evolve in response to contextual needs. The interaction between language, context, and practice shapes how bilingual members acquire, use, and adapt language in different settings.

2.1.2 Speech Communities

A group of individuals does not automatically form a community; what defines a community is the presence of shared values, beliefs, activities, or understandings. Speech, in this context, is more than just the production of sounds. While instinctive human sounds—such as

cries, screams, or moans—can be understood without formal learning, meaningful speech involves a socially agreed-upon system of symbols. These symbols give structure and meaning to the sounds we produce, distinguishing them as language.

For speech to function as a tool of communication within a group, there must be a collective understanding of the rules and meanings associated with those linguistic symbols. This understanding may differ not only between languages but also within variations of the same language. To become competent members of a speech community, individuals must be socialized into this system—learning not just the language itself, but also the appropriate ways and contexts in which to use it.

A speech community is a group of people who share a set of linguistic norms and expectations regarding the use of language. The groups of individuals who regularly engage with each other and share a common linguistic repertoire, are inherently dynamic and multifaceted. As a community, their boundaries remain fluid, relationships within them evolve, and they are in a constant state of reinvention and adaptation. The decision to identify with a particular speech community is often context-dependent, shaped by factors like profession or shared traits. Language plays a key role in constructing group identity and nurturing a sense of belonging. Mastery of a specific dialect or language often serves as a strong indicator of group affiliation and unity, while linguistic differences can sometimes exclude individuals from the group, framing them in a contrasting light. The concept of the *speech community* is most commonly linked to the fields of sociolinguistics and anthropological linguistics. However, its definition remains a subject of ongoing debate within academic literature. Most definitions emphasize two key elements to varying degrees: (1) membership within a social group, and (2) shared linguistic communication.

Traditionally, a speech community has often been thought of as a small, localized group—such as the residents of a town—who develop common norms of language use through daily interaction. Early scholars assumed that such communities were bounded and internally homogeneous in terms of linguistic norms. However, this view has been increasingly challenged. For example, William Labov proposed that even large, socially diverse cities like New York could function as a single speech community, despite internal variation.

More recent research suggests that people do not belong to just one speech community at a time. Instead, individuals often participate in multiple overlapping communities throughout their lives. These communities may not be geographically fixed or clearly defined; they may be dispersed and composed of various subgroups, each with its own linguistic practices. The earlier model of a tightly bounded community with uniform speech norms has largely given way to a more flexible understanding of speech communities as dynamic "communities of practice," where norms are negotiated and language is used as a tool for constructing social identity.

Speech communities typically develop shared norms for how language is used through sustained interaction. These communities may form in villages, nations, professions, interest groups, or even informal networks like friend groups. They often share particular vocabularies, grammatical patterns, ways of speaking, and expectations about when and how different speech styles are appropriate.

Importantly, speech communities become more noticeable—or more consciously defined—during moments of social tension or political scrutiny. They are often brought into focus when dominant institutions view their language practices as problematic or when researchers choose to study them in order to highlight linguistic distinctiveness. Despite being a foundational concept in sociolinguistics, the idea of the speech community is also subject to continuous critique.

At times, these communities have been unfairly blamed for broader societal issues, including poor literacy rates, unemployment, crime, and public health challenges.

2.1.2.1 Elements of Speech Communities

1. Shared Language:

- Members of a speech community speak the same language or dialect, but more importantly, they share a common understanding of its usage rules (Hymes, 1972).

2. Social Interaction:

- A speech community forms through the social relationships among its members, which shape the nature of their communication (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2014).

3. Cultural Norms:

- Each speech community has cultural norms that define acceptable or unacceptable communication practices, such as greeting conventions or conversational etiquette (Saville-Troike, 2003).

4. Internal Diversity:

- Speech communities can vary in size and complexity, ranging from small local groups to global linguistic communities, such as those formed online (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2014).

2.1.2.2 Hymes' Theory of Speech Communities

A speech community refers to a group of individuals who share a specific language or dialect, as well as the norms and rules governing its use in various social contexts. Hymes emphasized that understanding language involves more than just grammatical rules; it also requires

the ability to use it appropriately in social and cultural contexts, a concept he termed **Communicative Competence** (Hymes, 1972).

Dell Hymes is widely recognized as a foundational figure in the field known as the *Ethnography of Communication*. In 1962, he introduced the concept of the *ethnography of speaking* as a framework for studying how people use language in real-life interactions. This approach later evolved to include a broader range of symbolic expressions and became known as the ethnography of communication. Hymes aimed to develop a theoretical model that would support researchers in analyzing language use within specific cultural and social contexts. At the time, many linguists were focused on analyzing language in isolation, separate from the settings in which communication actually occurred.

Hymes believed that meaningful patterns in language use could only be uncovered by observing how people communicate in context, not just by analyzing isolated words or grammatical structures. As he emphasized in 1974, the foundation of this approach is the *ethnographic analysis of the communication conduct* of a community—meaning the study of what people actually do when they engage in communication.

To support this kind of analysis, Hymes proposed a set of basic units that help researchers focus on particular aspects of a culture's communication system. These six key units are: **speech community, speech situation, speech event, communicative act, communicative style, and ways of speaking**. The central unit—*speech community*—builds on John Gumperz's (1962) earlier notion of a *linguistic community*. A speech community consists of a group of individuals who share common signs and communicative practices, setting them apart from other groups.

In 1972, Hymes further defined a speech community as a group of people who share rules about when, how, and in what situations it is appropriate to speak. By 1974, he added that being

part of a speech community means sharing at least one identifiable “way of speaking.” Later developments in his work also highlighted the importance of understanding the meaning behind what people say, not just how they say it.

This flexible concept allows for modern applications: for instance, members of an online forum could be considered a speech community if they follow shared norms for communication specific to that digital space. Similarly, skateboarders might form a speech community if their language use differs meaningfully from those outside their subculture.

Hymes' theory of Speech Communities is a fundamental concept in sociolinguistics, introduced by Dell Hymes as part of his broader framework known as "The Ethnography of Communication". This theory aims to examine the relationship between language, culture, and communication, focusing on the social contexts in which language is used.

2.1.2.2.1 Communicative Competence

Hymes expanded the concept of linguistic competence introduced by Noam Chomsky. While Chomsky focused on grammatical knowledge, Hymes emphasized the importance of knowing how to use language effectively in diverse social contexts. Communicative competence includes:

- 1. Linguistic Knowledge:**

- Grammar, vocabulary, and phonetics (Hymes, 1972).

- 2. Practical Knowledge:**

- Understanding the context and purpose of communication (Saville-Troike, 2003).

- 3. Cultural Knowledge:**

- Awareness of the cultural values and norms influencing language use (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2014).

2.1.2.2.2 The "SPEAKING" Model for Analyzing Communicative Events

Hymes proposed an analytical model called **SPEAKING**, which is used to understand the components of communicative events within speech communities. Each letter in the acronym represents a specific element:

1. **S - Setting and Scene:** The physical and social context of communication.
2. **P - Participants:** The speakers, listeners, or audience involved.
3. **E - Ends:** The goals or outcomes of the interaction.
4. **A - Act Sequence:** The structure and content of the communication.
5. **K - Key:** The tone or spirit of the interaction.
6. **I - Instrumentalities:** The language, dialect, or medium of communication.
7. **N - Norms:** The social rules governing the interaction.
8. **G - Genre:** The type of speech, such as narratives, discussions, or lectures.

2.1.2.2.3 Significance of the Theory

Hymes' theory of speech communities serves as a foundation for understanding language within its social and cultural contexts. This theory has influenced various fields, including:

1. **Sociolinguistics:** Investigating linguistic diversity and change across social groups (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2014).
2. **Anthropology:** Analyzing the cultural significance of linguistic practices (Hymes, 1972).
3. **Education:** Developing teaching methods that account for students' linguistic and cultural diversity (Saville-Troike, 2003).

2.1.3 Bilingualism and Code-Switching

Bilingualism refers to the ability of individuals or communities to use two or more languages fluently. The conceptualization of bilingualism has evolved over time, encompassing various forms, including simultaneous bilingualism (learning two languages from early childhood) and sequential bilingualism (learning a second language after the first is established). Bilingual individuals navigate multiple linguistic codes and may alternate between languages depending on the context, interlocutor, and purpose of communication (Grosjean, 1982). This flexibility is often shaped by the social, cultural, and cognitive environments in which bilinguals' function.

Code-switching, on the other hand, refers to the practice of alternating between two or more languages or dialects within a conversation or discourse. This phenomenon has been extensively studied within sociolinguistics and has been viewed as a natural and strategic resource employed by bilinguals. It occurs at various levels of discourse, such as between sentences, within sentences, or even at the level of a single word (Gumperz, 1982).

Gumperz (1982) emphasizes that code-switching is not random but rather governed by social and contextual rules. It occurs as a response to social situations, signaling group identity, solidarity, and pragmatic meaning. He identifies 'situational code-switching', which happens when the language switch signals a change in the social context, and 'metaphorical code-switching', where switching is used to convey additional layers of meaning, identity, or emphasis.

2.1.3.1 Myers-Scotton's (1993) Markedness Model

Myers-Scotton (1993) extends the understanding of code-switching with her 'Markedness Model', which suggests that speakers make language choices based on the degree to which their linguistic choices are perceived as "marked" or "unmarked" in a particular social context. An "unmarked" language is the dominant or default language in a given context, whereas a "marked"

language is one that signals a deviation from the norm, often indicating a shift in identity, group membership, or a response to specific communicative needs. The decision to switch between languages, according to this model, is not only a linguistic move but also a strategic one, reflecting social dynamics and power structures within the community.

2.1.4 Communities of Practice and Bilingual Language Profiles

In the context of ‘communities of practice’ (Lave & Wenger, 1991), bilingualism and code-switching can be seen as integral to how language is used and negotiated within specific social groups. A community of practice is a group of individuals who share a common interest and engage in collective activities that define their membership and identity. In educational settings, bilingualism and code-switching within communities of practice can reflect broader cultural and social influences, as well as individual language profiles and personal histories.

Bilingual language profiles in such communities are not static but rather dynamic, shaped by the social roles, goals, and ideologies of the participants. Code-switching in these settings can function as a tool for navigating social and academic spaces, negotiating authority, expressing solidarity, and reinforcing group identities. Furthermore, it may signal the fluidity of linguistic boundaries, as bilinguals toggle between languages to fit the communicative needs of specific contexts (Myers-Scotton, 1993).

2.1.5 Language Attitudes Towards Multilingualism

In research on language attitudes within bilingual settings, several key factors have been found to shape individuals’ perspectives. These include the sociolinguistic context, gender, first language (L1), and age (Huguet, 2006; Lasagabaster, 2003). Among them, the sociolinguistic context—defined as the environment in which individuals live and interact—plays a crucial role in shaping their attitudes toward multilingualism (Portolés, 2011).

Recent studies in bilingual regions of Spain highlight how this context influences people's views on language use. For example, Lasagabaster (2005) found that university students in the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC) who live in predominantly Basque-speaking towns and villages tend to show more supportive attitudes toward Basque, the regional minority language. In contrast, those living in primarily Spanish-speaking urban areas exhibit more favorable views toward Spanish, the majority language. Interestingly, the study also revealed a difference in attitudes toward English: students from Spanish-speaking environments were generally more supportive of English as a foreign language than their peers from Basque-speaking areas.

Similar trends have been reported by Portolés (2011) in the Valencian Autonomous Community. At Jaume I University, where both Spanish and Valencian are official languages and Valencian is commonly used in daily life, students demonstrated the strongest support for Valencian, followed by Spanish and then English. On the other hand, students from the Catholic University of Valencia—located in the capital city and operating solely in Spanish—expressed more favorable attitudes toward Spanish and English, while their support for Valencian was noticeably weaker.

Gender also appears to influence language attitudes and multilingual practices. Pavlenko and Piller (2007) argue that access to multilingualism—and its perceived value—can be shaped by gender norms. Studies show that women often express more positive attitudes toward multilingualism. For instance, Ladegaard (1998) found that while boys strongly favored the regular use of their local dialect regardless of setting, many girls, despite appreciating the dialect, tended to prefer standard Danish in more formal contexts. Similarly, Bilaniuk (2003) noted that Ukrainian women were more likely than men to pursue opportunities linked to Russian and English, viewing these languages as tools for social and economic advancement.

This pattern is echoed in Kissau's (2006) study of ninth-grade students in Ontario. He found that boys were less confident in their French skills and more likely to believe that excelling in French was not considered "normal" for them by societal standards. As a result, they were concerned about being negatively judged by their peers, further reinforcing the idea that multilingualism can be shaped by gendered social expectations.

2.1.6 Beliefs about Bilingualism in Educational Context

Beliefs within educational contexts have attracted considerable attention from researchers due to their potential influence on both individual and institutional practices. Richardson (1996) defines beliefs as "psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true." These internal convictions can significantly impact how individuals interpret experiences and make decisions in educational environments.

Schoenfeld (1983) highlights that key components such as metacognition, belief systems, and social cognition play essential roles in shaping an individual's intellectual performance. Similarly, beliefs are thought to influence core personal abilities including learning, reasoning, thinking, and problem-solving (Kardash & Scholes, 1996). Ozdemir (2013) extends this perspective by arguing that beliefs also shape cognitive processes, attitudes, and perspectives.

At the community level, the personal beliefs of individuals can converge to form shared ideologies. Ricento (2013) notes that when beliefs are collectively embraced, they can evolve into a dominant ideology within a community. Van Dijk (1998) defines ideology as a shared system of social beliefs that helps structure and guide the ways in which members of a group interpret and engage with the world around them.

In educational settings, ideology is especially influential, as it can shape not only learning practices and systems but also identities and institutional structures (Blommaert, 2006). It is

reasonable to suggest that individual beliefs may play a foundational role in establishing community norms and can help explain why certain educational practices and policies exist in their current forms.

In the context of this study, it is assumed that the beliefs held by members of a Community of Practice (CoP) can meaningfully influence the development and character of language policies in educational institutions. These shared beliefs may offer valuable insights into why specific policies take the forms they do and how they are maintained or challenged over time.

2.1.6.1 Language Policy

Language policies (LPs) play a vital role in shaping language use within communities around the world. Their significance is evident in the wide range of policy decisions being made globally. One key reason for implementing LPs is to manage multilingual situations—such as in South Africa, where more than ten languages are spoken, including English, Afrikaans, and various indigenous languages. In such contexts, it becomes essential for governments to establish clear policies determining which languages are used in education, public signage, and official communications.

Cooper (1989) defines language policy as intentional efforts aimed at influencing how people acquire, structure, and use language. Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) expand on this by stating that language planning often leads to, or is guided by, an official endorsement of a language policy. They describe LPs as collections of ideas, regulations, rules, and practices designed to bring about specific language changes within societies, communities, or institutions. Spolsky (2004) further outlines three key elements of language policy: the actual language practices within a community, proposed changes to those practices, and the beliefs or ideologies that underpin them.

Johnson (2013) identifies three main ways LPs can be categorized: by how they are developed, their methods and goals, and how they are documented. The first category—policy formation—distinguishes between top-down and bottom-up processes. In top-down approaches, policies are created by higher authorities and imposed on local communities. In contrast, bottom-up policies originate from smaller communities with firsthand knowledge of local language use and are sometimes passed upward for approval. While top-down policies are typically seen as authoritative and binding, bottom-up policies may carry less weight and may not be uniformly accepted, even among similar institutions—such as two English departments in the same city.

The second category focuses on the nature and intent of policies. LPs may be *overt*, meaning they are publicly declared, or *covert*, meaning they are hidden or implicit (Johnson, 2013; Schiffman, 2010; Shohamy, 2006). The choice between these types often depends on political or social considerations. For example, in multilingual countries, governments might adopt covert policies to favor one language for official use without provoking negative reactions from speakers of other languages.

The third category relates to documentation. LPs that are formally written or explicitly stated tend to carry more official weight and are more likely to be followed. In contrast, informal or organically developed policies—those that arise from everyday practice without official endorsement—are seen as less rigid and more flexible. Because they are not officially codified, changes or violations of these informal policies typically do not attract significant concern.

2.1.6.2 Gender Differences

Research across various fields has shown that gender can influence language use, learning strategies, and communication styles. In psychology, studies have found meaningful differences between males and females in cognitive and verbal performance (Bacon & Finnemann, 1992). In educational settings, gender has been shown to impact learning approaches. Oxford (1989) found that males and females often employ different learning strategies, and Yilmaz (2010) observed that these differences also extend to beliefs about the usefulness of such strategies.

When it comes to language use, gendered patterns of communication are well documented. Tannen (1995) notes that men and women often use distinct interaction styles. Herring (2000) found that women and men differ in their levels of engagement during speech, while both Herring (2000) and Leaper & Ayres (2007) suggest that men tend to adopt more assertive speech styles. These studies collectively highlight that gender is a relevant factor in both language practices and broader educational behaviors.

2.1.6.3 Bilingualism in Educational Settings

Fishman (1982) conducted a foundational ethnographic analysis of language and bilingual policies, particularly in relation to the fields of sociology and education. His work traces the early development of the sociology of language and highlights its significance for educational research. Fishman identified two key methodological contributions from sociolinguistics to the study of language policy in education: the ethnographic approach and the use of controlled experimental designs. While both approaches have proven valuable, applying sociolinguistic perspectives to language policy and bilingualism remains complex and often challenging due to the diverse sociocultural factors involved.

Saarinen and Taalas (2017) analyzed policy documents from six Nordic countries—Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden—focusing on the motivations behind language policy and internationalization in higher education. Their findings indicate that internationalization is a primary driver of language policy development across the region. They identified two contrasting approaches: in Finland, policies tend to be more flexible or “relaxed,” whereas in Sweden and Iceland, policies are more restrictive or “tightened.” The study suggests that implementing language policies that support internationalization is increasingly important in the Nordic context due to rising mobility and the growing demand for language-medium instruction in universities.

Smit (2019) explored how language policies influence bilingual practices in university settings. The study outlines various models of language policy in higher education, including monolingual, bilingual, trilingual, and multilingual approaches. These models are designed to support the internationalization of higher education at local, regional, and national levels. One key theme emerging from the research is the dominance of English as the primary language of instruction, not only in English-speaking “inner circle” countries but also in many non-English-speaking contexts. This reflects the global status of English as a dominant language in the educational market.

In Asia, several studies have examined how language policy is implemented in different national contexts. For instance, Moore (2017) conducted a case study on English Medium Instruction (EMI) in Cambodian higher education. The study focused on two instructional models: Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Content-Based Teaching (CBT). Using interviews, focus group discussions, and document analysis, Moore found that assessment practices in Cambodia are shaped more by institutional norms than by international standards. The

study recommends that educators develop a deeper understanding of how language assessment is influenced by local cultural contexts.

In Vietnam, Nguyen et al. (2017) explored a range of challenges related to language policy in higher education. These include issues at the policy level, institutional constraints, classroom challenges, limited language input, and problems with joint educational programs. The authors argue that addressing these diverse challenges requires a comprehensive language policy that considers the perspectives and needs of all stakeholders, including policymakers, teachers, lecturers, and researchers.

