IMPORTANT FACTORS TO CONSIDER FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN
THE UAE

A THESIS IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

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IMPORTANT FACTORS TO CONSIDER FOR BILINGUAL EDUCATION IN THE UAE

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ABSTRACT

Despite the great number of schools which claim to foster bilingualism in the UAE, the voices of many educators and parents in the media reflect the difficulties that these schools face in trying to provide balanced bilingual programs that develop and maintain Arabic and English. Many variables influence the effectiveness of such programs in achieving bilingualism. However, based on results from a previous pilot study that I conducted for the bilingual education course in this MA program at the American University of Sharjah, the focus of this research is on three major factors that appear to interfere with the effectiveness of bilingual programs in the UAE: (a) adequacy of the school culture and language policy used to implement the whole curriculum in promoting bilingualism; (b) teachers’ use of effective language teaching strategies and their attitudes towards bilingualism; and (c) parents’ attitudes towards their children’s L1 and L2 learning.

The study examines these factors in two bilingual schools in the UAE - one in Sharjah and one in Dubai - to assess the degree of awareness by school administrators, teachers, and parents of their role in promoting bilingualism, their attitudes towards the two languages, and the actual teaching practices. The data were collected through questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations. In addition, school variables such as language policy and culture, the type of curriculum and coordination between its subjects, and the value accorded to the two languages of instruction were analyzed in light of previous research on factors affecting bilingual education.
Qualitative analysis of collected data revealed that language policies and curricula did not favor the development of a balanced bilingualism, teachers were not well trained or informed of practices that promote the students’ bilingual proficiency, neither were parents aware of their role in their children’s bilingual education.
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DEDICATION

I dedicate this to my mother and husband whose great expectations for me have kept me going. Mom, Abdullah, I finally did it!
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Linguistic Context in the UAE

The official language in the UAE is Arabic. The social, cultural, and local business activities are mostly dominated by spoken Gulf Arabic (Gordon, 2005), while Standard Arabic is used for written materials, and formal speeches. The complex make up of the UAE population has additionally integrated English as lingua franca, and Urdu is widespread due to the substantial presence of populations from the subcontinent.

The use of two varieties of Arabic common to all Arab countries is known as diglossia (Ferguson, 1959). Fergusson defines diglossia as the use of two or more varieties of the same language by one community for different functions. The classical, Modern or Standard Arabic, are labels for the form that is viewed as the high variety, and used for official and academic contexts, such as writing/reading, reporting the news, conducting research or dealing with government transactions. The other variety, considered the low variety is more common and is used in everyday conversations such as those with family members, friends, colleagues at work, and in shopping. In most Arab countries, only the well educated are proficient in Standard Arabic, and although each Arab region has its own dialect that is prevalent among its population, there are similarities that help the different Arab populations understand each other using a middle ground variety referred to as Educated Spoken Arabic.

Issues of Bilingual Education in the UAE

The Arab population in the UAE comes from different parts of the Arab world, affecting the Arabic language education in two ways. The first is positive for a balance is created between the great number of foreigners and the low percentage of Emirati nationals (21.9% of the whole population) according to the UAE Yearbook (2007). The second is negative because supplementary linguistic difficulty is added to the diglossic situation when Arab teachers and students with different dialects mix in schools.

A major issue in developing an effective language program is the diglossic situation of Arabic due to the fact that students are required to be proficient in a
variety of language- the high form- which they are not sufficiently exposed to. The UAE context is even multiglossic since the different teachers’ dialects used to explain lessons typically include a number of assorted dialects for the different student populations, whereas material/books are only presented in the form that is rarely used (Modern Standard Arabic, MSA).

The diversity of the UAE population makes it unique and shapes its language education. English, the second language, is gradually taking over many aspects of daily life in the UAE, particularly in higher education and international business activities (Kabeil, 2005). The marketplace of the UAE requires employees with proficiency in the global language, not only as a lingua franca among the expatriates, but English as a second language for the Emiratis. It is even suggested that one of the main obstacles for employing UAE nationals is their lack of competence in English (“UAE Yearbook,” 2004).

As a result, many universities have been established using English as a medium of instruction to fulfill the big companies’ job requirements (Ahmad, 2000). The public and private schools are subsequently pressured to provide UAE students with bilingual proficiency in order to enable them to proceed successfully in their universities and future careers. Thereby, increasing efforts are made to integrate the English curriculum into school programs, leading to the development of different educational approaches in UAE private schools where the main goal is to enhance English proficiency. Some examples are internationally recognized curricula, such as the British or American curricula, which attract a lot of students who might need to transfer to other schools or join universities abroad. The Ministry of education, in addition, imposes its Arabic language curriculum on Arab students, and its Islamic Education curriculum on Muslims in all private schools.

As for public schools, which are intended for Emiratis, the Ministry of education provides them with a curriculum that offers all subjects in Arabic medium of instruction except for an English language program starting from grade one. This English syllabus has been reformed several times in an attempt to improve bilingual competence in public schools. In fact, the Ministry of education is currently implementing an experimental program (“Al Ghad Schools,” 2007) which uses English as medium of instruction of math and science in a number of public schools.
Statement of the Problem

As a result, the English proficiency placement tests administered by universities suggest that students have trouble in adapting to the university English curriculum (Ahmad, 2000). Rababah (2003) and Weiss (2003) also describe the student situation as having general weakness in communicating in English that could be partly attributed to weakness in their native language. Hence, claims not only refer to the students’ incompetence in English, but to their low proficiency in Arabic too (Weiss, 2003).

An important issue is the methodology of Arabic teachers who continue to conduct teacher centered classes, where instruction is based on rote learning and obsolete methods (AlKhalidi, 2006; Salam, 2004; UAE Yearbook, 2004). A recent study reported in Khaleej Times ("Most Gulf students", 2004) suggests that the problem Arabic native speakers are faced with is that the Standard variety used in education for literacy is taught by teachers who are not professionally qualified. Rashid (2005) adds that they are the least paid especially in private schools, and most of them lack career perspectives, which affects their motivation and in turn their performance.

English teaching also has its problems since its teachers are sometimes forced to give classes in subjects outside their field because the schools are either trying to compensate for the teacher shortage or save money (Sankar, 2006). Piles of complaints about teacher qualification in private schools have reached the Ministry until it finally issued legislation act # 4592 in 2001. A Bachelor degree in the field of specialization is required as the basic qualification for all teachers. However, some teachers are still employed without teaching qualification as reported in the Khaleej Times ("Call for Appointment", 2005).

Additional factors were referred to by teachers during a pilot study I conducted in Sharjah for one of the MA program courses. Findings suggested that teachers were neither adequately prepared nor supported to overcome the difficulties faced in developing their students’ biliteracy (Hamidedeen, 2005). Teachers were also frustrated with the parents’ attitudes towards the learning process, the performance of their students, as well as the school administration’s lenience in putting into effect the school regulations and discipline. The study also revealed that among the factors limiting the effectiveness of the bilingual program was the poor or even lack of
coordination between the administration and the teaching staff with regards to their different duties. There was, moreover, a clear discrepancy between the teaching methods of English (practice and creativity) and those used in teaching Arabic (repetition and memorization) producing different motivational effects on the students’ language learning process. Thus, innumerable calls for educational reform are being heard from educators and parents alike (Ahmad, 2000; “Institutions Urged,” 2004; Mussalam, 2003; Salam, 2004; Sankar, 2004; Zeitoun, 2000).

Purpose of the Research

In spite of the fact that a lot of research has been done worldwide to examine the outcomes of bilingual education, very little research in bilingual education is conducted in the Gulf Region. Thereby, the purpose of my research is to raise awareness to the problems of bilingual instruction in the UAE in particular, and in the Gulf Region in general by investigating the most important factors that can enhance its effectiveness bearing in mind the above educational issues.

Eventually, this study tries to examine the outcomes (strengths and weaknesses) of bilingual programs in private schools that target Arabs in the UAE, and promise to develop Arabic (MSA) and English competencies in their students. The inspected schools are compared vis a vis the particular factors that characterize them, in attempt to uncover information that could be used to carry out needed transformations to achieve higher levels of bilingual proficiency.