2.1.7 Saudi Context and English Language

Before examining the role of the English language in Saudi Arabia, it is important to first consider how the government approaches language planning. Scholars such as Ferguson (1968), Haugen (1983), and Hornberger (2006) have identified two key types of language planning: acquisition planning and status planning, which Bright (1992) refers to as the two main dimensions of language planning. In simple terms, acquisition planning involves strategies and decisions aimed at promoting the learning and teaching of a language, while status planning addresses how a language is positioned or recognized within a particular society. This includes considerations such as whether the language holds official status, is permitted in government communication, or is used in public media (Wardhaugh & Fuller, 2015).

In Saudi Arabia, Arabic is the official language and has held cultural and religious significance for centuries, as it is both the historical language of local tribes and the language of the Qur'an. For this reason, Arabic is often described by scholars as a "holy language" (Fishman, 2002; Liddicoat, 2012; Payne & Almansour, 2014). In contexts where a language has religious

importance, language planning may include efforts to maintain and elevate its use and status, both for cultural preservation and spiritual reasons (Liddicoat, 2012).

Although Arabic is the only language officially mentioned in the Saudi constitution, English has gained notable visibility and institutional support, reflecting its growing status in the country. The Saudi government has clearly engaged in acquisition planning for English by promoting its teaching and learning across all levels of education. As noted by Alasmari and Khan (2014), English instruction begins in the fourth grade and continues through university, indicating a national effort to strengthen English proficiency from an early age.

Alongside acquisition efforts, Saudi Arabia has also engaged in status planning to elevate the role of English in national life. This is evident in many aspects of public communication: government websites, including those intended primarily for Saudi citizens, are commonly available in both Arabic and English. Additionally, formal documents, public signage, television broadcasts, radio programs, and application forms are frequently provided in both languages. These practices suggest a clear governmental intention to enhance English's visibility and functionality in everyday life.

The government's commitment to integrating English into multiple domains reflects an awareness of its global importance. With English widely used as a *lingua franca*—a common language for international communication—many governments around the world have recognized the strategic value of promoting it (Firth, 1996; Seidlhofer, 2005). In Saudi Arabia, this global status of English, combined with national-level language planning, may influence how members of the community perceive and use the language in their daily lives (Alzahrani, 2017). It is reasonable to assume that these governmental efforts have the potential to shape language attitudes and practices across the Saudi population.

2.2 Literature Review

The use of language in bilingual educational settings has been widely studied, with research focusing on various aspects such as cognitive benefits, language policies, and instructional strategies. Studies have explored how bilingualism impacts academic performance, language proficiency, and identity development within communities of practice. These studies are reviewed in thematic order. They were categorized into four main themes: (1) Theories of Bilingualism and Language Profiling, (2) Speech Communities and Communicative Competence, (3) Language Use and Policy in Higher Education, and (4) Language Attitudes, Motivation, and Translanguaging Practices. This categorization highlights how the present research contributes to understanding the bilingual language profiles within educational contexts.

2.2.1 Speech Communities and Communicative Competence

The notion of a "speech community" lies at the heart of sociolinguistics, originally grounded in shared norms and mutual intelligibility (Hymes, 1974). Later interpretations, like those by Patrick (2002) and Romaine (2012), emphasize speech communities as fluid, overlapping, and often hierarchical in nature.

In "The Speech Community", Peter Patrick (2004), examines the concept of the speech community (SpCom) in sociolinguistics, tracing its historical evolution and addressing its theoretical challenges. He critiques the lack of consensus on definitions, noting its application across diverse contexts—from urban neighborhoods to rural populations. Patrick highlights key theorists like Labov, Gumperz, and Hymes, emphasizing Labov's empirical focus on shared norms and linguistic uniformity in New York City, which he argues is essential for understanding language variation. He calls for a nuanced approach that accommodates overlapping memberships

and recognizes the complexity of social dynamics, ultimately advocating for a flexible SpCom model that integrates empirical research with sociolinguistic theory.

Dell Hymes' (1974) ethnography of communication repositioned speech as inherently social. His SPEAKING model frames how individuals adapt language to setting, participants, ends, acts, keys, instrumentalities, norms, and genres. Susan M. Ervin-Tripp's article (2009) reviews Dell Hymes's significant contributions to the study of speech socialization, emphasizing his critique of Chomsky's theories. Hymes introduced a context-driven approach to language acquisition, highlighting cultural variations in children's speech learning. He posed critical questions regarding the timing and nature of speech acquisition across societies, and emphasized the importance of understanding speech functions and settings. Hymes argued that children must master not only linguistic rules but also the sociolinguistic and pragmatic contexts of communication. His work laid the groundwork for future research on language socialization, influencing educational practices and the understanding of communicative competence within diverse cultural frameworks.

Morgan (2014) further argues that speech communities are sites where ideologies, identities, and agency are negotiated and contested. The study explores the concept of speech communities, defined as groups sharing values and practices regarding language use, shaped by prolonged interactions. It critiques early definitions, notably Leonard Bloomfield's (1933) view of speech communities as monolingual entities, highlighting the complexities introduced by globalization, technology, and migration. Key arguments emphasize that speech communities are not solely linguistic but also political and historical sites where identity and ideology are constructed. The work of John Gumperz and Dell Hymes is pivotal in redefining speech

communities as social constructs that encompass shared norms and beliefs. It underscores the necessity of understanding language as intertwined with social life, culture, and power dynamics.

Norton's study (1997), examined how bilingual students' identities are shaped by their academic and social experiences in university settings. The research used interviews and participant observations to gather insights from bilingual students. It found that students' linguistic identities were closely linked to their classroom and peer interactions, which could either reinforce or challenge their sense of self. The study emphasized that educational institutions should consider the identity development of bilingual students and support environments where these students feel valued and understood. Recommendations included fostering inclusive teaching practices that recognize and celebrate linguistic diversity. This would help bilingual students maintain their linguistic identities while succeeding academically.

Blackledge and Creese (2010), conducted an ethnographic study focusing on the role of social interactions in maintaining language skills among bilingual students. The study involved extensive fieldwork and interviews with multilingual university students. It was found that social interactions within student groups significantly contributed to the maintenance of their bilingual abilities. The study concluded that creating opportunities for peer-based learning in different languages supports the development and retention of bilingual proficiency. The authors recommended that universities create environments where bilingual students can engage in social and academic activities that incorporate their home languages. This would help strengthen language skills and contribute to positive student outcomes.

Orozco and Rivera's study, in 2021, examined the social and academic integration of bilingual students in higher education. Through surveys and focus groups, the researchers gathered insights into the experiences of bilingual students across different disciplines. The results found

that social integration significantly impacted academic performance and student engagement. Bilingual students who felt a sense of belonging were more likely to participate actively and succeed academically. The study recommended universities create programs and spaces that foster community and inclusivity for bilingual students, enhancing both their social and academic experiences. Orozco and Rivera (2021) explored how academic and social integration influence bilingual students' engagement and achievement. Their findings affirm that speech communities are not only linguistic but also social and institutional, reflecting Wenger's idea of communities of practice.

Hymes' SPEAKING model and Ervin-Tripp's (2009) work on speech socialization provide a structure for understanding how language choices reflect social alignment, power, and identity within communities of practice. This perspective is particularly relevant in educational institutions, where faculty and administrators operate within overlapping yet distinct communities. Dell Hymes (1974) proposed that speech communities are characterized not only by shared grammar but by communicative competence—the ability to use language appropriately in social contexts. Duranti (2009) adds that linguistic behavior reflects shared social values within communities of practice. Norton (1997) emphasized how bilingual identities are constructed through classroom interactions, affecting students' sense of belonging. Similarly, Blackledge and Creese (2010) and Orozco and Rivera (2021) both highlight the importance of social interactions in maintaining bilingual abilities, but Blackledge and Creese explored the social dynamics of bilingual communities in schools, while Orozco and Rivera focus more on how universities can create spaces that foster bilingual identities, especially through academic and social activities.

In educational institutions, faculty and administrative staff form distinct yet overlapping speech communities shaped by professional roles, institutional norms, and broader cultural

ideologies. These communities reinforce identity and belonging, in addition to revealing power relations tied to language use. Recognizing these distinctions is crucial for understanding how bilingualism functions within the institution and how language practices are shaped by the roles and responsibilities of different professional communities. While Dell Hymes and Duranti laid the theoretical groundwork, this study examines these frameworks in practice within Saudi higher education — a context rarely explored through a speech community lens.

2.2.2 Bilingualism and Language Profiling

Bilingualism is no longer viewed as a simple ability to speak two languages but as a dynamic competence shaped by history, context, and identity. In "Bilingual and Monolingual Language Modes", François Grosjean (1982) explores the concept of language mode, defined as the activation state of a bilingual's languages during communication. Bilinguals adjust their language use based on interlocutors, shifting to a monolingual mode with monolinguals and a bilingual mode with fellow bilinguals. Research indicates that language mode influences language production, processing, and acquisition, with observational studies showing significant variations in code-switching based on situational factors. Grosjean (1982) famously challenged the monolingual norm by declaring that bilinguals operate within fluid linguistic communities. He emphasized that bilinguals are not simply "two monolinguals in one person", arguing that bilingualism is dynamic and context-sensitive. For instance, Grosjean's study (2010), focused on the cognitive benefits that bilingualism can offer students in higher education. The research involved administering psychological tests to university students who were fluent in two or more languages. The results indicated that bilingual individuals outperformed their monolingual counterparts in tasks requiring cognitive flexibility, multitasking, and problem-solving. This demonstrated that being bilingual could lead to better mental adaptability and higher cognitive

skills. Grosjean's findings underscored the importance of supporting bilingual education for its impact on cognitive development and academic performance. The study concluded that bilingual students possess a unique advantage in navigating complex educational and real-world challenges. Grosjean recommended that educational institutions encourage and support bilingual learning for its long-term benefits.

Sankoff and Poplack (1981) found four times more code-switching in informal settings. The document concludes that understanding language mode is crucial for interpreting bilingual behavior and requires further research to isolate influencing factors and their interactions.

Cummins' (1979) concept of dual iceberg theory further contributed to this, showing that bilingual individuals access both languages through shared underlying proficiencies. He introduced the Common Underlying Proficiency model, proposing that bilinguals do not store languages in isolation but instead draw on shared cognitive resources. Cummins (2017), investigated the effects of bilingual instruction on students enrolled in STEM fields in higher education. The study employed a longitudinal design, involving pre- and post-testing of students' academic performance. The results showed that students who received bilingual instruction demonstrated significant improvements in their understanding of complex subjects and overall engagement. Cummins suggested that bilingual instruction provided students with cognitive advantages and promoted higher levels of academic success. The study recommended that educational institutions integrate bilingual teaching strategies into STEM courses to leverage these benefits. This approach was seen as essential for improving language proficiency and academic achievement.

Li's experimental research, in 2019, aimed to determine the effect of bilingualism on cognitive adaptability and problem-solving abilities in higher education. Through controlled

language tasks and performance measurements, the study assessed the cognitive flexibility of bilingual students. The findings indicated that bilingual students demonstrated better adaptability and quicker problem-solving skills compared to their monolingual peers. This cognitive advantage was attributed to the bilingual brain's enhanced ability to switch between languages and manage complex tasks. Li recommended the promotion of bilingual educational programs to help students develop cognitive skills that are valuable both in academic and real-world contexts.

In "The Bilingual and Multilingual Community," Suzanne Romaine (2012) discusses the prevalence of bilingualism and multilingualism, asserting that over half the global population is bilingual. She emphasizes the complexity of defining communities, noting that language intertwines with social class, ethnicity, and nationality. The study highlights that 80% of the world's languages are concentrated in just 20 countries, with only 4% of languages holding official status. Romaine critiques national language policies, which often favor dominant languages, leading to the decline of minority languages. She calls for a balance between local and global languages in education, advocating for recognition of linguistic diversity as crucial to cultural richness and social cohesion.

Studies like those by Grosjean (2010) and Li (2019) both show that bilinguals outperform monolinguals in cognitive tasks, with Grosjean highlighting broader cognitive advantages such as multitasking, while Li's (2019) study narrows down to cognitive adaptability, specifically in academic contexts. Cummins (2017) adds a focus on language proficiency as a key factor. Traditional theories of bilingualism defined it as equal fluency in two languages, often framing bilinguals as "two monolinguals in one body" (Grosjean, 1989). However, more recent perspectives consider bilingualism as dynamic, context-dependent, and shaped by sociocultural factors (Romaine, 2012; Bhatia & Ritchie, 2013).

More recent frameworks move beyond these dualistic views. García (2009) and Heller (2007) advanced the notion of dynamic bilingualism, positioning language use as fluid and socially constructed. Wigdorowitz (2022) highlights how multilingual identity and language profiling are influenced by sociocultural contexts, suggesting that bilingual individuals navigate complex linguistic environments that affect their language use and proficiency. This shift underpins the current study's approach: bilingual faculty and administrators do not merely toggle between English and Arabic but mobilize their full linguistic repertoires in flexible ways across contexts. In educational settings, this perspective implies that faculty and administrators may develop distinct bilingual profiles based on their specific roles and interactions within the institution. Faculty members often engage in academic discourse and research activities that may require higher proficiency in a second language, while administrators might focus on operational communication, potentially leading to different language use patterns. This approach aligns with the need to assess bilingualism not merely as a skill but as an integral part of one's professional identity and daily practices within higher education institutions. From a profiling standpoint, these studies collectively support the idea that language use, proficiency, and cognitive engagement form part of an individual's bilingual profile—a concept operationalized in this study through the Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) tool.

As bilingualism is increasingly viewed as a lived practice rather than a fixed trait, tools like the BLP become essential in mapping the nuanced bilingual experiences of professionals across different institutional roles. This conceptual shift supports the aim to not just measure bilingual competence among staff, but understand how institutional roles affect bilingual practices—not just in terms of ability, but in how language is mobilized for different purposes in their respective work domains.

2.2.3 Language Use and Policy in Higher Education

Understanding the interplay between language policies and actual language use is essential for identifying the factors that contribute to differences in bilingual language profiles among faculty and administrators. These policies can be explicit, such as official language requirements for instruction and communication, or implicit, reflecting institutional attitudes and cultural norms. The implementation of such policies influences how different groups within the institution adopt and adapt to bilingual practices.

In her research work on "Language Policy: Hidden Agendas and New Approaches", Elana Shohamy (2006), critically examines the covert mechanisms shaping language use and policy, revealing how language laws, educational policies, and tests manipulate societal norms and marginalize groups. Drawing on examples from the U.S., Israel, and the U.K., the study argues for a more democratic approach to language policy that acknowledges the dynamic nature of language as a tool for expression and identity. It emphasizes the need for activism to protect linguistic rights and suggests that current policies often serve to reinforce dominant ideologies, undermining personal freedoms. The work calls for inclusive, flexible policies that reflect the realities of multilingual societies. The research was conducted on how language policies impact bilingual students in higher education. It included universities located in regions with high linguistic diversity and involved reviews of institutional language policies and interviews with students. The results showed that inclusive language policies led to greater student retention, increased academic satisfaction, and a positive learning environment for bilingual students. Conversely, restrictive language policies were associated with lower student engagement and satisfaction. Shohamy concluded that higher education institutions need to develop and implement policies that recognize and include students' linguistic backgrounds. Recommendations included adopting language

policies that promote the use of students' home languages alongside the dominant language of instruction. This, in turn, would support bilingual students in achieving better academic outcomes and feeling more included.

Askarbek Mambetaliev (2023) notes that policies—overt or covert—shape attitudes and create power hierarchies, favoring dominant languages like English, even in multilingual or multicultural settings. The study by Mambetaliev examines the implementation and impact of language policy (LP) in Kyrgyzstan, highlighting the tension between overt and covert policies. It reveals that Kyrgyz is the state language, yet Russian dominates in urban areas, particularly Bishkek, leading to language discrimination and identity confusion among students. The research involved 768 respondents, including 511 students, and utilized triangulation of data from legislative documents and expert interviews. Key findings indicate that rural students are more likely to use Kyrgyz, while urban students favor Russian, reflecting socio-demographic influences. The study recommends developing inclusive LPs that recognize linguistic diversity to foster national identity and cohesion.

Language policy and planning (LPP) are not just top-down impositions but discursive accomplishments, negotiated across institutional, societal, and individual levels (Liddicoat, 2022). In "Language Policy and Planning as a Discursive Accomplishment", Anthony J. Liddicoat explores how language policies shape linguistic ecologies and perceptions of linguistic diversity. He critiques traditional LPP research's focus on government actions, advocating for a broader understanding that includes macro, meso, and micro levels of decision-making. The study highlights the normalization of monolingualism, exemplified by historical policies in Spain and Turkey, and discusses the hierarchies of value in language education, where dominant languages are prioritized over minority languages. Liddicoat calls for more ecologically oriented research to

address the complexities of language policies and their impacts on multilingualism, emphasizing the need for policies that genuinely value linguistic diversity.

Hornberger and Link (2012), studied the effectiveness of dual-language programs in higher education, emphasizing the integration of multiple languages in the curriculum. The study utilized surveys and interviews with both students and faculty involved in dual-language programs. The findings indicated that dual-language programs contributed to higher language proficiency and promoted equality among students from different linguistic backgrounds. These programs not only improved students' academic performance but also facilitated their social interactions and integration into the educational environment. The researchers recommended that universities expand dual-language offerings to provide better educational opportunities for bilingual students. The study emphasized that such programs should be tailored to ensure that students gain practical language skills applicable to their field of study. Hornberger and Link also suggested incorporating dual-language practices into more disciplines beyond language studies.

Shohamy (2006) advocates for policies that actively incorporate linguistic diversity in classrooms. Hornberger and Link (2012) further extend this by promoting dual-language programs, emphasizing that such programs ensure equality and actively support bilingual students' academic and social needs, broadening the scope of institutional responsibility for bilingual education.

Lindholm-Leary, (2020) research investigates the long-term impact of two-way bilingual immersion (TWBI) programs on academic achievement. The study found that students in these programs performed comparably to or better than their peers in mainstream education in areas such as mathematics and literacy. The research highlights positive social-emotional and cultural

outcomes and recommends reinforcing such programs to support bilingual proficiency and higher academic outcomes.

Saudi higher education institutions have become complex linguistic spaces, where Arabic (L1) and English (L2) coexist under evolving policies. While Arabic holds symbolic and national importance, English is often required for academic publishing, international recognition, and administrative processes. This creates a diglossic tension in which language choice becomes a site of negotiation, particularly for bilingual professionals who must switch between formal expectations and cultural realities. Bilingualism is increasingly vital, yet fraught with institutional and ideological tensions. Suliman Alnasser (2018) observed that faculty in English departments alternate between Arabic and English for pragmatic and identity-related reasons, navigating implicit language policies and gendered norms. The study by Alnasser investigates language use beliefs among male ($n=67$) and female ($n=143$) staff in Saudi English departments, revealing minimal gender differences. Utilizing quantitative (online survey) and qualitative methods, it found only one statistically significant difference in beliefs regarding language use ($p=0.047$). Both genders largely agreed on the necessity of using English for linguistic proficiency, with 62.24% of females and 50.64% of males strongly agreeing. The findings suggest that despite existing literature indicating significant gender differences in educational contexts, Saudi English department staff share similar beliefs, likely due to their elite educational backgrounds. Future research should explore the implications of these findings for language policy development. These findings echo challenges in other international contexts, such as Colombia, where Granados Beltrán (2013) identified tensions between institutional language goals and on-the-ground realities in implementing bilingual programs.

This theme considers how institutional language policies shape practice. Shohamy (2006) showed that inclusive policies lead to improved academic satisfaction and engagement, while restrictive ones hinder success. Hornberger and Link (2012) extended these insights by advocating dual-language programs, which foster equality and improve academic and social integration. Lindholm-Leary (2020) found that dual-language and two-way immersion programs increase literacy and achievement across disciplines. Alnasser (2018) found that English is used administratively and in academic meetings, while Arabic remains dominant in social and cultural interactions. His study also highlighted gendered differences and revealed implicit policies guiding language choice, often rooted in social expectations rather than formal directives.

Despite growing pressures toward English-medium instruction, studies consistently show that bilingual faculty and staff balance professional demands with personal and cultural language affiliations. The current study builds on this line of inquiry by comparing bilingual practices across professional roles — a dimension underexplored in Saudi contexts.

2.2.4. Language Attitudes, Motivation, and Translanguaging

In Saudi universities, translanguaging has emerged as a common, yet informal, practice. It allows bilingual professionals to strategically combine Arabic and English depending on the context, audience, and purpose. Translanguaging is not merely switching between languages but constructing meaning through an integrated, holistic linguistic repertoire. García (2009) and Canagarajah (2011) emphasize that translanguaging empowers speakers to navigate linguistic hierarchies and make sense of their bilingual worlds in nuanced, situationally appropriate ways.

Language choice is rarely neutral. It is influenced by attitudes, motivation, social prestige, and perceptions of identity. Mona Alshihry (2023) revealed that younger generations in Saudi Arabia express more favorable attitudes toward English and multilingualism, while older staff

often emphasize Arabic for cultural and identity preservation. This study by Alshihry investigates language attitudes towards native and non-native accents in multilingual communities, highlighting significant generational differences. Utilizing quantitative methods, it reveals that younger individuals (Group A, ages 18-30) exhibit more favorable views to dominant languages (Language 1) linked to globalization, while older participants (Group C, ages 51-70) maintain strong ties to their native languages (Language 2). Statistical analysis showed significant differences in attitudes regarding Language 2 ($p=0.027$) but not for Language 3 ($p=0.072$). The findings underscore the need for promoting linguistic diversity and inclusivity, suggesting that community initiatives should engage multiple age groups to enhance intergenerational language transmission and cultural heritage preservation.

David Lasagabaster (2017) similarly showed in the Spanish context that student motivation to learn multiple languages is shaped by the dominance of English, even when regional languages hold official status. Lasagabaster's article examines language learning motivation and attitudes in multilingual Spain, focusing on regions like Catalonia and the Basque Autonomous Community (BAC), where over 40% of the population is bilingual. The study highlights the impact of historical repression of minority languages, the rise of English as a global lingua franca, and the increasing presence of immigrant students. Findings indicate that educational models significantly influence students' language attitudes; for instance, 83% of pre-university students in the BAC are enrolled in bilingual programs. The article advocates for fostering a cosmopolitan self in language education to enhance motivation and integration, emphasizing the need for further research on multilingualism and language policy effectiveness.

"Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education" by Ofelia García and Li Wei (2014) explores the evolving understanding of bilingualism and its implications for education. It

critiques traditional models like subtractive and additive bilingualism, advocating for a dynamic approach termed "translanguaging", which emphasizes the fluid use of a speaker's entire linguistic repertoire. The authors argue that educational systems should recognize and leverage students' diverse language practices to enhance learning and promote social justice. They provide examples of how translanguaging can transform pedagogical practices, fostering critical literacy and enabling students to navigate complex linguistic landscapes in increasingly multilingual societies. The work underscores the need for educational frameworks that embrace this complexity rather than enforce rigid language separations. In their study, Garcia and Wei (2014), explored the advantages of using translanguaging strategies in higher education to support bilingual students. They focused on bilingual university students who used multiple languages in their academic settings. Through case studies and classroom observations, the study found that translanguaging not only enhanced students' understanding but also promoted active participation and engagement. This approach allowed students to access knowledge in a way that was culturally and linguistically meaningful to them. The findings suggested that translanguaging can bridge the gap between students' home languages and academic content. The researchers recommended that higher education institutions integrate translanguaging as a teaching strategy to better accommodate the needs of bilingual students and foster inclusive learning environments. The study emphasized the importance of adapting educational practices to embrace linguistic diversity for better student outcomes.

Catherine Mazak and Herbas-Donoso, (2014) study explores the concept of translanguaging and its application in higher education settings, focusing on science teaching. The research utilizes qualitative methodologies to capture classroom interactions where students switch between languages, enhancing their understanding of complex subjects. Results indicate that

translanguaging supports better engagement and comprehension. Recommendations emphasize integrating translanguaging strategies into curricula to promote inclusivity and cognitive development.

Perez Garcia's research, in 2020, focused on the effect of bilingual identity on classroom interactions in higher education. Through ethnographic methods, including interviews and classroom observations, the study aimed to uncover how bilingual students' identities influenced their participation in academic settings. The findings showed that bilingual students were more likely to engage in discussions when their linguistic identity was acknowledged and respected. The study recommended universities create inclusive environments that celebrate linguistic diversity and validate students' bilingual identities to encourage greater classroom participation. This practice can lead to a richer learning experience and better academic outcomes.

Hernandez's study, in 2022, evaluated the effectiveness of bilingual mentorship programs in higher education through surveys and interviews with participants. The findings showed that students involved in bilingual mentorship programs experienced higher academic achievement and retention rates. These mentorships not only provided academic guidance but also fostered a sense of community and support among students. Hernandez concluded that bilingual mentorship is a crucial factor in supporting academic success and recommended that universities scale up such programs. The study emphasized the positive outcomes of having mentors who can relate to students' linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

A growing body of research, including Garcia & Wei (2014) and Mazak & Herbas-Donoso (2014), advocates for translanguaging as a pedagogical and cognitive tool on students' comprehension. But Garcia and Wei focus more broadly on how it enhances engagement in various academic subjects, while Mazak & Herbas-Donoso (2014) specifically investigates its role in

STEM classrooms, where code-switching appears to bridge linguistic gaps in complex topics. These practices support the idea that bilingualism isn't about rigid language separation but about flexible communication, especially in complex academic environments. Grosjean's and Li's cognitive studies indirectly support this, showing how bilingual brains manage linguistic resources fluidly. Perez (2020) and Hernandez (2022) added that when linguistic identities are recognized in class, students engage more confidently. Scherzinger and Brahm (2023) emphasize that educator competence in bilingual settings requires not just language skill, but also reflective attitudes, cultural sensitivity, and the ability to integrate multiple identities in practice. Guerini (2007) found that in multilingual Ghana, students admired English proficiency for its association with power and mobility, often devaluing indigenous languages—even among native speakers. This mirrors patterns in Saudi Arabia, where English often symbolizes professional advancement, while Arabic embodies cultural identity.

Unlike older models that treat languages as separate systems, translanguaging aligns with the lived realities of educators in multilingual settings, including Saudi higher education. Here, bilingual faculty and administrators often merge Arabic and English fluidly—not as code-switching, but as a natural communicative strategy that fosters participation, comprehension, and solidarity across professional roles. The concept of translanguaging, rooted in García's (2009) work, supports a shift from viewing bilingualism as parallel language use to fluid meaning-making across linguistic resources. This resonates with how both faculty and staff in this study may naturally blend Arabic and English in contextually appropriate ways.

2.2.5 Other Studies on Bilingual Education

In 2017, Chavez and Miller's explored how university faculty perceive bilingualism and the challenges they face in incorporating it into their teaching. The research included surveys and

structured interviews with instructors teaching in both bilingual and monolingual courses. The results showed that while many teachers appreciated the advantages of bilingualism, they struggled with adapting their course materials to accommodate bilingual students effectively. The study highlighted the need for specialized training and resources to support teachers in bilingual education. The authors recommended that universities invest in professional development programs that help educators deliver content more inclusively and effectively.

The study by Gonzalez and Turner (2021), investigated the role of bilingualism in collaborative learning within university classrooms. Using case studies and teamwork workshops, the researchers explored how bilingual students interacted and collaborated with peers. The study found that bilingual students played a crucial role in fostering better communication and understanding within diverse teams. These students often acted as bridges, facilitating the exchange of ideas and reducing cultural and linguistic barriers. The researchers suggested that universities should design more bilingual collaborative projects and learning activities to leverage the unique skills of bilingual students. This approach could strengthen teamwork and enrich learning outcomes for all students.

Meyer's study, in 2015, aimed to understand the impact of bilingual education on student engagement within higher education. Using a mixed-methods approach that included surveys and focus groups, the study gathered data from students enrolled in bilingual programs. The results revealed that these students reported higher motivation and active participation compared to their monolingual peers. The research highlighted that bilingual education could be an effective tool for enhancing student engagement. Meyer recommended universities consider integrating more bilingual teaching practices to foster a more inclusive learning environment. The findings suggested that such educational strategies can boost both academic interest and performance.

Aiello et al. (2017) set out to explore the language competence of Italian CLIL (Content and Language Integrated Learning) teachers and how this competence is currently assessed. Their study focuses on a specific case: one language testing session involving the first group of prospective CLIL teachers, in which the authors actively participated as organizers, decision-makers, and observers. The paper begins by situating CLIL teacher training in Italy within the broader educational policies set by the European Union and the Italian Ministry of Education. It then examines the detailed decision-making process used to evaluate the language proficiency of aspiring CLIL teachers in Southern Italy, particularly in relation to the use of the foreign language as a medium of instruction. The study goes on to present the findings from this evaluation, using both survey responses and observational data. It highlights key characteristics of the participating teachers, such as their willingness to communicate in the target language and discrepancies between their self-perceived and actual language proficiency. Differences among various subgroups are also discussed. By integrating insights from policy, test design, and evaluation results, the study offers practical recommendations for improving the training of CLIL teachers in Italy and potentially in similar educational settings elsewhere.

In 2021, Lightbown and Spada explored the impact of bilingual learning environments on second language acquisition. The study employed longitudinal analysis and classroom observations, comparing students in bilingual programs with those in monolingual programs. The findings indicated that students in bilingual environments had better language learning outcomes, demonstrating faster language acquisition and retention. The authors argued that bilingual education provided students with more comprehensive language skills that supported their academic success. The study recommended that higher education institutions integrate bilingual

strategies into various academic disciplines to facilitate language learning and development. This would not only benefit language proficiency but also promote academic achievement.

2.3 Summary

The concept of "Communities of Practice" (CoPs) has become increasingly significant in sociolinguistics and education, especially in exploring the dynamic interactions between individuals, language, and social groups. Meyerhoff and Strycharz (2013) highlight the importance of focusing on CoPs instead of treating individuals as isolated entities or simply members of predefined groups. These communities, defined by shared practices, values, and identities, play a crucial role in shaping individual development and influencing linguistic behaviors. In educational settings, language use and code-switching among bilingual members can serve as a means of negotiating academic content, social relationships, and cultural identity. The study of bilingual language profiles within these communities can highlight how language choices are influenced by both institutional structures (e.g., language policies) and personal factors (e.g., linguistic backgrounds).

While existing literature richly explores bilingualism, speech communities, and translanguaging, few studies explicitly compare the bilingual profiles of faculty and administrators within the same institutional settings. Moreover, most research centers on student populations or instructional challenges rather than on the professional language identities of academic staff. By considering how language is used in interactions within these groups, we are exploring how bilingual individuals navigate different linguistic expectations across various educational contexts and how they negotiate their bilingual identities. This study addresses how different communities of practice within the same institution reflect and reproduce language ideologies, and how these in turn shape professional interactions, power dynamics, and identity construction by applying

sociolinguistic theory and bilingual assessment tools in a bilingual Saudi context. By focusing on shared practices, values, and identities, researchers can gain a deeper understanding of how these communities shape individual development and influence the linguistic behaviors of their members.

Chapter Three

Methods and Procedures

Chapter Three

Methods and Procedures

3.0 Introduction

According to Howell (2012), a research methodology is a theory about the approach of conducting a scientific result, explaining its philosophical assumptions, and the selected methodology of this conduction. This chapter outlines the research methodology employed to investigate the bilingual language profiles of communities of practice in educational settings. The study aims to explore how language is used in specific bilingual environments and how members of these communities engage in communication, drawing on their linguistic resources. To achieve this, the research adopts a mixed-methods approach, combining both qualitative and quantitative techniques. The selection of participants, data collection methods, and analysis procedures are explained in detail, ensuring a clear understanding of how the research was conducted and how the findings are derived. The methodologies chosen aim to provide an in-depth understanding of the language history, language use, language proficiency, language attitudes among faculty and administrators and justify the methodology used; data collection, validity and reliability of the data, the population and sample size, and the statistical procedures to conduct the study.

3.1 Research Design

The research design is referred to as the general plan that the researcher chose to integrate the diverse study components logically and coherently, thereby making sure the research problem is addressed effectively and the research establishes a prototype for the measurement, collection, and analysis of data.

This study employs an exploratory approach using quantitative and qualitative data. This design allows for an in-depth examination of bilingual individuals' language practices and interactions within communities in educational settings. The Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) questionnaire is used as a tool to assess participants' language history, language use, language proficiency, and language attitudes providing valuable insights into their bilingual abilities. The study also utilizes semi-structured interviews to explore how language use varies across different educational settings. Through semi-structured interviews, and BLP data, the research aims to capture the dynamics of speech communities, focusing on the ways language proficiency and social factors shape educational experiences. The results comparing communities assumed CoP based on gender, profession, and discipline. This type of research seeks to uncover the complexities of bilingualism in real-world educational contexts.

3.2 Research Population and Sampling

The present research uses purposive sampling – also referred to as selective, judgmental sampling. It is a non-probability sampling wherein researchers depend on their views while choosing population members to take part in the survey. The benefit of using purposive sampling is that it helped the researcher in making the most out of a small population to research valuable investigation outcomes. (Responses collected from the population of interest for the topic under consideration will gather better insights and more accurate results (Taherdoost, 2016)). This study includes a quantitative research analysis with approximately 100 respondents from different speech communities (faculty members and administrators) with diverse educational qualifications working in educational settings in Saudi Arabia. However, a large sample size would offer more accurate statistical values, locate outliers that might skew information in a small sample, and offer a lower margin of mistakes (Memon et. Al., 2020).

3.3 Research Instruments

3.3.1 Bilingual Language Profile Questionnaire

The study used a quantitative approach. Quantitative research is a technique based on data that is measured and observed in order to evaluate literature connected to a phenomenon such as Language Use and Speech Communities. This method is useful for generating objective facts and figures that can be stated numerically and statistically. The advantage of employing a quantitative method is that the researcher may gain a more comprehensive understanding of the issue under discussion. Therefore, there were greater accuracy and objectivity, as well as time and resource savings. (Eyisi, D. 2016).

The researcher used the Bilingual Language Profile Questionnaire (BLP). The BLP Questionnaire is a standardized tool that has been developed and validated through research to ensure that it reliably measures bilingual individuals' language proficiency and usage across different contexts. However, it was slightly adapted by addition of some questions (about Role and College) to fit the aims of the study and answer the research questions. It consists of approximately 30–40 items (depending on minor adaptations), with each question targeting a specific dimension of bilingual experience. The questionnaire follows a consistent format and scoring system, allowing for comparisons across different participants and studies based on responses in four main dimensions: language history, language use, language proficiency, and language attitudes (Birdsong, Gertken, & Amengual, 2012). Questions of two sections use 6-point Likert scales (e.g., from "Not well at all" to "very well," or "Disagree" to "Agree") to capture degree or frequency of language proficiency and attitude (Self-rated proficiency in speaking, listening, reading, and writing; and exploring emotional and cultural identification with each language).

Some questions in one section require selecting the percentages of language use with friends, family, self and at work (Measuring the frequency of language use across different contexts). The fourth section includes number of years using each language (language history: Assessing early exposure and acquisition ages). There are a few basic demographic items (e.g., age, role, college, gender and level of education) at the beginning of the questionnaire (*See Appendix I*).

It is used to assess an individual's language proficiency and usage in multiple languages. It collects information about a person's language history, current language skills, and language use in different contexts, such as at home, work, or in social settings. The BLP is often used in research and clinical settings to better understand bilingual individuals' language abilities, helping to inform decisions in areas like education, healthcare, and cognitive studies. It also provides a comprehensive overview of how a person navigates their bilingualism.

3.3.2 Interviews

A qualitative approach for this research study focuses on exploring the nuanced, lived experiences of bilingual individuals within specific educational communities. Through methods such as interviews, the study gathers rich, in-depth data about how bilingual speech communities' members navigate their languages in various academic and social contexts. This approach allows for a deeper understanding of the cultural and social dynamics within speech communities, shedding light on how language practices evolve, are negotiated, and influence the educational experiences of participants.

In this study, semi-structured interview questions allow flexibility while ensuring key topics are covered. These questions are designed to guide conversation while giving participants the freedom to elaborate on their experiences. Examples of such questions might include: "Can

you share how your language choices vary depending on the context within the college?", "What factors influence your decision to speak one language over another?", "How do you feel your bilingualism affects your relationships with peers or faculty/administrators?", "What role does language play in forming your identity within the college community?". These open-ended questions encourage participants to reflect on their bilingual experiences, offering insights into their language use. They encourage rich, detailed responses, enabling the researcher to capture the complexities of language use and community dynamics within educational settings, while also allowing for unanticipated insights to emerge during the interviews.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

The data for this study were collected through the administration of the Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) questionnaire (Birdsong, Gertken, & Amengual, 2012). The BLP was selected for its reliability and flexibility in measuring bilingual language profiles across multiple dimensions, including language history, use, proficiency, and attitudes. The target participants were 99 faculty members and administrative staff from two colleges (Health Sciences and Law). They were selected based on their professional roles in higher education settings and their bilingual background in Arabic and English.

This survey questionnaire was distributed electronically (via Google Forms) to participants, ensuring easy accessibility. An informed consent statement was provided at the beginning of the questionnaire, clarifying the purpose of the study, voluntary participation, anonymity, and confidentiality assurances. Data collection took place over a period of two months through which follow-up reminders were sent to encourage participation and maximize response rates. All data are kept confidential and used solely for academic purposes (*See Appendix I*).

Semi-structured interviews are conducted with a number of the BLP respondents to ensure accuracy of data provided. Interviews were audio-recorded with participants' consent and transcribed to identify patterns and nuances in language practices across different contexts within the educational setting (*See Appendix 2*).