Research Questions

Investigating the variables that come into play in bilingual education and affect MSA and English learning is expected to be useful in shedding light on the most important factors that are needed for a bilingual program to be effective. Hence, the main question that this study seeks to answer is: what are the key factors necessary for implementing a successful bilingual education program in the UAE context?

Bearing in mind that countless factors are at play in implementing effective bilingual programs, and building on findings from pilot study, this study mainly focuses on the impact of three critical variables on the bilingual programs’ outcomes in the UAE: the school culture and language policy used to implement the bilingual
curriculum, teachers’ use of effective language teaching strategies and their attitudes towards bilingualism, and parents’ attitudes towards their children’s bilingual education. Specifically, the present study addresses the following questions:

1. Which type of educational policies and curricula favor bilingual instruction?
2. What kind of teaching practices and attitudes promote bilingual development?
3. To what extent do the parents’ attitudes towards bilingual education impact their children’s academic outcomes?

To attempt to answer these questions qualitative data were collected and analyzed from two private schools recommended by the Ministry of Education as model bilingual schools, one in Sharjah and the other in Dubai. In addition, my personal relationship with many teachers in both schools - my daughter graduated from the Sharjah school in 2006, and my son attended it for four years until 2006; when he started attending the Dubai school - offered me a special insight into them.

This thesis consists of the following chapters: Chapter one presents a detailed literature review that attempts to clarify issues in bilingualism: acquired levels of bilingualism, major perspectives on bilingual education, prevailing bilingual education models, and the leading functional variables for successful bilingual programs, especially those focused on in this study. Chapter two describes the research methodology together with the identification of the participants, and instruments used to collect data. Chapter three presents the findings and analyzes the research results. Chapter four discusses the implications from both the findings and the literature review. Finally chapter five concludes and points out to the limitations of the research and the areas that require further research. The appendices comprise the forms of the teacher, parent, and student questionnaires, the co directors’ and heads’ of department interviews, the classroom observation checklist, and tables demonstrating the types of curricula in both schools.
CHAPTER 2  
LITERATURE REVIEW

Before examining bilingual education in the UAE, it is important to clarify some of the questions that arise with the complex issue of bilingualism. First, the field’s varying definitions and effects of bilingualism were reviewed to shed light on inconsistencies and complex facets. The second section explored the levels of bilingualism that result from the different bilingual education settings in order to enable us to understand the circumstances that lead to such outcomes. In the third section, the prevailing models of bilingual education around the world were introduced, including the Arab countries whose populations are known to use more than one language such as Tunisia. The final section reviewed research related to variables that play significant roles in bilingual schooling, in view of the three factors investigated in this study, and how they affect students’ bilingual proficiency.

Definition and Effects of Bilingualism

The simple manner in which *The Columbia Encyclopedia* (2003) defines bilingualism as “the ability to use two languages” masks the complexities involved in any attempt to study bilingualism. Researchers such as Harding-Esch and Riley (2003) indicate that if people in the street were asked about whom they consider bilingual, they would most probably refer to someone who speaks two languages “perfectly” (p. 22). As bilingual competence is compared to monolingual competence, the degree of perfection at which monolinguals communicate needs to be determined. Even when monolinguals are assumed to communicate perfectly in their own language because it is their only way of expressing themselves, they are not expected to master their own language in all contexts to the same degree. A person does not become equally skillful in two languages in all areas including legal, business, medical etc. as well as in their daily conversations at home (Baker, 2001). Moreover, bilinguals do not usually use their two languages for the same functions. Baker (2001) proposes that bilinguals may, for example, use one language for their career and another one when at home with the family. The complexities involved in defining bilingualism reinforce the claim that language competence is only an idealized concept that can rarely be achieved whether by monolinguals or bilinguals.
Bialystok (2001) defines the term more realistically by trying to combine function and competence. She interprets it along a certain continuum of the existing levels of bilingualism, starting from the unrealistic standard of “full fluency in two languages” to the more realistic level of functioning in two languages “according to given needs” (p. 4). In her definition, she explains that bilinguals can rarely become balanced bilinguals, that is, equally proficient in both languages, and points out that even when one language is dominant in a particular context, performance in the other language may be higher in other contexts. So, as a matter of fact, bilingualism in practice refers to the ability to understand and actively interact with one’s surroundings in two languages for different functions.

If we extend Bialystok’s definition to academic contexts by including biliteracy, which is the ability to read and write in two languages, a new level of bilingualism is revealed. Baker (2001) describes this level of language ability, as the competence that students attain as a result of in-depth interaction with the presentations of the school curriculum, which researchers (Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2000) call academically related language competence. In this context, bilingualism will comprise skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing, in two languages. However, some of these skills will most probably be less developed than others, and as mentioned above, the degree of proficiency in one language might not be equal to that of the other language in different skills.

Another controversial issue arises when children are exposed to bilingualism through bilingual education concerns the effects it might have on them. Early research suggested the Vernacular Advantage Theory, proposing that the mismatch between the home language and the school language, used as medium of instruction, affects the cognitive development of bilingual students negatively either by causing ‘mental confusion’, or a decrease in their L1 skills (Darcy, 1953; McNamara, 1966, cited in Cummins 2001). Thus, this theory discouraged starting children’s education in a language different from their mother tongue claiming it has a negative effect on the cognitive development of students.

The above view on bilingualism came under attack with Peal and Lambert (1962, cited in Baker, 2001) where children studying in their L2 achieved higher levels of academic and linguistic skills than those studying in their native language only. Their research was viewed as a counter-evidence experiment to the Vernacular
Advantage Theory since it revealed that bilingualism has positive effects on the cognitive development of bilingual students. Many subsequent research findings confirmed this latter finding, yet others still found that bilingual students had poor academic achievements when taught in L2 (Cummins, 2001). A level of competence referred to as “semilingualism” was even discerned by Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) representing the underdeveloped language proficiency that some bilingual learners achieve. The term was used to describe the level of language skills of the Finnish migrant workers’ children in Sweden; while the American educators used “limited English proficiency” (LEP) to describe the minority students’ limited competence in the English language (Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2000).

A number of educators and researchers started reviewing the early and recent research with the aim to understand the grounds on which these contradictory results were based. They investigated the school, social and cultural contexts suggesting that linguistic factors are unimportant in the sequencing of L1 and L2 learning. When research compared between situations where bilingualism had negative results and situations where it had positive results, two types of approaches to bilingualism were distinguished: additive versus subtractive (Baker, 2001; Cummins, 2000).

Baker (2001) refers to the distinction between additive and subtractive bilingualism, as the conflicting conditions in which bilingual instruction takes place. He suggests that additive bilingualism occurs in a situation where the bilinguals’ L1 (most probably a majority language) is not threatened to be replaced or devalued, because acquiring two languages (whether majority or minority) is regarded as a linguistic and cultural gain to the individual and/or society. In Canada, Wales, Luxembourg and some other countries in the world, where this view of bilingualism is adopted, the outcomes of their bilingual programs are highly successful.

Subtractive bilingualism refers to situations in which the bilinguals’ L1 (probably a minority language) and cultures are devalued in the majority language community, and are sought to be totally or gradually replaced by the L2 (most probably a majority language). In such situations, a subtractive form of bilingualism occurs where the minority communities acquire the dominant second language at the expense of losing their first language. Until recently, this subtractive bilingualism has prevailed in the UK, the USA, and some other parts of the world, where minority languages such as Urdu, Spanish, and some indigenous African languages have been
suppressed by the majority language governments for being regarded as low in status (Hornberger, 2003). These governmental undertakings have been frequently criticised for disadvantaging minority learners on the basis of political decisions that disempower certain categories of the community, instead of considering educational resolutions that benefit the whole society (Baker, 2001; Crawford, 2006; Cummins, 2000; Nieto, 2002). Thus, the level of bilingualism that bilingual people reach is greatly affected by the positive or negative attitudes of the learning environment and policies in and out of school.

Levels of Bilingualism

In the course of discussing issues related to bilingualism we come across a multitude of levels of bilingualism that students are expected to go through on their way to achieving proficiency in the two languages. Cummins (1976, cited in Cummins, 2001) first introduced the notion of levels of bilingualism, in the sixties, when he tried to account for the contradictory research findings regarding the effects of bilingualism on the cognitive development of children. Cummins (1976, in Cummins, 2001) came up with The Threshold Theory which relates the low levels of competence in both languages, referred to as semilingualism, to the negative effects to which bilinguals are exposed to in the absence of L1 maintenance.