3.5 Data Analysis and Statistical Tools

Data analysis primarily focuses on The Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) questionnaire data. It is analyzed descriptively to capture participants' language proficiency and usage across different contexts. Descriptive statistical tools such as frequencies and percentages are employed to summarize BLP responses, offering a quantitative snapshot of participants' bilingual profiles. After completing the questionnaire, each item is assessed independently to provide a score for each item, and then as a set of items. Responses are typically numerically coded. Scores from each of the four dimensions are analyzed separately then combined to generate an overall bilingualism profile. The data collected using the survey was analyzed using Excel and SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 29, by using the following methods: The distribution of variables was checked and calculated using descriptive analysis. We have used the independent sample t-test (Unpaired T-test), and the Mann-Whitney U test since there are two groups with a non-normal distribution. The Mann-Whitney U test is a non-parametric version of the unpaired t-test. P value of ≤ 0.05 is considered statistically significant.

Given the exploratory nature of the study, thematic analysis is used to examine the interview transcripts, identifying recurring patterns, themes, and insights related to language practices, social interactions, and bilingual identity within the educational settings. The combination of qualitative coding and descriptive statistics provides a comprehensive understanding of bilingualism in speech communities within educational environments.

3.6 Summary

In this chapter, the research methodology is designed to examine the bilingual language practices within communities of practice in educational settings. A combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is used to capture the multifaceted nature of language use in these settings. Participant selection is based on purposeful sampling of bilingual individuals involved in educational communities. Data is collected through BLP questionnaire and interviews to gain comprehensive insights into language practices. The analysis employs both statistical analysis for quantitative data and thematic coding for qualitative data, allowing for a nuanced interpretation of how language use reflects identity, power dynamics, and educational goals. This methodological framework ensures that the study captures the complexities of bilingualism within the context of education.

Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion

Chapter 4

Findings and Discussion

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents and interprets the findings of the study on the bilingual language use within Communities of Practice in educational settings in light of the research questions and relevant literature. The primary aim was to investigate how bilingual language profiles differ between faculty members and administrative staff within higher education institutions, and what factors contribute to these differences (if any). The data was gathered using the Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) tool and analyzed to determine patterns of language dominance, language use, and language preferences in various educational contexts (See Appendix 1). It also draws on qualitative data collected through open-ended responses to questions about language use, decision-making, relationships, and identity. The findings are examined within the theoretical framework of Communities of Practice (CoP) and Dell Hymes' theory of communicative competence, drawing comparisons with related studies in Saudi educational settings.

4.1 Findings and Discussion

4.1.1 Participant Profile

This study included 99 participants from two primary colleges—Health Sciences (47.5%) and Law (52.5%). The gender distribution was predominantly female (85.9%), with male participants making up 14.1%. The participants were nearly evenly divided between administrative staff (56.6%) and faculty members (43.4%). (*See Tabel 4.1*)

Table 4.4 Frequency Distribution of the Sample Population

Criteria	Frequency	Percentage
College		
Health Sciences	47	47.5
Law	52	52.5
Gender		
Male	14	14.1
Female	85	85.9
Role		
Administrative Staff	56	56.6
Faculty Staff	43	43.4

The frequency distribution table provides insightful demographic and academic information about the sample population. It reveals that the majority of participants are female (85 out of 99), indicating a strong female presence within the studied institution.

Regarding professional roles, administrative staff make up a slightly larger portion (56) compared to faculty staff (43), which may reflect either the organizational structure of the institution or the focus of the study itself.

Additionally, the participants are relatively evenly distributed between the health sciences (47) and law (52) colleges, ensuring representation from both scientific and legal academic disciplines. Overall, Table 4.1 demonstrates a female-dominated, administratively focused sample with a solid academic background primarily at the bachelor's level, which could influence the interpretation of findings depending on the research context.

4.1.2 Descriptive Overview of Bilingual Language Profile

The descriptive statistics in Table 4.2 below suggest a relatively young, bilingual population with moderate-to-high proficiency and positive language attitudes toward both English and Arabic.

Table 4.2 Descriptive Overview of Bilingual Language Profile

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Age	98	23	48	31.87	6.609
Language Use	99	.00	1500.00	743.0303	314.14105
Language proficiency	99	.00	48.00	35.5758	12.72960
Language attitudes	99	.00	48.00	32.8687	11.84565

4.1.2.1 Average Number of Years in Different Language Environments

The Table 4.3 below presents the average number of years individuals have spent in different language environments, offering a clear picture of their linguistic exposure.

Table 4.3 Average Number of Years in Different Language Environments

Category	Average (Years)
Years in an Arabic-speaking country/region	17.8
Years in an English-speaking family	1.6
Years in an Arabic-speaking family	17.9
Years working/studying in an English setting	3.5
Years working/studying in an Arabic setting	10.2

It shows that participants have spent the majority of their lives in Arabic-speaking contexts, with an average of 17.8 years in Arabic-speaking countries or regions and 17.9 years in Arabic-speaking families, reflecting deep-rooted immersion in Arabic as a native or dominant language. In contrast, exposure to English-speaking environments is significantly lower, with only 1.6 years on average in English-speaking families, suggesting limited early-life familial interaction in English. However, the average years spent working or studying in English settings rises to 3.5, indicating increased exposure during academic or professional stages. Meanwhile, working or studying in Arabic settings averages 10.2 years, reinforcing the strong presence of Arabic in both personal and professional aspects of participants' lives. Overall, the data highlights a predominantly Arabic linguistic background, with moderate professional and educational engagement in English environments.

4.1.2.2 Average Percentage of Language Use

The average percentage of language use across different social contexts is presented in Table 4.4, highlighting the dominance of Arabic in participants' daily interactions.

Table 4.4 Average Percentage of Language Use

Context	Arabic (%)	English (%)	Other Languages (%)
With friends	72.3	38.7	12.5
With family	88.6	24.3	7.2
At work/school	75.6	52.2	5.3

Arabic is the most frequently used language in all settings, particularly with family (88.6%) and with friends (72.3%), demonstrating its central role in both personal and social life. At work or school, Arabic use remains high at 75.6%, but English shows a notable presence with 52.2%,

indicating a more bilingual or multilingual environment in professional and academic settings. English is also used to a lesser extent with friends (38.7%) and with family (24.3%), reflecting some degree of informal exposure outside structured environments. The use of other languages remains minimal across all contexts, peaking slightly with friends (12.5%), which may suggest occasional interaction in additional languages, possibly due to diverse social circles. Overall, the data emphasizes Arabic as the primary language across all domains, with English serving a significant secondary role, especially in educational and professional settings.

4.1.2.3 Talking to Oneself & Counting

The table 4.5 provides insights into internal language use, specifically in the contexts of self-talk and counting, revealing interesting patterns of mental language preference.

Table 4.5 Talking to Oneself & Counting

Activity	Arabic (%)	English (%)	Other Languages (%)
Talking to oneself	63.7	39.8	6.1
Counting	69.2	36.5	3.7

Arabic is the dominant language in both activities, with 63.7% of participants talking to themselves in Arabic and 69.2% counting in Arabic, reflecting the strong internalization of the mother tongue. English also plays a notable role, especially in self-talk (39.8%), suggesting that some participants may switch between languages depending on context, thought content, or emotional state. For counting, English is used by 36.5%, which may indicate academic or work-related influence where English is commonly used in numerical or analytical tasks. The use of other languages is minimal—6.1% in self-talk and 3.7% in counting—implying limited mental

engagement with languages beyond Arabic and English. Overall, the data highlights a clear dominance of Arabic in private, cognitive functions, with English serving as a secondary but significant language, especially in internal dialogue and mental processing.

4.1.2.4 Language Proficiency Levels (Scale: 1–6)

The table below illustrates self-reported language proficiency levels in Arabic and English across four key language skills—speaking, listening, reading, and writing—on a scale from 1 to 6.

Table 4.6 Language Proficiency Levels (Scale: 1–6)

Skill	Arabic	English
Speaking	6.0	4.6
Listening	6.0	5.0
Reading	6.0	4.7
Writing	6.0	4.2

Arabic proficiency is consistently at the maximum level (6.0) across all skills, indicating native-level fluency and full mastery in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. In contrast, English proficiency scores are slightly lower, with the highest being listening (5.0) and the lowest writing (4.2). This suggests that while participants have a strong command of English, particularly in receptive skills (listening and reading), their productive skills (speaking and writing) are comparatively weaker—though still well-developed. The overall pattern reflects a bilingual profile where Arabic is the dominant language, and English is a proficient second language, especially in contexts that may demand comprehension and verbal interaction more than formal writing.

4.1.2.5 Language Identity and Belonging (Scale: 1–6)

Table 4.7 illustrates the significant difference in language identity and belonging between Arabic and English.

Table 4.7 Language Identity and Belonging (Scale: 1–6)

Statement	Arabic	English
I feel like myself when speaking this language	5.8	3.8
I belong to a culture that speaks this language	5.9	3.4
I want others to see me as a native speaker of this language	5.7	3.2
It's important for me to speak it like a native speaker	5.9	3.5

Participants strongly identify with Arabic, as evidenced by high scores in all statements, such as feeling like themselves when speaking Arabic (5.8), belonging to a culture that speaks Arabic (5.9), and wanting to be seen as a native speaker (5.7). This reflects a deep-rooted connection to the Arabic language and culture. In contrast, English scores are considerably lower across all areas, with participants feeling less connected to the language and culture, as shown by a score of only 3.8 for feeling like themselves when speaking English and 3.4 for cultural belonging. These results suggest that while English is important for communication and professional purposes, Arabic remains the dominant language in terms of personal identity and cultural affiliation.

4.1.2.6 Language Acquisition Timeline (Years)

There are significant differences in the language acquisition timeline between English and Arabic as represented in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Language Acquisition Timeline (Years)

Metric	English	Arabic	Difference
Mean Age Started	7.2	0.8*	+6.4
Median Age Started	6	0 (birth)	+6
Range Started	1-19	0-10	-
Mean Comfort Age	12.1	5.4	+6.7
Never Comfort (%)	8%	0%	+8%

*Most Arabic learners started at birth (coded as 0)

Arabic is typically acquired at birth (mean age of 0.8 years), while English is usually learned later, starting at an average age of 7.2 years, resulting in a 6.4-year difference. This early exposure to Arabic leads to a higher comfort level, with the mean age of comfort for Arabic being 5.4 years, compared to 12.1 years for English, showing that individuals are more comfortable with Arabic at a younger age. Additionally, 8% of participants report never feeling comfortable with English, while none report this for Arabic, emphasizing the stronger sense of familiarity and ease with Arabic.

4.1.2.7 Formal Education Exposure

The following table compares formal education exposure to English and Arabic classes in terms of the number of years spent learning each language.

Table 4.9 Formal Education Exposure

Statistic	English Classes	Arabic Classes	Difference
Mean Years	10.8	14.2	-3.4
Median Years	10	15	-5
Range	1-20+	1-20+	-
>15 Years (%)	32%	58%	-26%

The mean number of years spent in English classes is 10.8, whereas for Arabic, it is 14.2, resulting in a difference of -3.4 years, indicating that participants have spent more time learning Arabic. The median years for English classes are 10, while for Arabic, it is 15, showing a greater concentration of years spent on Arabic education. The range for both languages is similar, spanning from 1 to 20+ years, suggesting variability in the duration of exposure for both languages. Additionally, 32% of participants have studied English for over 15 years, while 58% have studied Arabic for the same duration, highlighting that Arabic education is more prevalent in the sample, with a 26% higher exposure to Arabic compared to English.

4.1.2.8 Immersion Experience

Table 4.10 outlines the immersion experience of participants in English-speaking and Arabic-speaking regions, highlighting the extent of language exposure.

Table 4.10 Immersion Experience

Metric	English-Speaking Regions	Arabic-Speaking Regions
Mean Years	3.1	17.8
Zero Exposure (%)	42%	2%
>5 Years Exposure (%)	18%	84%

On average, participants have spent 3.1 years in English-speaking regions, compared to 17.8 years in Arabic-speaking regions, indicating a significantly higher level of immersion in Arabic-speaking environments. A substantial 42% of participants report having zero exposure to English-speaking regions, while only 2% report the same for Arabic-speaking regions, suggesting that Arabic immersion is much more common. Furthermore, 18% of participants have had more

than 5 years of exposure to English-speaking regions, while 84% have had over 5 years of exposure to Arabic-speaking regions, emphasizing the dominant role of Arabic immersion in participants' lives.

4.1.2.9 Key Correlations

The table below highlights important correlations between various factors influencing comfort with English.

Table 4.11 Key Correlations

Relationship	r-value	Significance
Earlier English Start ↔ More Comfort	-0.62	p<0.01
More English Classes ↔ Higher Comfort	+0.58	p<0.01
Immersion ↔ Comfort (English)	+0.71	p<0.001

The negative correlation between an earlier start in learning English and comfort with English ($r = -0.62$, $p < 0.01$) suggests that starting English at an earlier age may not necessarily lead to greater comfort, possibly due to the challenges associated with early exposure to a second language. In contrast, the positive correlation between more English classes and higher comfort with English ($r = +0.58$, $p < 0.01$) indicates that formal education in English significantly improves comfort with the language, showing that structured learning contributes to fluency and ease. However, the most striking result is the strong positive correlation between immersion in English-speaking regions and comfort with English ($r = +0.71$, $p < 0.001$), which emphasizes the powerful impact of real-world exposure to English-speaking environments in enhancing language comfort. Overall, the findings suggest that while an early start in learning English might not be as beneficial,

extended exposure through formal education and immersion plays a crucial role in increasing comfort and fluency with the language.

4.1.2.10 Language Acquisition

Table 4.12 presents data on language acquisition for both English and Arabic, focusing on the age when individuals started learning the languages and when they felt comfortable using them.

Table 4.12 Language Acquisition

Metric	English	Arabic
Age Started Learning	Mean: 7.6 years	Most: "Since birth"
	Range: 1–19 years	
Age Felt Comfortable	Mean: 12.5 years	Mean: 5.8 years
	Range: 2–20+	Range: 1–20+

For English, the average age participants began learning is 7.6 years, with a wide range from 1 to 19 years, indicating that English is typically introduced during childhood or later, but there is considerable variation. In contrast, Arabic is learned much earlier, with many participants learning it "since birth," indicating its role as a native or first language. Regarding comfort levels, participants felt comfortable with English at an average age of 12.5 years, with a range from 2 to 20+ years, suggesting that comfort with English is achieved later and might take a longer time due to its secondary status for most participants. For Arabic, participants felt comfortable much earlier, with a mean age of 5.8 years, and a similar range of 1 to 20+ years, indicating that Arabic becomes a language of comfort much sooner for most individuals due to early and extensive exposure.

4.1.2.11 Paired T-test Results (English vs. Arabic)

The paired t-test results comparing English and Arabic reveal several significant differences across key variables. (See Tabel 4.13)

Table 4.13 Paired T-test Results (English vs. Arabic)

Variable	P-value	Statistical Significance ($\alpha = 0.05$)
Age of onset	< 0.001	Significant
Years of formal education	0.003	Significant
Self-rated speaking proficiency	0.12	Not significant

The age of onset for learning these two languages shows a highly significant difference, with a p-value of < 0.001, indicating that participants typically start learning English much later than Arabic, which is often acquired from birth. This difference reflects the natural acquisition of Arabic as the primary language in a native-speaking environment, while English is generally learned later in childhood or during formal education. Additionally, the years of formal education in each language show a p-value of 0.003, also indicating a statistically significant difference. This suggests that participants generally receive more years of formal education in Arabic, aligning with its role as the primary language of instruction and communication in many regions. However, the self-rated speaking proficiency for both languages show a p-value of 0.12, which is not statistically significant at the conventional $\alpha = 0.05$ level. This indicates that despite the differences in age of onset and formal education, participants do not perceive a significant difference in their speaking proficiency between English and Arabic, which may suggest a balance in their language abilities, or that they rate their proficiency similarly for both languages despite disparities in exposure and education. These findings highlight that while Arabic is acquired earlier and through

more formal education, the self-assessed proficiency in speaking both languages remain largely comparable.

4.1.2.12 Correlation Analysis (Pearson's r)

The correlation analysis using Pearson's r reveals important insights into the relationship between various factors and language fluency. (See Tabel 4.14)

Table 4.14 Correlation Analysis (Pearson's r)

Relationship	Correlation (r)	Statistical Significance
Years in English-speaking country $\times$ Speaking fluency	0.62	Yes ($p < 0.01$)
English use with family $\times$ Comfort in speaking	0.45	Yes ($p < 0.05$)

The relationship between the number of years spent in an English-speaking country and speaking fluency shows a correlation of 0.62, which is statistically significant ($p < 0.01$). This indicates a strong positive relationship, suggesting that the more time participants spend in English-speaking environments, the more fluent they become in speaking English. Similarly, the correlation between English use with family and comfort in speaking is 0.45, which is also statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). This implies that the more frequently participants use English with their families, the greater their comfort in speaking the language, though this relationship is moderate compared to the first one. These results highlight the importance of both immersion in English-speaking environments and family language use in enhancing comfort and fluency in speaking English.

4.2 Addressing Research Question 1:

How does the bilingual language profile differ between faculty and administrative staff?

Table 4.15 Difference between Administrative Staff and Faculty Staff

	Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language use English (in Percentage)	Administrative Staff	56	47.5357	24.56603	1.930.08	0.94
	Faculty Staff	43	47.9070	20.66492		
	Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language use Arabic (in Percentage)	Administrative Staff	56	68.9286	25.92286	0.38	0.70
	Faculty Staff	43	70.8837	24.22239		
	Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language proficiency English	Administrative Staff	56	3.9732	1.70805	0.54	0.59
	Faculty Staff	43	4.1453	1.40071		
	Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language proficiency Arabic	Administrative Staff	56	4.9107	1.79357	0.42	0.67
	Faculty Staff	43	4.7616	1.66186		
	Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language Attitude English	Administrative Staff	56	3.5134	1.60569	0.54	0.59
	Faculty Staff	43	3.6860	1.51096		
	Role	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language Attitude Arabic	Administrative Staff	56	4.6920	1.66991	0.44	0.66
	Faculty Staff	43	4.5465	1.58983		

The above table represents the insignificant difference (since P-value > 0.05) between Administrative Staff and Faculty Staff by applying a parametric measure of independent sample t-

test. Therefore, we conclude that there is no difference between Administrative Staff and Faculty Staff on all the measurements based on language use, language proficiency and language attitudes.

4.2.1 Language Use

There were no significant differences in English or Arabic language use between faculty and administrative staff:

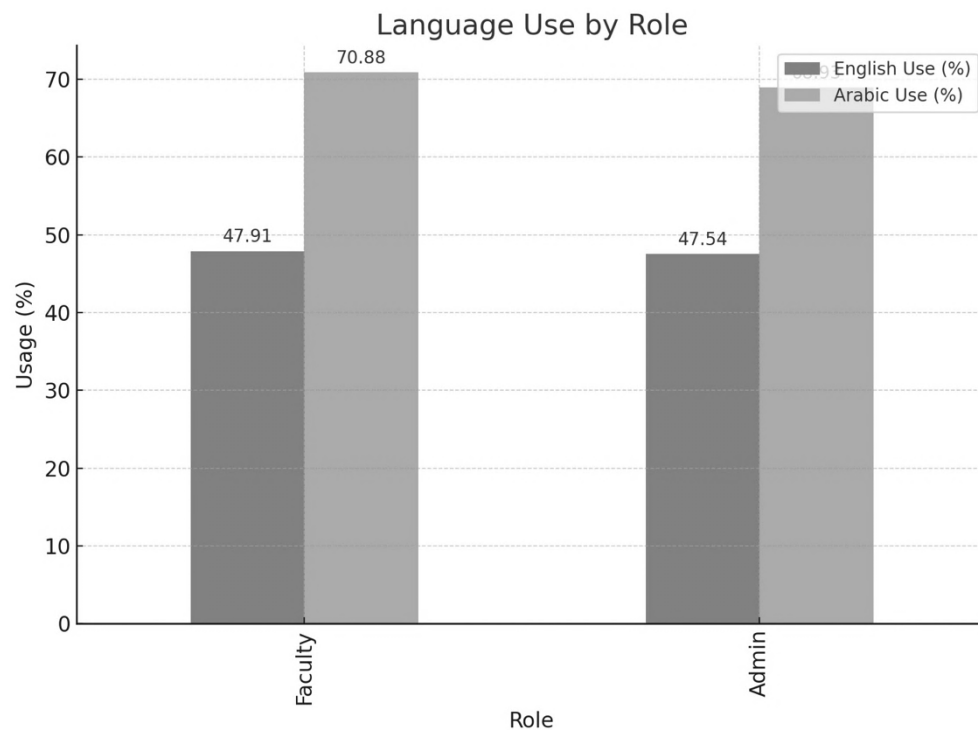


Figure 4.1 Language Use by Role

- English Use: Admin M = 47.54%, Faculty M = 47.91% ($p = 0.94$)
- Arabic Use: Admin M = 68.93%, Faculty M = 70.88% ($p = 0.70$)

Both groups exhibit similar patterns of bilingual use, which reflects the institution's broader linguistic environment. Both English and Arabic are used across administrative and academic tasks. Faculty and administrative staff use both English and Arabic at very similar rates as bilingual practices are balanced and do not significantly differ between roles.

4.2.2 Language Proficiency

Self-rated language proficiency did not significantly differ between the two roles:

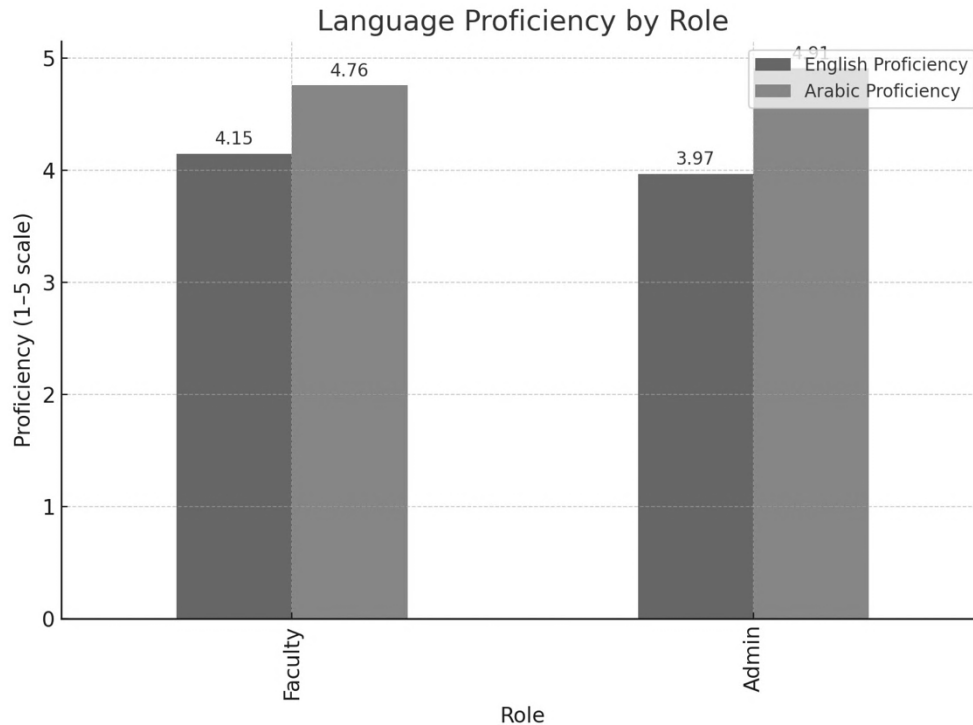


Figure 4.2 Language Proficiency by Role

- English: Admin M = 3.97, Faculty M = 4.15 ($p = 0.59$)

- Arabic: Admin M = 4.91, Faculty M = 4.76 ($p = 0.67$)

Faculty and administrative staff demonstrate comparable bilingual competence, with slightly higher proficiency in Arabic across both groups. Self-rated Arabic proficiency is slightly higher than English for both roles. Arabic remains the stronger language overall, with no significant differences between faculty and administrative staff.

4.2.3 Language Attitudes

There are no significant differences emerged in participants' attitudes toward English or Arabic:

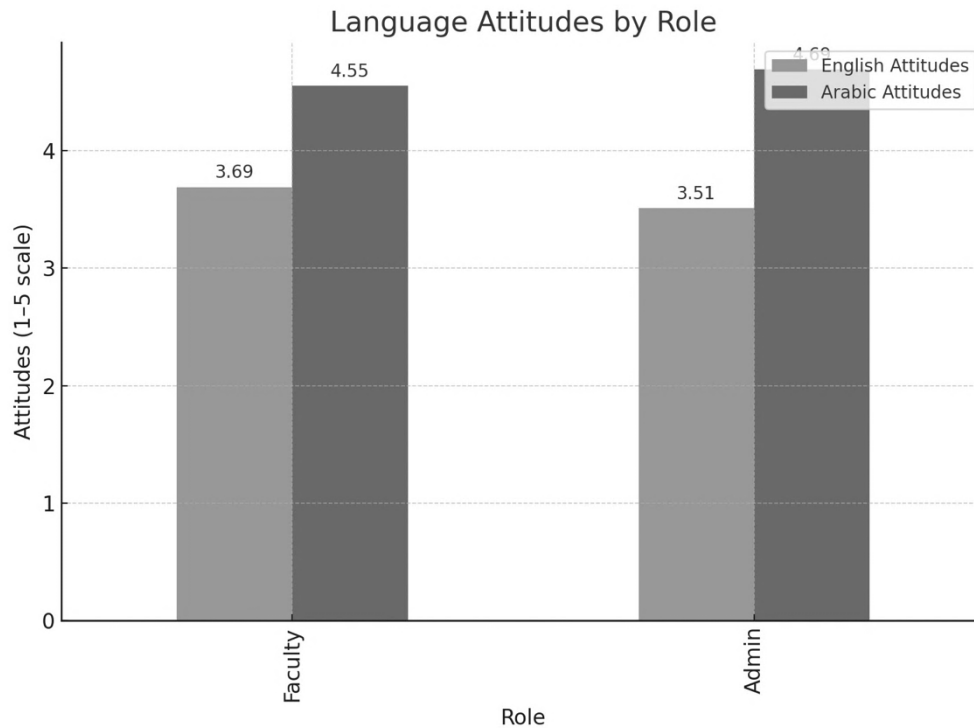


Figure 4.3 Language Attitudes by Role

- English Attitudes: Admin $M = 3.51$, Faculty $M = 3.69$ ($p = 0.59$)

- Arabic Attitudes: Admin $M = 4.69$, Faculty $M = 4.55$ ($p = 0.66$)

Attitudes toward both languages were largely positive and aligned across roles, indicating a shared bilingual identity and valuing of both linguistic resources. There is positive attitudes toward both languages, with Arabic slightly more favored. This suggests a shared linguistic and cultural identity, supporting the notion of a cohesive bilingual community.

4.3 Addressing Research Question 2:

What factors contribute to these differences (or similarities)?

4.3.1 College Specialization

By applying a parametric measure of independent sample t-test:

Table 4.16 Differences According to College Specialization

	College	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language use English (in Percentage)	Health Sciences	47	43.1064	23.76263	1.93	0.06
	Law	52	51.8462	21.36094		
	College	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language use Arabic (in Percentage)	Health Sciences	47	68.8511	28.74701	0.35	0.73
	Law	52	70.6154	21.51347		
	College	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language proficiency English	Health Sciences	47	3.6702	1.72427	2.32	0.02*
	Law	52	4.3894	1.35800		
	College	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language proficiency Arabic	Health Sciences	47	4.5904	1.98939	1.40	0.16
	Law	52	5.0769	1.43873		
	College	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language Attitude English	Health Sciences	47	3.5053	1.60966	0.50	0.62
	Law	52	3.6635	1.52502		
	College	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	T-test	P-value
Language Attitude Arabic	Health Sciences	47	4.5000	1.87010	0.75	0.46
	Law	52	4.7452	1.38399		

The above table represents the insignificant difference (since $P\text{-value} > 0.05$) between Health Sciences College and Law College. Therefore, we conclude that there is no difference between Health Science College and Law College on most measurements based on language use and language attitudes. On the other hand, there is a significant difference (since $P\text{-value} > 0.05$) on the language proficiency only.

4.3.1.1 Language Use

English usage is slightly more prevalent in the Law college, likely due to disciplinary norms and curricular emphasis. Arabic remains widely used across both colleges.

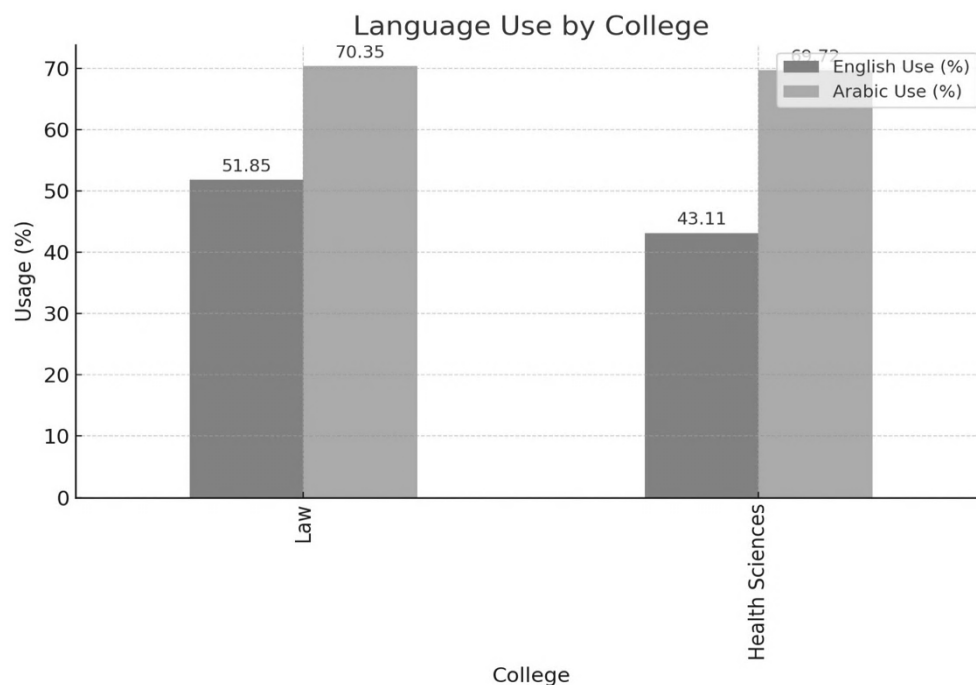


Figure 4.4 Language Use by College

- English Use: Law $M = 51.85\%$, Health Sciences $M = 43.11\%$ ($p = 0.06$)
- Arabic Use: No significant difference ($p = 0.73$)

Participants from the Law college reported higher English usage (51.85%) compared to Health Sciences (43.11%).

4.3.1.2 Language Proficiency

English holds greater importance in Law education and practice, explaining the higher proficiency levels. Law faculty and staff rated their English proficiency significantly higher, aligning with academic language expectations in legal contexts.

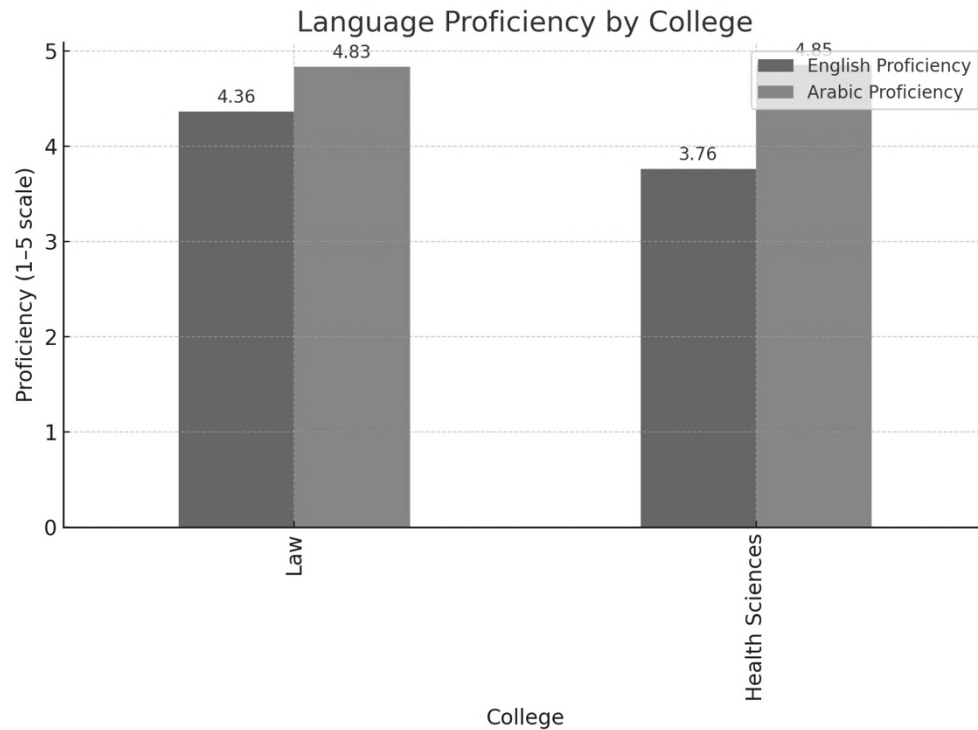


Figure 4.5 Language Proficiency by College

- English proficiency was significantly higher in Law ($p = 0.02$)
- Arabic proficiency: No significant difference

4.3.1.3 Language Attitudes

There are no significant differences by college for either language.

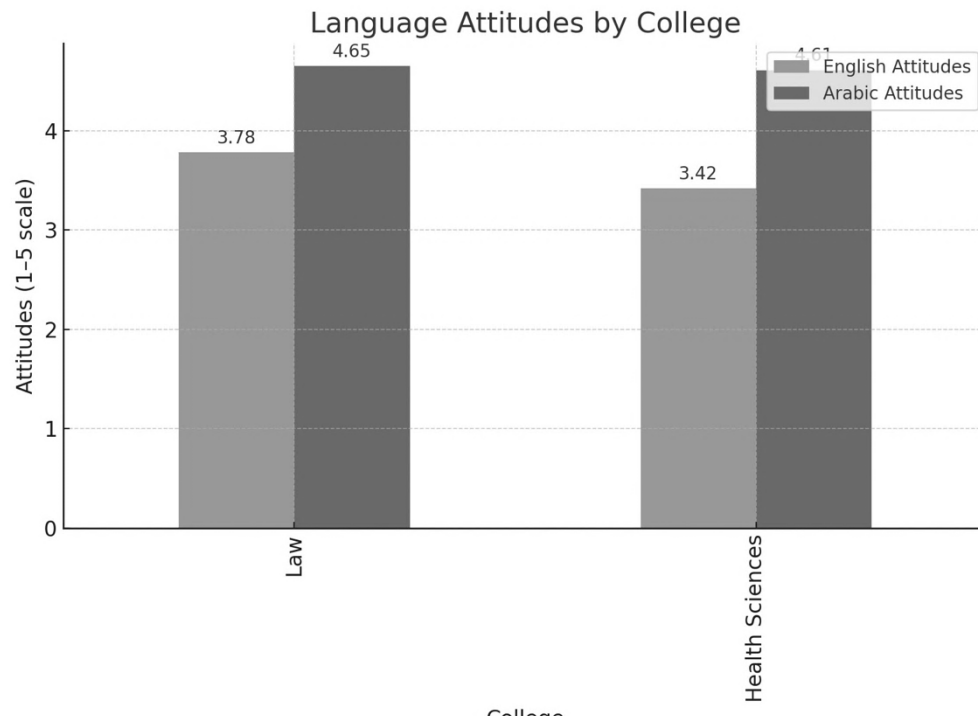


Figure 4.6 Language Attitudes by College

Both groups showed strong preference toward Arabic, though Law participants had slightly more favorable views of English. While the actual language use and proficiency are discipline-influenced, the attitudes remain consistently bilingual.

4.3.2 Gender

The below table represents the insignificant difference (since $P\text{-value} > 0.05$) between Males and Females by applying a non-parametric measure of Mann Whitney U test.

Table 4.17 Differences According to Gender

Language use English (in Percentage)	Gender	N	Median	Inter Quartile Range	Mann Whitney U Test	P-value
	Male	14	50.00	34.00 – 62.00	587.00	0.94
	Female	85	46.00	31.00 – 67.00		
Language use Arabic (in Percentage)	Gender	N	Median	Inter Quartile Range	Mann Whitney U Test	P-value
	Male	14	66.00	48.00 - 77.00	474.00	0.22
	Female	85	72.00	62.00 – 86.00		
Language proficiency English	Gender	N	Median	Inter Quartile Range	Mann Whitney U Test	P-value
	Male	14	3.88	2.75 – 4.25	443.5	0.13
	Female	85	4.50	3.50 – 5.50		
Language proficiency Arabic	Gender	N	Median	Inter Quartile Range	Mann Whitney U Test	P-value
	Male	14	5.00	3.75 – 6.00	463.59	0.16
	Female	85	6.00	3.88 – 6.00		
Language Attitude English	Gender	N	Median	Inter Quartile Range	Mann Whitney U Test	P-value
	Male	14	3.75	2.94 – 4.50	582.5	0.90
	Female	85	3.75	2.50 – 4.63		
Language Attitude Arabic	Gender	N	Median	Inter Quartile Range	Mann Whitney U Test	P-value
	Male	14	4.38	3.94 – 5.38	496.00	0.31
	Female	85	5.25	4.00 – 6.00		

Therefore, we conclude that there is no difference between Males and Females on all the measurements based on language use, language proficiency and language attitudes. Across all domains—use, proficiency, and attitude—gender differences were not significant (p-values > 0.1).