Cummins’ Threshold Theory assumes that there are two thresholds representing two levels of language competence which determine the sort of effect that specific ranges of bilingualism will have on learners. It is hypothesized that if bilinguals’ first exposure to L2 occurs when their L1 competence is still low, it may lead to difficulties and negative cognitive effects. Such negative effects are avoided when the children’s L1 is developed to reach the first threshold level. At this stage, learners are supposed to attain a native like level in L1, and a quasi native like oral competence in L2. Consequently, they probably have no more detrimental consequences on their cognitive development, since one of their languages is good enough to allow for transfer of information to the other. Ultimately, if they are helped out through the mediation of L1 maintenance, as well as further L2 development, the bilingual learners will attain the second threshold level. This latter stage corresponds to a level of language competence, which enables them to perform successfully in all academic contexts almost equally in both languages, in addition to benefiting from
positive cognitive effects that balanced bilinguals demonstrate in comparison to monolinguals (Cummins, 2001; Rivera, 2002). Cummins (2001; n.d.) distinguishes between these two levels to clarify his Threshold Theory. The first threshold level is labeled as “basic interpersonal communicative skills” (BICS), referring to the simple communication skills that students need for daily conversations. The second threshold level referred to as the “cognitive academic language proficiency” (CALP) is the level of language skills that students need to be able to deal with the school curriculum.

At the BICS level, which is comparable to the L2 native speakers’ oral fluency, the learners’ L2 competence does not yet enable them to handle the L2 content material at a similar level as monolinguals. Such a condition might have led to them being labeled as “semilinguals” or LEP because even when their cognitive knowledge is comparable to monolinguals, their L2 performance is not yet good enough to deliver information in L2 assessments. Thereby, educators should be aware that it takes much more time for CALP to be developed than BICS (Cummins, 2000).

The above Threshold Theory has received support from several researchers (Labeova, 2000; Lasagabaster, 1998; Krashen, 1999), since it conciliates the conflicting research findings on bilingualism and cognition, and explains the different levels of competence emerging among learners in the implementation of various types of bilingual programs. It has been used to explain the effects of the various types of bilingual programs on the development of bilingualism, the relationship between the bilinguals’ two languages, and its influence on academic performance and points out to the importance of carefully planning the beginning stages of L2 learning in bilingual education.

Nevertheless, the theory does not identify or define the exact language competence levels that students should attain to cross the threshold levels in order to avoid the negative effects, or gain the positive effects of bilingualism. How good should they be in the different dimensions of language (reading, writing, speaking, and listening) before instruction in L2 is introduced? Moreover, what type of language communication is needed to attain these levels (Baker, 2001)?

In an attempt to remedy these shortcomings, Cummins (n.d.) extended his BICS and CALP distinction by elaborating on two communicative dimensions. The first represents the extent to which communication is assisted in context with body language or non-verbal communication (pointing, gestures, intonation, and verbal
cues). The second represents the extent to which communication requires cognitive processing. Each dimension is illustrated by a continuum corresponding to high or low levels of either dimension. The ends illustrating contextual support are referred to as “context embedded communication” and “context reduced communication”, while those which illustrate cognitive demands are referred to as “cognitively demanding communication” and “cognitively undemanding communication.”

Cummins (2000) integrated the hypothetical levels into the two intersecting continua—illustrated as four quadrants shown in Figure 1—to draw attention to the variable amounts of contextual support and cognitive demands engaged in the classroom activities and tasks. Thus, he analyzed the two proficiency levels (BICS and CALP) in coordination with these four communicative phases. For example, in context reduced communication such as in mathematics or science lessons, where the words have specific meanings, a child at the BICS level will either need the support of his L1, or the support of L2 context embedded communication to understand. BICS skills enable learners to only handle cognitively undemanding communication in L2. As for those who have acquired the CALP, they can perform and cope with context reduced communication as well as cognitively demanding communication.

Language growth depends on learners’ needs and the support they are given. Quadrant A of the vertical continuum corresponds to the activities and tasks that are
supported with interpersonal and situational cues and require little cognitive involvement such as casual conversation in class. Quadrant C represents a slightly higher type of tasks, where meanings are more restricted to words than cues, but the demand for cognitive knowledge is still low like filling in worksheets, or copying from the board. These upper parts of the vertical continuum represent the BICS level. Quadrants B and D characterize tasks that are already somehow challenging to L2 learners. Quadrant B corresponds to the level where tasks can be cognitively demanding but might still require some assistance through use of language with contextual cues. Finally, quadrant D corresponds to the CALP level, which can deal with cognitively demanding material using context reduced language.

Cummins (1999), and other researchers (Hakuta, Butler, & Witt, 2000; Rivera, 2002), claim that attaining surface language skills that make use of context embedded communication (BICS) in L2 requires two to three years; whereas developing them sufficiently to cope with context reduced communication (CALP) might require from five to seven or even nine years depending on many interacting variables. Such periods are designated based on intensive exposure to L2, where it is widely used in the broader community.

Cummins (2001) further refined his Threshold Theory by adding the “Developmental Interdependence hypothesis” which suggests that young learners’ L2 proficiency depends partially on the L1 proficiency they have already developed. It, moreover, confirms that reinforcing or maintaining the learners’ L1 will not be at the expense of L2 learning even when time is needed to teach content material in L2 medium. Cummins (n.d.) explains that since the L1 (mother tongue) is faster and more effective in developing academic proficiency, and such skills could be easily transferred to L2, it is recommended that bilingual programs focus on developing L1 which subsequently facilitate better L2 achievement. Countless research studies have supported this principle by showing a strong correlation between the learners’ L1 and L2 proficiency when bilingual learners benefit from literacy instruction in both languages (Francis, 1999; Krashen, 1996; Nguyen and shin, 2001; Thomas and Collier, 2004; Tucker, 1999).

Cummins (2000) also stipulates that all bilinguals and even multilinguals have a central unified processing system called the “Common Underlying Proficiency” or (CUP) which they can resort to and further develop when using any of their
languages. The significance of this notion is that bilingual education should focus on developing the students’ CUP in whatever language is more practical for the learners, until their language ability (CALP) could deal with the curriculum activities. It is evidently fairer and much easier for learners to be given conceptual material in their L1, when their L2 is still below the academic level to make sure understanding occurs. It has also been noted that transfer of knowledge seems more likely to take place from L1 to L2, when L1 is more developed, and L2 is the language of the environment. In this perspective, developing the cognitive knowledge and skills in L1 is considered as a catalyst or short cut to developing L2 skills (Cummins, 2001; Krashen & McField, 2005).

Cummins’ theories have important instructional implications. They can be utilized as guides to curriculum planning, teaching strategies, and choice of classroom activities with regards to the learners’ educational backgrounds and experiences that determine their levels and needs (Cline & Frederickson, 1996; Krashen, 1999).

Despite of evidence that research provides to reveal the important role that L1 has in bilingual education by supporting cognitive growth and enhancing L2 learning, bilingual education still takes different forms based on the type of perspectives that the policy makers hold for this type of education.

Perspectives on Bilingual Education

Bilingual education around the world remains controversial. Studies reveal a dichotomy in the way bilingual education (hereafter BE) is viewed. When elites go through instruction in two languages, it is perceived as a prestigious program for student preparation. When minority students are subjected to the same bilingual program to maintain their L1, this program is criticized as ineffective for undermining the students’ preparation to be well integrated in the majority community. This is especially true when there is call for state funding and/or learners with different language backgrounds are put at an equal footing (Cummins, 2000). This is why, the debate about the effectiveness of BE is actually considered a political issue that involves power relationships between different groups in a community (Cummins, 2000; Crawford, 2006; Nieto, 2002).