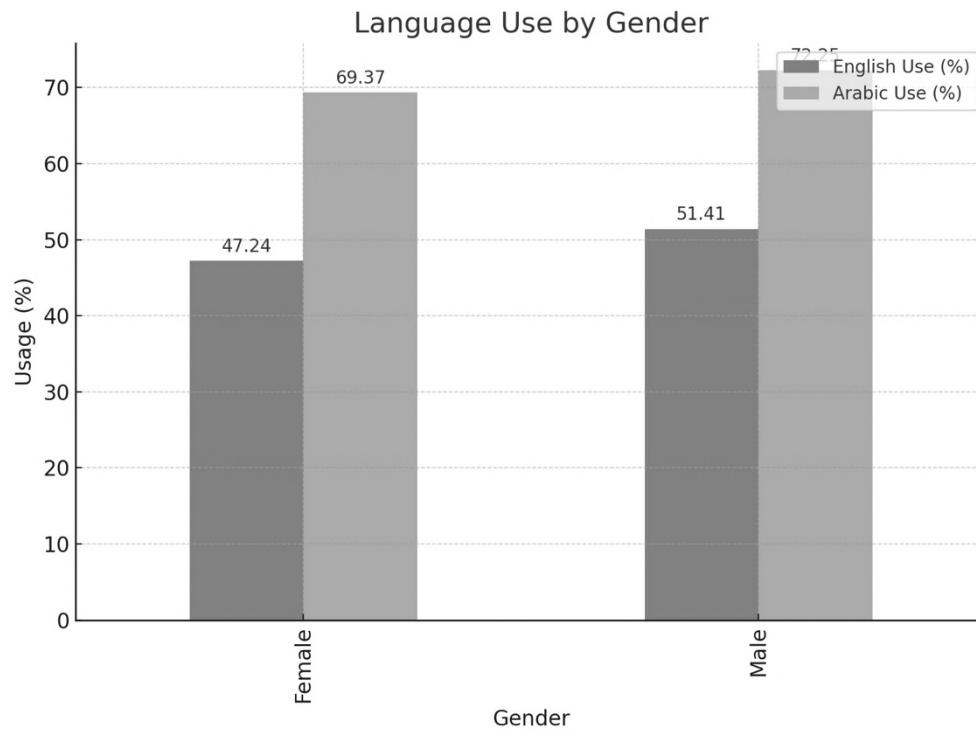


Figure 4.7 Language Use by Gender

Male participants used more English (51.41%) compared to females (47.24%). As Arabic use was slightly higher among males as well. Males rated both English and Arabic proficiencies slightly higher than females, though differences were not statistically significant.

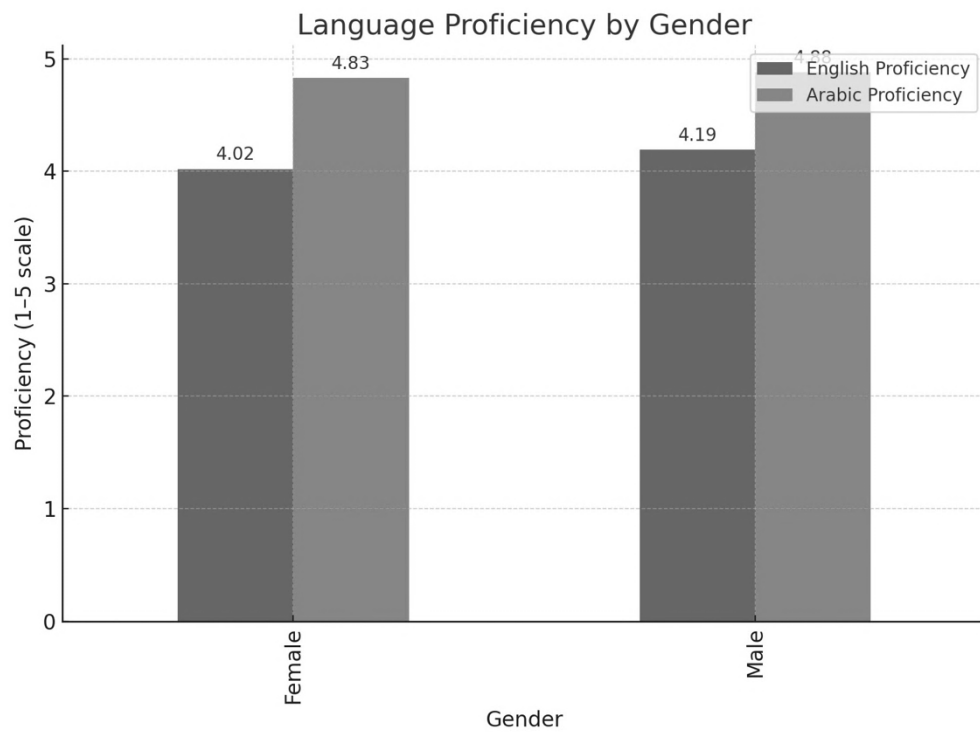


Figure 4.8 Language Proficiency by Gender

Language proficiency in both languages were similar -respectively- across genders, with minimal variation.

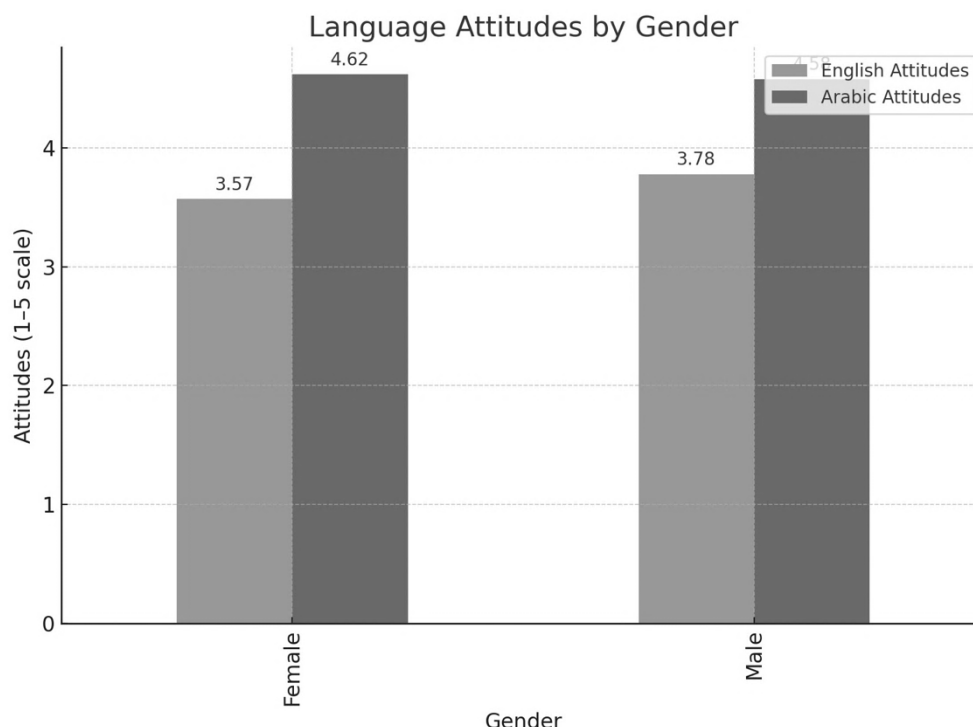


Figure 4.9 Language Attitudes by Gender

Attitudes toward both languages were generally positive across genders, with minimal variation. Language use and bilingual identity within this academic setting appear to be independent of gender, emphasizing the role of institutional and professional context over personal demographics.

4.4 Qualitative Results:

4.4.1 Language Choice and Contextual Adaptation

Both faculty and administrative staff clearly adapt their language use based on context, but the nature of the context differs slightly between groups. Faculty members often associate English with instructional spaces and professional discourse, while Arabic is used more for informal or relational interaction. For example, one faculty respondent noted, “*In the classroom, I’m all about English... But in the staff lounge, Arabic dominates*”. Administrative staff, on the other hand, highlighted context in terms of audience and function, stating they used English in

formal reports or when speaking with department heads, and Arabic with peers or students for ease and familiarity.

This reinforces Hymes' view that communicative competence is not just about knowing the language, but knowing when and how to use it. Faculty operate more within academic discourse communities, while admin staff shift language based on hierarchical and interpersonal relationships.

4.4.2 Language as a Tool for Connection vs. Authority

Faculty often framed English as a requirement of the job and Arabic as the language of emotional connection. For instance, one said, "*Arabic helps me connect better with new faculty or staff... it makes things feel less formal and more familiar*". Administrative staff also valued Arabic for connection, but more often emphasized the utility of bilingualism for gaining access or credibility, saying, "*Knowing both languages gives me confidence... I don't feel left out*".

While both groups use language for relational purposes, faculty see bilingualism as part of pedagogical effectiveness, whereas administrators see it as empowering and inclusive, bridging professional and peer spaces.

4.4.3 Code-Switching: Natural for Both, But Differently Motivated

Faculty responses show that code-switching is a natural part of teaching and communication, particularly when clarity is at stake. "*Sometimes I start in English but switch to Arabic if students are struggling*". Administrative staff describe code-switching less as pedagogical and more as a way to manage social or institutional expectations. One noted, "*I use more English with department heads... but Arabic keeps the vibe relaxed with peers*"

Faculty tend to code-switch for comprehension, while administrators code-switch to manage social and professional roles. This supports the notion that language switching is a strategy for navigating roles and relationships.

4.4.4 Language, Identity, and Community Belonging

Both groups expressed strong emotional and cultural ties to Arabic, though they framed its role in identity differently: Faculty often see Arabic as a personal and cultural anchor but see English as part of their professional persona: “*Arabic grounds me... but English is part of who I am professionally*”. Administrative staff described Arabic as the language of authenticity and inclusion: “*Arabic is my home... I feel proud to use it even in professional settings*”.

This contrast reflects the different identity negotiations each group makes. Faculty see bilingualism as dual identity performance, while administrators emphasize linguistic belonging and institutional participation.

4.4.5 Perceptions of Language Expectation and Institutional Norms

Faculty noted that English use is often institutionally expected, especially in teaching. Administrative staff also noted expectations, but they were more sensitive to social and hierarchical cues, saying things like: “*Sometimes I feel pressure to use English more, especially around department heads*”. This supports the idea that power dynamics and perceived professionalism play a role in shaping bilingual behavior, especially for administrators navigating inter-role interactions.

Faculty and administrative staff share a bilingual profile, but their motivations, linguistic contexts, and emotional investments differ. Faculty use language as a tool for teaching and professional discourse, while administrative staff view it as a means of social navigation and empowerment.

These findings reinforce that bilingual language profiles cannot be fully captured by quantitative scores alone. The lived experiences, motivations, and reflections of individuals are central to understanding how language shapes—and is shaped by—everyday life in educational institutions. The responses reveal that context, audience, professional expectations, identity, and perceived norms are key contributors to differences in language behavior. These align well with theories of speech communities and communities of practice, where language is shaped by the roles individuals inhabit, the goals they share, and the relationships they maintain.

4.4.6 Comparative Discussion of Faculty and Administrators Perspectives on Bilingual Language Use

To deepen the understanding of bilingual practices within educational institutions, The voices of both faculty members and administrative staff reveal the nuanced ways in which bilingualism is experienced and practiced. This qualitative analysis highlights the similarities and differences between the two groups and connects these insights to the study's central research questions and theoretical framework.

To complement the quantitative data, qualitative insights from 10 faculty and 10 administrative staff were analyzed thematically (*See Appendix 2*). This comparison reveals how both groups navigate their bilingual environments within the educational institution, and how their language choices reflect their roles, identities, and participation in shared communities of practice.

“When I’m teaching, I always use English—it’s expected, especially for science-related subjects. But outside the classroom, especially with staff or during school events, I naturally switch to Arabic. It feels more personal, more us”. This supports the idea that language choice is context-driven within communities of practice, aligning with Hymes' emphasis on setting and

function in speech. The faculty responses connect to Research Q1: Language practices reflect role-based bilingual negotiation, supporting the finding that both faculty and staff use both languages depending on purpose. It confirms that contextual role distinctions shape language use—teachers distinguish between instructional and social domains. *“Honestly, I choose the language that helps me get my point across more clearly. Sometimes I start in English but switch to Arabic if I feel students are struggling—or the other way around. It’s about being understood”*. This response connects to Research Q2: Practicality and comprehension are strong influencers, echoing the idea that bilingualism serves functional needs in dynamic school settings. This reflects how linguistic comfort and institutional formality influence bilingual choices. In addition, it reflects institutional language expectations and the emotional pull of mother tongue—important in understanding bilingual choices, *“Sometimes I feel pressure to use English more, especially around other faculty or in professional development settings. But Arabic is still my default when I want to be myself”*. Language is used as a social bridge, reinforcing bilingualism as a relational tool within the school community. Bilingualism is portrayed as a means of full participation in diverse speech communities within the institution (The CoP Theory). *“Sometimes I don’t even notice when I switch between languages. It just happens—mid-sentence even. It depends on who I’m talking to and what we’re talking about”*. This reveals natural code-switching, a common trait in fluent bilinguals, reflecting the fluidity of bilingual identity and illustrates how bilingual identity is not split but layered, with each language serving a distinct but complementary purpose.

Administrative staff play a critical yet often overlooked role in shaping and sustaining bilingual communication in educational settings. Their voices offer unique insights into how language operates not just in instruction but in institutional culture, professional identity, and

daily interactions. The responses demonstrate situational code-switching, guided by audience and function, aligning with Hymes' emphasis on setting and appropriateness. *"Being bilingual helps me connect with both sides—teachers and students. I can explain things in Arabic when needed, but I can also hold my own in meetings or emails in English. It helps me do my job better"* connects to Research Q1: This reflects functional bilingualism, supporting the finding that administrative staff use language flexibly to bridge institutional roles. It also connects to Research Q2: Language use is shaped more by comfort and necessity than formal policy and reinforces the instrumental vs. interpersonal roles of each language in the administrative context. *"When I write official reports, I use English—it looks more professional. But with students or new staff, Arabic helps make things easier and more friendly"*. In addition, it indicates that language choice can mirror institutional power dynamics or expectations of formality; showing how Arabic functions as a relational language, reinforcing identity and belonging within the community, *"Even though I use English a lot at work, Arabic is my home. It's part of who I am, and I feel proud to use it—even in professional settings"*. Responses also connects to Hymes - Reflects communicative competence—the ability to navigate multiple linguistic codes within a speech community. It shows language awareness and inclusivity, a hallmark of multilingual professionalism. *"Sometimes I speak in Arabic and sprinkle in English terms, especially when the topic is technical. It's not planned—it just flows"*, . Bilingualism doesn't diminish cultural identity—it coexists with it and reflects code-switching as a natural linguistic practice, highlighting the fluid bilingual norms within communities of practice.

While faculty and administrators use similar strategies (code-switching, audience adaptation), these responses show faculty drawing a clearer boundary between “instructional English” and “relational Arabic.” Their bilingual profile is shaped by pedagogical roles and

disciplinary needs, as highlighted in both the quantitative and qualitative data. These findings affirm Hymes' view that communicative competence involves not only knowing a language but knowing when and how to use it appropriately within one's community of practice.

Administrative staff show equal levels of language adaptability, but their use of English is often context-dependent and function-driven rather than disciplinary. Compared to faculty, they emphasize interpersonal connection and institutional formality as reasons for code-switching, rather than pedagogical expectations.

Table 4.18 Key Factors Emerging from the Qualitative Responses

Key Factors Emerging from the Qualitative Responses:	
Faculty	Administrators
• Context and audience (classroom vs. admin meetings)	• Professional context (meetings vs. peer communication)
• Purpose of communication (clarity, authority, connection)	• Language of comfort and social bonding (Arabic)
• Emotional comfort and identity	• Perceived expectations and institutional norms (English for formality)
• Institutional norms and expectations.	• Desire for inclusion and upward mobility (bilingualism as capital)

These findings support the idea that bilingualism in Saudi educational institutions is a contextual, lived practice, shaped by both institutional demands and personal identity. They affirm Hymes' model of communicative competence and the Community of Practice framework, where language is both a resource and a reflection of participation in the institutional culture.

4.5 Linking Findings to the Literature

4.5.1 Shared Bilingual Practices in Communities of Practice

One of the most striking findings of this study is the lack of significant difference in language use, proficiency, and attitudes between faculty and administrative staff. This supports the notion that bilingualism in Saudi higher education is ‘not confined to the classroom’, but is lived and shared across professional roles. Drawing from Hymes' (1972) concept of communicative competence, we can argue that both groups have developed similar communicative repertoires because they participate in the same community of practice, sharing norms, goals, and linguistic expectations.

This finding resonates with Alnasser (2018), who found that English and Arabic are used fluidly across academic departments in Saudi universities, with both male and female staff using English not only for instruction but for maintaining proficiency and professional identity. Like Alnasser’s study, the bilingual practices reported in this research seem to emerge from within the community rather than being imposed from the top down. This aligns with Spolsky’s (2004) view of language policy as a product of practice, belief, and management, especially when those policies are informal and community-driven.

Furthermore, the BLP results indicate that Arabic is still the more dominant language in terms of use and positive attitudes. This aligns with Alnasser’s observation that, despite institutional pushes toward English for globalization, Arabic maintains symbolic, cultural, and functional importance in educational settings.

4.5.2 The Impact of College Specialization

While role (faculty vs. admin) did not shape language use significantly, disciplinary affiliation (Law vs. Health Sciences) did. Law staff reported significantly higher English

proficiency and usage, which may be linked to the linguistic demands of legal education, a finding that aligns with status planning frameworks described in Alnasser (2018). This suggests that CoPs are not monolithic; rather, they are layered by specialization, with each sub-community having its own communicative expectations and practices.

This also ties into Hymes' idea of speech situations—language use varies according to the function and context of professional interactions. In legal education, English may be more embedded in curriculum materials, international case studies, and administrative documentation, shaping members' speech patterns and linguistic identities. The findings confirm that academic discipline is a stronger predictor of bilingual behavior than job title, a point that has implications for language policy and curriculum design in Saudi higher education.

4.5.3 Attitudes and Identity: Cultural Anchoring Through Arabic

Despite English being widely used, Arabic remained more highly rated in terms of proficiency and attitude, particularly across both roles and genders. This is consistent with Alnasser's observation that Arabic maintains a symbolic, cultural, and institutional dominance, especially given its status as the language of identity, religion, and official communication. Participants in this study showed a strong alignment with Arabic identity even when reporting high English usage, which mirrors findings from studies emphasizing the complementary roles of L1 and L2 in Saudi academic settings.

Ervin-Tripp's (2009) synthesis of Hymes' theory reminds us that language use is not just about linguistic knowledge, but also about socialization into norms—what to say, when, and to whom. This bilingual balance reflects appropriateness across settings, a hallmark of communicative competence. From a sociolinguistic perspective, this finding highlights the coexistence of instrumental and integrative motivations for language use. English may serve

practical purposes (academic publishing, professional development), while Arabic fulfills symbolic and social functions, supporting Hymes' idea that language is not simply a code but a means of social meaning-making.

4.5.4 Gender and Language Use: A Neutral Factor

In contrast to some global research suggesting gendered language use (Tannen, 1995; Herring, 2000), this study found no significant differences between male and female participants in language use, proficiency, or attitudes. This finding supports Alnasser's conclusion that gender is not a significant variable in determining language beliefs or behaviors in Saudi English departments.

From a CoP perspective, this suggests that shared professional identity and the institutional culture exert a stronger influence on language practices than gender. Members of these communities appear to internalize and perform similar linguistic roles, regardless of personal characteristics. This neutrality may also reflect the increasingly integrated nature of Saudi higher education, where both genders operate under similar institutional policies and language expectations. This reinforces the idea that shared practices are developed through mutual engagement and shared enterprise, rather than personal demographics.

4.5.5 Reinforcing the Community of Practice Model

Ultimately, the findings support the idea that language use in Saudi higher education is socially constructed within specific professional communities, echoing the community of practice model proposed by Lave & Wenger (1991). Members of these communities develop shared practices not because of their job title or gender, but because of their continued engagement in common tasks, goals, and linguistic environments.

Whether in faculty meetings, administrative tasks, or cross-role interactions, bilingualism functions as both a practical tool and a marker of identity, shaped by the domain and culture of the institution. The BLP data affirm that these communities negotiate their language practices organically, balancing the symbolic weight of Arabic with the instrumental value of English. Moreover, the bilingual practices exhibited by participants reflect Hymes' broader theory of speech socialization, which emphasizes the cultural and contextual grounding of language use. In Saudi academic communities, bilingualism is not merely a skill but a social identity, shaped by discipline, context, and cultural expectations.

4.6 Linking Findings to the Research Questions

The core structure of bilingualism appears similar—both groups engage in context-dependent code-switching and show positive attitudes toward both English and Arabic. However, the meaning, function, and emotional resonance of each language differs by role. Faculty members use language to negotiate academic authority and engagement, while administrative staff use it to navigate institutional structures and interpersonal relationships.

The analysis suggests that professional function, institutional hierarchy, perceived expectations, and identity performance are major contributors. These are shaped not only by institutional language policies but also by community norms, peer practices, and personal experience, in line with Wenger's framework of situated learning and participation. The comparison reveals that bilingualism in higher education is a deeply social practice, influenced by role-based experiences, communicative expectations, and the need to belong and be understood. Faculty and administrative staff operate within intersecting communities of practice, where language is not just a medium of communication but a vehicle of identity, power, and professional belonging.

4.7 Summary

These findings confirm that communities of practice within higher education foster shared linguistic behaviors and attitudes, despite role or demographic distinctions. The bilingual environment appears to support a balanced use and appreciation of both English and Arabic.

Faculty and administrative staff exhibit similar bilingual profiles in language use, proficiency, and attitudes. Although College specialization has a more notable impact, particularly on English proficiency and use, Arabic remains the dominant language in identity and overall use across roles and disciplines. Gender is not a significant factor in shaping bilingual language profiles.

The findings support Alnasser (2018): gender does not significantly impact language use in Saudi English departments. They also align with Hymes' theory: bilingual competence is rooted in context, role, and shared norms, not just formal instruction. In addition, this study extends prior work by comparing faculty and administrative staff, showing that language socialization occurs across all roles in the institutional community. College specialization shapes bilingual practices more than role or gender—an insight valuable for discipline-specific language policy considerations.

Chapter 5

Conclusion

Chapter 5

Conclusion

5.0 Introduction

This final chapter presents a synthesis of the key findings. The study aimed to explore how bilingual language profiles differ between faculty members and administrative staff within higher education institutions and to identify the factors that shape those differences. Drawing on both quantitative and qualitative data, this chapter revisits the research questions, reflects on the broader significance of the findings, and offers implications for policy and practice. Recommendations for future research are also provided.

5.1 Summary of Results

The study utilized the Bilingual Language Profile (BLP) questionnaire alongside open-ended qualitative questions to understand language use, proficiency, and attitudes among members of two key institutional roles—faculty and administrative staff—within Saudi higher education.

5.1.1 BLP Findings

The frequency distribution table, discussed at the beginning of the analysis, provides insightful demographic and academic information about the sample population (*See Table 4.1*). It reveals that the majority of participants are female (85 out of 99), indicating a strong female presence within the studied institution. Regarding professional roles, administrative staff make up a slightly larger portion (56) compared to faculty staff (43), which may reflect either the organizational structure of the institution or the focus of the study itself. Additionally, the

participants are relatively evenly distributed between the health sciences (47) and law (52) colleges, ensuring representation from both scientific and legal academic disciplines.

The findings of this study indicate a deep-rooted linguistic immersion in Arabic among participants, with an average of 17.8 years spent in Arabic-speaking countries or regions and 17.9 years within Arabic-speaking families (*See Table 4.3*). These numbers highlight the foundational role of Arabic in shaping the participants' linguistic identity, cultural orientation, and everyday communication. As Bialystok, Craik, and Luk (2012) suggest, prolonged exposure to a dominant language from early childhood plays a significant role in the development of linguistic fluency and cognitive alignment with that language, reinforcing its function as both a communicative and cultural medium. In contrast, participants reported minimal exposure to English in familial contexts, with an average of only 1.6 years (*See Table 4.3*). This finding aligns with Cummins (2000), who emphasized that limited early-life exposure to a second language within the home environment often results in lower native-like proficiency, unless supported later by systematic and immersive learning experiences. Early exposure is a critical period for phonological and syntactic acquisition, and its absence may pose challenges to native-like command of a second language. Nonetheless, the average number of years spent working or studying in English-speaking settings increases to 3.5 years, suggesting that participants began to encounter the English language more actively during their academic or professional trajectories. This aligns with Grosjean's (2010) view that late bilingualism—often emerging in adulthood—can still result in high functional competence in a second language, particularly when used in specialized or professional domains. Such exposure, although not rooted in early familial use, allows for the development of domain-specific vocabulary and communicative strategies necessary in work or study environments. Meanwhile, the average of 10.2 years spent

working or studying in Arabic-speaking environments reinforces the dominant presence of Arabic not only in familial and societal life but also within educational and occupational spheres. This supports Baker's (2011) argument that language dominance is maintained and reproduced through institutional and professional usage, which continues to reinforce Arabic as the main vehicle of thought, instruction, and public discourse in the region.

Overall, the data reveal a predominantly Arabic linguistic background with moderate exposure to English in later professional or academic stages. The distinction in language exposure across life domains highlights a pattern of functional bilingualism—where Arabic remains the primary language of identity and daily interaction, while English emerges as a secondary, utilitarian language acquired for specific purposes. Kecskes (2015) notes that such bilingual patterns are common in sociolinguistic contexts where global languages like English are acquired for instrumental reasons rather than integrative cultural assimilation.

The data clearly demonstrate the predominance of Arabic across various social contexts in participants' lives, confirming its role as the foundational language of personal, social, and professional interactions. Arabic is most frequently used with family (88.6%) and friends (72.3%), reflecting its deep cultural and emotional integration into everyday communication (*See Table 4.4*). This aligns with Baker (2011), who notes that a native language often serves as the primary mode of interaction within the intimate and social spheres, shaping individuals' identity, values, and social behavior. In work or school settings, Arabic remains dominant at 75.6%, yet the data show a considerable presence of English (52.2%), suggesting that bilingual communication is more common in structured, formal domains. This finding supports Grosjean's (2010) framework of *complementary language use*, where different languages serve specific functions depending on context. English is not replacing Arabic, but instead coexisting

with it to fulfill specialized communicative needs—particularly in academic and professional environments where English is often the medium of instruction or the language of international communication. English usage is also evident in informal settings, though to a lesser degree: 38.7% with friends and 24.3% with family. This indicates a degree of informal or incidental bilingualism, potentially influenced by media consumption, technology, or social networks. As noted by Kecskes (2015), language contact in informal settings often occurs through peer interaction, entertainment, or digital communication, which can foster functional bilingualism even in the absence of formal instruction. The minimal use of other languages across all contexts, peaking at 12.5% with friends, suggests occasional multilingual interaction—likely reflecting the influence of diverse social networks or multicultural environments. However, their limited usage confirms that these languages do not hold a significant communicative role for most participants. This observation is in line with Fishman (1972), who emphasized that the maintenance of minority languages often depends on strong ethnic or familial ties, which may not be prevalent among the study’s participants.

The proficiency scores reported by participants across the four key language skills—speaking, listening, reading, and writing—clearly demonstrate native or near-native competence in Arabic, with a consistent score of 6.0 across all domains (*See Table 4.6*). This result aligns with the earlier data showing extended exposure to Arabic-speaking environments throughout the participants’ personal, educational, and professional lives. According to Ellis (2008), language proficiency is deeply influenced by the frequency and richness of input and interaction in the target language, and native languages typically display the highest levels of automaticity and fluency across all skills. In contrast, English proficiency scores are moderate, with listening rated highest at 5.0, followed by reading (4.7), speaking (4.6), and writing (4.2). These results

suggest functional bilingualism, with participants being capable of effective communication in English, particularly in receptive skills. The higher scores in listening and reading may reflect the impact of academic and media exposure, as these skills are more often passively developed through consumption of English-language materials (Nation & Newton, 2009). Productive skills, particularly writing, show comparatively lower scores—highlighting the common challenge second-language users face in mastering the more cognitively demanding aspects of language output (Byrnes, 2010).

This discrepancy between receptive and productive skills supports Cummins' (1979) theory of *Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS)* versus *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)*. While many second-language users develop conversational fluency relatively quickly, achieving advanced proficiency in academic writing and formal communication requires more time and targeted instruction. The data suggests that participants may be more confident in understanding English than in producing it, especially in structured or academic formats.

The findings reveal a strong emotional and cultural attachment to the Arabic language among participants, with average scores nearing the maximum across all four identity-related statements (*See Table 4.7*). Participants reported feeling most like themselves when speaking Arabic (5.8), affirmed their cultural belonging to the Arabic-speaking world (5.9), and expressed both a desire to be seen as native speakers (5.7) and an aspiration to speak it natively (5.9). These results are consistent with Norton's (2013) assertion that language and identity are deeply intertwined, particularly for first languages that are acquired in formative years and integrated with cultural norms, personal memories, and social affiliation. In contrast, the scores related to English language identity and belonging are notably lower, ranging from 3.2 to 3.8. While

participants may possess moderate English proficiency, the emotional resonance and cultural alignment with English remain limited. For instance, the lowest score (3.2) corresponds to the statement “*I want others to see me as a native speaker of this language*”, which may reflect participants' recognition of English as a functional or instrumental language rather than a core part of their identity. This distinction aligns with Dörnyei's (2009) theory of *ideal L2 self*, where learners' motivations can be strong even without deep identity integration, especially when the language is associated with global access, education, or career prospects. Furthermore, the moderate score of 3.5 for “*It's important for me to speak it like a native speaker*” suggests a utilitarian approach to English learning: fluency and intelligibility may be prioritized over native-like accuracy. According to Kramsch (2009), such attitudes are typical in contexts where a second language serves as a tool for cross-cultural communication rather than identity expression. This instrumental view of English is likely shaped by the participants' sociolinguistic environment, in which Arabic dominates personal and cultural domains, while English is reserved for specific academic or professional functions.

The data regarding the timeline of language acquisition clearly illustrates the foundational role of Arabic in participants' linguistic development and identity (*See Table 4.8*). Arabic is acquired almost universally from birth (mean age = 0.8 years; median = 0), whereas English is introduced significantly later, with a mean starting age of 7.2 years and a median of 6 years. This 6–7-year gap is a critical period in language development, often determining the depth of linguistic and emotional integration (Birdsong, 2006). Early exposure to Arabic during the critical period of language acquisition likely explains participants' native-like proficiency and strong emotional and cultural ties to the language. This developmental gap is further reinforced by the mean age of comfort, which is 5.4 years for Arabic and 12.1 years for English.

The later comfort age in English suggests a more gradual and externally-driven acquisition process, often linked to formal education or academic/professional environments rather than early-life familial or social interaction. According to Johnson and Newport (1989), the age at which a second language is acquired significantly affects fluency and long-term retention; earlier acquisition tends to result in more natural language processing and use.

The data also show that none of the participants reported feeling uncomfortable using Arabic, while 8% never reached comfort in English. This disparity points to a strong internalization of Arabic as the dominant and emotionally embedded language. As Pavlenko (2012) explains, languages learned from birth are typically tied to emotional regulation, memory formation, and identity, whereas later-learned languages may remain more detached and task-oriented. The small but notable portion of individuals who never felt comfortable using English may reflect barriers in access, motivation, or sociolinguistic context, which are known to affect second-language attainment (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005).

The data on formal education exposure reveals that participants have had substantial instruction in both Arabic and English, though Arabic clearly dominates in terms of duration and intensity (*See Table 4.9*). On average, participants spent 14.2 years in Arabic classes compared to 10.8 years in English classes, a difference of 3.4 years. The median years of Arabic instruction (15) further underscores its stronger presence in participants' educational trajectories compared to the median of 10 years for English. Moreover, 58% of participants reported more than 15 years of Arabic instruction, whereas only 32% reported the same level for English, reflecting deeper and more sustained academic engagement with Arabic. This pattern is consistent with the sociolinguistic context of Arabic-speaking countries, where Arabic functions as the primary language of instruction and is strongly tied to national identity and institutional

frameworks (Bassiouny, 2009). The extensive formal education in Arabic reinforces its role not only as a native language but also as a language of literacy, academic achievement, and cultural transmission. Such continuous exposure enhances both linguistic competence and emotional connection to the language (Cummins, 2000). English, while receiving significant instructional time (mean = 10.8 years), still lags behind Arabic in both depth and distribution. This suggests that English is often treated as a second or foreign language, introduced at later stages of schooling and often limited to specific subjects or course modules. According to Gándara and Hopkins (2010), disparities in exposure time can lead to unequal language outcomes, particularly in complex academic language proficiency, which requires extended, high-quality input across years. The fact that 32% of participants received over 15 years of English instruction indicates that a substantial subset had prolonged exposure—possibly due to international schooling, private education, or university studies in English. This subset may reflect increasing trends of English-medium instruction (EMI) in higher education or globalization-driven curricula (Dearden, 2014).

The correlational data offer key insights into the variables that significantly affect participants' comfort with the English language. All three examined relationships are statistically significant, providing robust evidence for the factors that contribute to second language confidence and fluency (*See Table 4.11*).

Firstly, there is a moderate negative correlation between the age at which participants began learning English and their current comfort level with the language ($r = -0.62, p < .01$). This suggests that earlier exposure to English is strongly associated with greater comfort in its use. This finding is consistent with research on the critical period hypothesis, which posits that earlier language exposure—particularly before puberty—leads to more native-like proficiency

and ease of use (Johnson & Newport, 1989; Birdsong, 2006). The negative direction of the relationship indicates that the younger the learner, the higher their eventual comfort with English, likely due to greater neuroplasticity and lower affective filters during early developmental stages (Krashen, 1982).

Secondly, a positive correlation exists between the number of years of English education and comfort using English ($r = +0.58, p < .01$). This indicates that extended formal instruction significantly enhances learners' ease with the language, echoing findings from Cummins (2000) and Gándara and Hopkins (2010), who stress the importance of both the quantity and quality of instructional input in developing academic and communicative competence. The effect size suggests a strong relationship, further supporting educational interventions that increase the duration and immersion level of English instruction.

Most notably, the strongest correlation is observed between English immersion experiences (such as studying or working in English-speaking environments) and comfort in English ($r = +0.71, p < .001$). This high correlation underscores the profound impact of real-life, contextualized exposure to the language. Immersion environments provide more dynamic, interactive, and meaningful opportunities for language practice, which in turn foster fluency, pragmatic competence, and identity investment (Norton, 2013; Lyster, 2007).

The data reveal distinct developmental trajectories for Arabic and English language acquisition among participants, underscoring Arabic's status as the native or first language and English as a later-acquired second language (*See Table 4.12*). On average, participants began learning Arabic from birth, while the mean starting age for English was 7.6 years, with a wide range between 1 and 19 years. This delayed onset of English exposure aligns with the sociolinguistic reality in many Arabic-speaking countries, where English is introduced formally

in schools rather than acquired naturally in the home environment (Kirkpatrick, 2007; Al-Issa, 2006). The difference in the age of comfort with each language further supports this distinction. Participants reported feeling comfortable in Arabic at a mean age of 5.8 years, while comfort in English was not typically achieved until 12.5 years. The relatively early comfort with Arabic reflects natural language development in a first-language context, supported by early and continuous exposure at home and in society (Hoff, 2006). In contrast, English comfort levels show a delayed acquisition curve, likely influenced by limited early exposure, less immersive environments, and the cognitive demands of second language learning after the critical period (Birdsong, 2006).

Moreover, the broad range for English comfort (2–20+ years) indicates significant individual variation, which can be attributed to factors such as quality of instruction, amount of exposure, motivation, and opportunities for interaction in English-speaking contexts. This supports findings from second language acquisition (SLA) literature suggesting that comfort and fluency depend not only on age of acquisition but also on intensity and authenticity of exposure (Ellis, 2008; Norton, 2013). For Arabic, despite a wide range (1–20+), the early mean comfort age and minimal variability suggest a relatively uniform and deep-rooted native acquisition process.

The data reaffirm the critical role of early exposure and continuous engagement in language development. While Arabic naturally benefits from this process due to its first-language status, English acquisition depends heavily on structured learning and immersive experiences—often delayed until school age and shaped by formal education and external motivation (Cummins, 2000).

The results from the paired t-test provide important insights into the differences between Arabic and English, particularly in terms of age of onset, years of formal education, and self-rated speaking proficiency (*See Table 4.13*). The p-value for the age of onset of language learning is < 0.001 , which is well below the standard significance level of $\alpha = 0.05$, indicating that this difference is statistically significant. This result highlights that Arabic and English differ significantly in the age at which participants begin learning each language. Participants typically begin learning Arabic from birth, whereas English is often acquired much later, typically starting around 7.6 years on average. This significant difference supports findings from second language acquisition research that suggest the earlier the language exposure, the more likely individuals are to develop native-like proficiency in that language (Johnson & Newport, 1989; Birdsong, 2006).

The p-value for the years of formal education is 0.003, also falling below $\alpha = 0.05$, indicating a significant difference in the number of years of formal education participants receive in Arabic and English. On average, participants spend 14.2 years in Arabic classes compared to 10.8 years in English classes. This disparity in educational exposure reflects the dominant role of Arabic as the primary language of instruction in Arabic-speaking countries, with English often introduced later as a second language in formal educational settings (Kirkpatrick, 2007). The longer formal education in Arabic suggests a deeper cultural and institutional investment in Arabic, particularly for younger learners.

The p-value for self-rated speaking proficiency is 0.12, which is above the threshold of 0.05, indicating that this difference is not statistically significant. This finding suggests that, despite differences in age of onset and formal education, participants do not perceive significant differences in their speaking proficiency between the two languages. This may be due to the fact

that, even though English is acquired later and through formal education, participants may still feel comfortable and confident speaking English, especially in academic or professional contexts where English proficiency is often developed through exposure and practice (Lyster, 2007).