Baker (2000 b) ascribes debatable ideological outlooks to conflicting political, social, and educational motives for bilingual education that govern these outlooks.
Only two are presented for the purpose of the study. First, there is the assimilation versus the pluralist view. The former view fosters abandoning one’s L1, and learning the L2 to become assimilated in the majority community or melting pot. It thus views the minority students’ L1 as a problem, and in turn seeks to eradicate it by focusing on fixing their deficient L2 in order to place them with the mainstream population. In contrast, the pluralist view encourages building a society where the minority populations’ first languages are kept and respected, while the majority language is used as the language of wider communication or lingua franca. This view of L1 as resource encourages keeping minority languages, and using them in dealing with global economic affairs.

Second, the integrationist versus the separatist views focus on whether the minority community should be integrated with the rest of the society through providing L2 instruction or isolated in separate communities through maintaining L1 instruction as a protective reaction to preserve their L1 and culture against the pressures to abandon them.

These ideological positions account for the different approaches that bilingual models embrace regarding the amount of time (years) spent in learning L1 and L2, the subject allocation given to each language, and/or the age/grade level in which the L1 and L2 are introduced.

Models of Bilingual Education

The term “bilingual education” has sometimes labeled programs that do not necessarily teach students to become bilingual, or even offer instruction in two languages. In the United States, for example, the label typically refers to schools, which serve minority language students to learn the English curriculum. Moreover, the categorization of BE models tends to be inconsistent. Medina (2004) explains that the label could cover schools with so many different structures and patterns depending on the position, attitude, and most of all the purpose of those who have established them. The following are some of the most renowned models of BE in the world:

Bilingual Models in the USA

Although, August and Hakuta (1997) have listed seven types of programs that are supposed to support LEP students, only three offer support of the mother tongue. In
fact, bilingual programs in the US fall under two main categories; those which aim at replacing the minority students’ L1 with the majority language; and those which aim at maintaining it (Baker, 2001).

The first category includes two subcategories referred to as submersion (sometimes wrongly labeled immersion) and transitional programs reflecting the approaches used to reach their goals. Submersion programs provide instruction to minority students in English only for all subjects (Brisk, 1998). The proponents of this category believe the best way to learn an L2 is to be directly immersed in it with no exposure to L1, which is seen as a hindrance (Cummins, 1998; Greene, 1998). Transitional programs offer minority students education in their mother tongue temporarily as a remedial action until they are assumed to be capable of joining the English mainstream curriculum. Later, students are often labeled LEP learners for not having acquired enough academic language proficiency when they transfer into English only classes. Subsequently, a weak and strong form of transitional bilingual programs, labeled respectively early and late exit programs have emerged. The early exit form shifts students to the mainstream curriculum after having been supported with L1 for a period between a year and three (Rivera, 2002). In contrast, the late exit program maintains teaching the students’ L1 for three to five years (Baker, 2001).

Though none of these programs is concerned with maintaining or developing the diverse students’ bilingualism, the proponents of this latter subcategory believe that temporarily using the native language could facilitate the assimilation into the majority language community.

The second category, called enrichment programs, aims at enriching the minority students by providing them with their L1 as well as the majority language, a process which facilitates their L2 learning while developing both languages. Two types of programs fall under this category referred to as Maintenance programs and two-way bilingual programs.

As its name suggests, Maintenance or Developmental programs maintain students’ L1 (minority language), while incorporating English as ESL and gradually reinforcing it until students have presumably reached a CALP level in both languages (Baker, 2001). The minority language is typically initiated with 50% to 80% of the curriculum time until at least grade six, with the justification that it ensures understanding the content subjects, which could then be easily transferred to English
medium of instruction. The other justification is that minority languages are easily lost while majority languages are easily gained (Baker, 2001). The proponents of this form of BE view language as part of one’s culture that has to be protected, and promote culture pluralism and linguistic diversity. A few public schools have applied such forms of BE especially with the Navajo language. However, they are mostly implemented by the ethnic communities, foreign governments or religious organizations to protect the native languages of their citizens or followers like the American Indians, Polish, Asians, Haitians, Arabs and Jews.