The Pearson's correlation analysis results provide insights into the relationships between different variables related to English language exposure and speaking fluency (*See Table 4.14*). The results focus on two key relationships: years in English-speaking countries and speaking fluency, and English use with family and comfort in speaking. Both relationships show significant positive correlations, highlighting the influence of these factors on language proficiency. The correlation coefficient ($r = 0.62$) between years spent in English-speaking countries and speaking fluency indicates a moderate to strong positive relationship. The statistical significance is confirmed with $p < 0.01$, suggesting that the relationship between these variables is highly significant. This result underscores the positive impact of living in an English-speaking environment on speaking fluency. As participants spend more time in English-speaking countries, their speaking fluency in English improves. This is consistent with language acquisition theories, which emphasize the role of immersion in developing language proficiency, particularly in spoken communication (Krashen, 1985). The extended exposure to English in daily life and social contexts likely enhances participants' comfort and ability to use English fluidly. The correlation coefficient ($r = 0.45$) between English use with family and comfort in speaking shows a moderate positive relationship, which is statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). This finding suggests that the more participants use English with their family, the more comfortable they feel speaking it. The relationship, although weaker than the first, highlights the role of familial interaction in language acquisition. Engaging in English conversations at

home can foster greater comfort with speaking the language, even if it is not the primary language used in other contexts. This is in line with research on the importance of family support and early exposure to language in developing linguistic confidence.

Quantitative analysis showed no statistically significant differences between faculty and administrative staff in overall language use, self-rated proficiency, or language attitudes. Both groups demonstrated high levels of bilingual engagement with Arabic serving as the dominant language for identity and relational communication, and English serving primarily in academic and formal contexts.

5.1.2 Interviews Findings

Qualitative responses revealed more subtle differences: Faculty leaned more toward English in instructional and professional contexts and described Arabic as their cultural anchor. Administrative staff tended to use Arabic more broadly and framed bilingualism as a source of confidence and inclusion in a hierarchical institution.

Both faculty and administrative staff reported using English and Arabic in context-specific ways. However, the motivation behind language choice differs. Faculty members described switching between English and Arabic depending on instructional clarity, classroom demands, or engagement strategies. For instance, several noted that while English dominates their classroom discourse, Arabic emerges when supporting students, offering clarification, or engaging in informal staff conversations. One participant reflected, “Sometimes I start in English but switch to Arabic if I feel students are struggling—it’s about being understood.”

Administrative staff, by contrast, reported switching languages primarily based on professional formality or relational ease. For example, English is typically reserved for formal documentation, interaction with upper management, or interdepartmental communication, while

Arabic is used more frequently in peer conversations or student interactions. As one respondent noted, “I use English in reports or with department heads, but with my colleagues, Arabic keeps the vibe relaxed.” This reflects Hymes’ concept of communicative competence, which emphasizes not just knowing a language, but knowing how and when to use it within social contexts.

Across both groups, bilingualism was seen as a valuable resource—a way to bridge communities and navigate institutional expectations. Faculty members often expressed that English shaped their professional identity, especially in instructional contexts, while Arabic anchored them culturally and socially: “Arabic grounds me—it connects me to my roots. But English is part of who I am professionally.”

Administrative staff echoed similar sentiments but emphasized Arabic more as a symbol of cultural belonging and professional ease. One participant stated, “Even though I use English a lot at work, Arabic is my home. I feel proud to use it—even in professional settings.” These reflections align with Wenger’s theory of communities of practice, where language use serves as both a tool for participation and a reflection of membership and identity. While both groups operate within the same institutional space, their identity performances through language reflect different linguistic priorities and social roles.

Code-switching emerged as a common and intuitive practice for both faculty and administrators. However, its function varied: Faculty members described switching languages during lectures or academic discussions to aid comprehension, adjust tone, or meet student needs. Administrative staff used code-switching more for navigating hierarchical dynamics or maintaining rapport with peers. This suggests that while code-switching is ubiquitous, it is

differently contextualized. For faculty, it serves pedagogical purposes; for administrative staff, it functions more as a social and professional balancing act.

Faculty participants noted that using English is often tied to their teaching responsibilities and academic legitimacy. English is seen as a professional standard, especially in internationalized or disciplinary contexts such as the sciences or law. Administrative staff, meanwhile, reported a more power-sensitive awareness of language. Several highlighted feeling the need to use English to appear professional or competent in front of supervisors, even if Arabic was their preferred or more fluent language: “*Sometimes I feel pressure to use English more, especially around department heads*”. This insight echoes Hymes’ later work on language norms and performance (1972), in which he emphasized that performance is often shaped by expectations and social evaluation, especially in institutions.

5.3 Implications of the Study

5.3.1 Implications for Language Policy

The study suggests that top-down language policies should be flexible and reflect the lived bilingual practices of institutional communities. Rather than enforcing English-only or Arabic-dominant policies, universities might benefit from supporting balanced bilingual environments where both languages serve functional and symbolic roles.

5.3.2 Implications for Professional Development

Since language use is fluid and dependent on context, professional training should focus not only on improving English proficiency but also on developing communicative strategies—such as code-switching, tone adjustment, and cross-cultural pragmatics—that enhance real-world interaction within the academic workplace.

5.3.3 Implications for Institutional Identity

The findings highlight the importance of recognizing Arabic as a valued language of identity and inclusion. Institutions should affirm Arabic as a legitimate medium for administrative and social interaction, while continuing to encourage English for academic and international engagement.

5.3.4 Implications for Inter-role Collaboration

The shared bilingual profiles among faculty and administrative staff reveal potential for stronger collaboration. Bridging communication between these two roles can improve workflow, trust, and inclusivity across departments.

5.4 Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following recommendations are offered for policy-makers, educators, and researchers:

5.4.1 Recommendations to Address the Problem

- **Increase Early Exposure to English:** Given the significant difference in age of onset between Arabic and English, it is recommended that English language learning be introduced at an earlier stage in formal education systems, especially in Arabic-speaking regions.
- **Promote Immersive Environments:** To improve speaking fluency, exposure to English-speaking countries or environments should be encouraged.
- **Family Involvement in Language Use:** Encouraging families to engage in English language practices at home (such as casual conversations or watching English-language media) can foster a more comfortable language environment.

- **Bilingual Education Benefits:** This research emphasizes the importance of fostering bilingual or multilingual educational environments. Educational systems can benefit by integrating more English language instruction and offering bilingual education programs, allowing students to develop proficiency in both Arabic and English.
- **Increased Comfort in Speaking:** By understanding the relationship between family use of English and comfort in speaking, educators and language learners can implement strategies to increase speaking practice in informal settings, which can lead to greater linguistic confidence.
- **Promote Contextual Bilingualism:** Encourage flexible bilingual practices that recognize the functional strengths of both English and Arabic. Rather than enforcing rigid language rules, institutions should support context-responsive language use.
- **Provide Role-Specific Language Support:** Design professional development programs that are sensitive to the linguistic needs of different roles (e.g., faculty vs. admin), with a focus on communicative competence, not just grammar and vocabulary.
- **Value Arabic in Professional Spaces:** Ensure Arabic is not seen as "less professional" in institutional contexts. Celebrate it as the language of culture, connection, and community, especially in internal communications.
- **Encourage Cross-role Interaction:** Create opportunities (e.g., workshops, joint committees, language exchange sessions) that bring together faculty and admin staff to share language strategies and build communicative alignment.

5.4.2 Recommendations for Future Research

- **Expand Research Beyond Role-Based Comparison:** Future research should explore how bilingual language profiles are influenced by other variables, such as department culture, years of experience, gender identity, and exposure to international collaboration.
- **Longitudinal Studies on Language Proficiency:** Future research could focus on longitudinal studies to track language development over time and investigate how early exposure to English influences long-term fluency and comfort in speaking.
- **Investigating the Role of Digital and Media Exposure:** Another area for future research is the role of digital media (such as social media, online courses, and multimedia) in language acquisition.
- **Exploring the Role of Cultural Identity in Language Acquisition:** Further studies can explore how cultural identity impacts the acquisition of a second language, particularly in bilingual or multilingual societies.

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Appendices

Appendix (1)

Bilingual Language Profile: English- Arabic

Questionnaire

The researcher is completing a study entitled: *Language Use and Speech Communities: A Study of Bilingual Language Profile of Communities of Practice in Educational Settings*, in fulfillment of the requirements for obtaining a master's degree. Therefore, we kindly ask you to carefully specify your choice for each paragraph that represents your opinion. Please note that accuracy and honesty in filling out this questionnaire will help in obtaining more objective results, and will be used for scientific research purposes only. The survey consists of 19 questions and will take less than 10 minutes to complete. This is not a test, so there are no right or wrong answers. Thank you for your participation.

I. Biographical Information

College (Law, Health Sciences)) Role (faculty, administrative

Age ☐ Male / ☐ Female

Highest level of formal education:	☐ Less than high school	☐ High school	☐
Some college	☐ College (B.A., B.S.)	☐ Some graduate school	☐
Masters	☐ PhD/MD/JD	☐ Other: _____	

Birdsong, D., Gertken, L.M., & Amengual, M. *Bilingual Language Profile: An Easy-to-Use Instrument to Assess Bilingualism*. COERLL, University of Texas at Austin. Web. 20 Jan. 2012.
<<https://sites.la.utexas.edu/bilingual/>>.

II. Language history

In this section, we would like you to answer some factual questions about your language history by placing a check in the appropriate box.

1. At what age did you **start learning** the following languages?

English

Since birth 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20+

Arabic

Since birth 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20+

2. At what age did you **start to feel comfortable** using the following languages?

English

As early as I can remember 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17

Arabic

As early as 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 ☐ ☐ ☐

18 19 20+ not yet can remember

3. How many years of **classes (grammar, history, math, etc.)** have you had in the following languages (primary school through university)?

English

18 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20+

Arabic

18 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 ☐ ☐ ☐

4. How many years have you spent in a **country/region** where the following languages are spoken?

English

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17

18 19 20+

Arabic

18 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17

5. How many years have you spent in a **family** where the following languages are spoken?

English

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17

Arabic

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17

6. How many years have you spent in a **work environment** where the following languages are spoken?

English

☐

0

☐

1

☐

2

☐

3

☐

4

☐

5

☐

6

☐

7

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8

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16

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17

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☐

☐

18

19

20+

Arabic

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0

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1

☐

2

☐

3

☐

4

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5

☐

6

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7

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8

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9

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14

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15

☐

16

☐

17

☐

☐

☐

18

19

20+

III. Language use

In this section, we would like you to answer some questions about your language use by placing a check in the appropriate box. Total use for all languages in a given question should equal 100%.

7. In an average week, what percentage of the time do you use the following languages **with friends**?

English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Arabic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Other languages	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

8. In an average week, what percentage of the time do you use the following languages **with family**?

English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Arabic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Other languages	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

9. In an average week, what percentage of the time do you use the following languages **at school/work**?

English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Arabic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Other languages	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

10. When you talk to yourself, how often do you **talk to yourself** in the following languages?

English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Arabic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Other languages	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

11. When you count, how often do you **count** in the following languages?

English	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Arabic	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%
Other languages	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	0%	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

IV. Language proficiency

In this section, we would like you to rate your language proficiency by giving marks from 0 to 6.

6=very well

12. a. How well do you speak **English**?
5 6

b. How well do you speak **Arabic**?
5 6

13. a. How well do you understand **English**?
5 6

b. How well do you understand **Arabic**?
5 6

14. a. How well do you read **English**?
5 6

b. How well do you read **Arabic**?
5 6

15. a. How well do you write **English**?
5 6

b. How well do you write **Arabic**?
5 6

0=not well at all

0 1 2 3 4
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ ☐

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
0 1 2 3 4

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

0 1 2 3 4
☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
0 1 2 3 4

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
0 1 2 3 4

☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

0 1 2 3 4

0 1 2 3 4

V. Language attitudes

In this section, we would like you to respond to statements about language attitudes by giving marks from 0-6.

6=agree

16. a. I feel like myself when I speak **English**.
5 6

b. I feel like myself when I speak **Arabic**.
5 6

17. a. I identify with an **English-speaking** culture.
5 6

b. I identify with a **Arabic-speaking** culture.
5 6

18. a. It is important to me to use (or eventually use) **English** like a native speaker.
5 6

b. It is important to me to use (or eventually use) **Arabic** like a native speaker.
5 6

19. a. I want others to think I am a native speaker of **English**.
5 6

b. I want others to think I am a native speaker of **Arabic**.
5 6

0=disagree

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6

Appendix (2)

Interview Questions:

- "Can you share how your language choices vary depending on the context within the college?",
- "What factors influence your decision to speak one language over another?",
- "How do you feel your bilingualism affects your relationships with peers or faculty/administrators?",
- "What role does language play in forming your identity within the college community?".

Responses:

Faculty Members Response	Administrative Staff Response
"When I'm teaching, I always use English—it's expected, especially for science-related subjects. But outside the classroom, especially with staff or during school events, I naturally switch to Arabic. It feels more personal, more us"	"If I'm talking to faculty members or sending emails, I tend to use English—it's expected. But when it comes to student services or chatting with my colleagues, Arabic feels more natural and efficient"
"I speak Arabic in meetings with admin because it's just easier and everyone's more comfortable. But when I'm with students, especially those in advanced courses, English is the norm. It's about matching the language to the people and the purpose"	"Honestly, I speak Arabic most of the time. I only use English when I have to—like when handling external documents or when the other person doesn't speak Arabic well"

“Honestly, I choose the language that helps me get my point across more clearly. Sometimes I start in English but switch to Arabic if I feel students are struggling—or the other way around. It’s about being understood”	"Being bilingual helps me connect with both sides—teachers and students. I can explain things in Arabic when needed, but I can also hold my own in meetings or emails in English. It helps me do my job better"
“Arabic helps me connect better with new faculty or staff. It makes things feel less formal and more familiar. English, though, has its place—it sets a certain professional tone in academic settings”	"Arabic brings people closer, especially in the break room or during events. It’s the language of jokes, stories, and real talk. English is more for business"
“Sometimes I speak Arabic even when I don’t have to, just because it feels more natural. But I know when to switch to English—especially when dealing with documents, policies, or external communication”	"When I write official reports, I use English—it looks more professional. But with students or new staff, Arabic helps make things easier and more friendly"
“Being bilingual helps me bridge gaps. I can talk to administrators, faculty, and students with ease. It gives me access to all parts of the community. I’m not stuck in one group”	"Knowing both languages gives me confidence. I don’t feel left out when something is in English. It’s helped me grow in my role, especially with faculty and leadership"

“Sometimes I don’t even notice when I switch between languages. It just happens—mid-sentence even. It depends on who I’m talking to and what we’re talking about”	"Sometimes people mix languages in meetings, and it gets confusing. I usually try to stick to one language depending on the group, so no one feels lost"
“In the classroom, I’m all about English—it’s part of the job. But in the staff lounge or casual spaces, Arabic dominates. It’s almost like I wear different hats in different languages”	"I use more English with department heads and managers—it just feels expected. But with my peers, Arabic is how we talk and bond. It keeps the vibe relaxed"
“Arabic grounds me—it connects me to my roots. But English is part of who I am professionally. I don’t think I could teach the way I do without both”	"Even though I use English a lot at work, Arabic is my home. It’s part of who I am, and I feel proud to use it—even in professional settings"
“Sometimes I feel pressure to use English more, especially around other faculty or in professional development settings. But Arabic is still my default when I want to be myself”	"Sometimes I speak in Arabic and sprinkle in English terms, especially when the topic is technical. It’s not planned—it just flows"

ملخص البحث:

تبحث هذه الدراسة الممارسات اللغوية لدى المجتمعات الكلامية ثنائية اللغة والمكونة من أعضاء هيئة التدريس والإداريين في الجامعات السعودية، مع التركيز على استخدام اللغتين العربية والإنجليزية في المجالات الشخصية والأكاديمية والمهنية. حيث أظهرت البيانات المستقاة من ٩٩ مشاركاً وجود فصل وظيفي واضح في استخدام اللغتين. فقد هيمنت اللغة العربية في السياقات الشخصية (٨٨.٦٪ مع العائلة، ٧٢.٣٪ مع الأصدقاء) وفي العمليات المعرفية الداخلية مثل الحديث مع النفس (٦٣.٧٪)، بينما كانت اللغة الإنجليزية أكثر استخداماً في البيئات المهنية (٥٢.٢٪). وأظهر المشاركون تمكناً في استخدام اللغة العربية كمتحدثين أصليين (٦/٦)، بينما كانت الكفاءة متوسطة في استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية. وكانت مهارات التلقّي في الإنجليزية (الاستماع: ٦/٥، القراءة: ٦/٤.٧) أقوى من المهارات الإنتاجية (الكتابة: ٦/٤.٢). كما ارتبطت الهوية الثقافية ارتباطاً وثيقاً باللغة العربية (٥.٨-٦/٥.٩) وأقل ارتباطاً بالإنجليزية (٣.٢-٦/٣.٨). وأظهرت أنماط اكتساب اللغة أن التعرض المبكر للغة العربية (متوسط العمر: ٠.٨ سنة) كان سبباً في الشعور بالراحة في استخدامها (٥.٤ سنوات)، مقارنةً بالبداية المتأخرة لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية (متوسط العمر: ٧.٦ سنوات) وتأخر ظهور شعور الراحة لاستخدامها (١٢.٥ سنة). وظهرت علاقات ارتباط هامة: إذ ارتبط الانغماس الأكبر في اللغة الإنجليزية ارتباطاً قوياً بزيادة مستوى الراحة في التحدث بها ($r = 0.71$)، في حين ارتبطت البداية المبكرة بتعلم الإنجليزية ارتباطاً سلبياً بالراحة في استخدامها ($r = -0.62$). وتؤكد هذه النتائج الدور المحوري للغة العربية كعنصر أساسي للهوية الثقافية، بينما تؤدي اللغة الإنجليزية دوراً وظيفياً عملياً في السياقات المهنية والأكاديمية. وتُشير النتائج إلى أن التخصص الأكاديمي له تأثير أكبر على الممارسات اللغوية لدى المجتمعات الكلامية ثنائية اللغة مقارنةً بالدور المهني أو الجنس، مما يُبرز أهميته في صياغة سياسات لغوية خاصة بالتخصصات الأكاديمية المختلفة. كما تقترح النتائج ضرورة توفير دعم مؤسسي يعزز التجارب العملية للانغماس باللغة الإنجليزية مع اعتماد مناهج تعليمية تراعي الهوية مما يُسهم في تعزيز التكامل ثنائي اللغة في مؤسسات التعليم العالي.

الكلمات المفتاحية: الثنائية اللغوية، استخدام اللغة، الملف اللغوي الثنائي، الأنماط الاجتماعية اللغوية، المجتمعات الكلامية، مجتمع الممارسة.



جامعة البحرين

قسم اللغة الإنجليزية وآدابها

كلية الآداب

استخدام اللغة والمجتمعات الكلامية: دراسة الملف اللغوي

لمجتمعات الممارسة المهنية ثنائية اللغة في البيئات التعليمية

أطروحة مقدمة كجزء من متطلبات الحصول على درجة الماجستير في الدراسات التطبيقية في اللغة

الإنجليزية

اعداد

لطيفه بنت خالد الحسين

٢٠٢٢٠١٤٦٩

اشراف

د. مدني عثمان

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جامعة البحرين

مملكة البحرين

مايو ٢٠٢٥