The Two-way bilingual education (TWBE) programs, also termed as Two-way maintenance schools, or Dual programs, aim at teaching both the minority and majority students both languages simultaneously aspiring that both groups would be fluent in the two languages. The purpose of this bilingual program has a broader scope than just maintaining the individual’s native language and culture, or assimilating LEP students in L2. It views language as a ‘resource’ and aims at preparing students through full bilingualism for domestic and international working environments where diversity is the norm (Cummins, 1998; Thomas and Collier, 2004). Research shows that this type of education has not only successfully achieved high levels of bilingualism and grade appropriate levels of academic achievement; but it has been able to improve cultural awareness and self esteem (August & Hakuta, 1997; Cazabon, Nicoladis, & Lambert, 1998; Christian, 1994; Lindholm-Leary, 1990). US national studies have portrayed the TWBE program as “the program with the highest long-term academic success” (Thomas & Collier, 1997, p. 52).

Bilingual Model in Canada

In comparison to the situation in the US, Canada has a totally opposite attitude to bilingual education. Canada is officially bilingual at the national level even though seven out of its nine provinces are English speaking. Quebec is the only province with French as the official language, and New Brunswick is the only bilingual province (Mceachern, 2002). However, the government has taken upon itself the promotion of cultural awareness among its two major culture and language groups (English and French) through its educational policy.

The French Canadian Immersion Program (FCIP) was first created in the 1960s in Quebec when discontent over the linguistic and cultural inequities between
French and English-speaking Canadians was manifested. In response, a group of diligent English speaking parents decided to recognize the majority status of the French language in Quebec by redressing the imbalance of power between English and French. The parents wished to offer their children better opportunities for future jobs, and create a harmonious style of living in the Quebecois society by showing appreciation for the French language and introducing it to their children’s instruction as an L2 (Doyle, 2001; Genesee, 1999). So, the Department of Education in Quebec aimed at designing an educational program where children could be educated in French, at no cost to their English curriculum.

The proliferation of these programs in and out of Canada led to the emergence of some methodical variations in consideration to their specific contexts. The program took two main deviations regarding the stage at which students are immersed in L2, and the amount of L2 teaching (Baker, 2001). The first category produced three types of immersion programs. The early immersion programs introduced L2 in the beginner stage (kindergarten or grade one); the middle or delayed immersion programs introduced L2 between grades three or five; and finally the late immersion programs introduced L2 at the secondary level. The second category produced two types of programs. The total immersion program offers initial instruction totally in L2 for about two to three years. Then the learners’ L1 is gradually enforced over three to four years leading to the reduction of the L2/L1 proportion from 90/10 to 50/50 at the end of grade six. This form could then be stopped, or kept until grade nine when L1 starts taking hold of about 75% of the curriculum. The partial immersion program, on the other hand, provides L2 learning with a 50/50 ratio in the curriculum throughout the whole schooling period.

Most of these types have produced at least equal or even higher academic achievement and L1 proficiency, on top of L2 writing and oral capacity gains, in comparison with students who enrolled in programs other than the FCIP. Impressive statistics about FCIP show that about 25% of the young population aged between 18-29 - the time when this type of programs was created - are considered fully bilingual, making this rate of bilingualism one of the highest in the world among this age category (Doyle, 2001).
Bilingual Model in Europe

BE within the European schools movement also grew out of the initiative of a group of parents, like the FCIP in Canada. These bilingual schools were established in 1953, when a group of foreign civil workers in the European Coal and Steel Community headquarters established in Luxemburg felt the need to provide their children with specific linguistic, cultural, and academic skills that were not offered by the school system of the country (Housen, 2002).

Though the ES were mainly developed with children of EU officials in mind, they also enroll students from the host population and immigrants for social and educational reasons like preventing concentrations of a certain language community, and maintaining equilibrium among students within each language section (Baker, 2001). Currently, the students come from as many as 50 nationalities with 30 different linguistic backgrounds representing mostly minority language populations, referring to the majority language as that of the host population, and the minority languages as those of the rest of the European community.

These ES incorporate several language sections, which seek to include at least the 11 official languages of the European Union (EU: Danish, Dutch, English, French, Finnish, German, Greek, Italian, Portuguese, Spanish, and Swedish) in a way that provides for most students’ L1, while they learn two or more of the EU working languages (English, French, or German) as foreign languages (Housen, 2002). Students are offered basic education in one of the 11 official languages as their L1 from kindergarten until at least grade 8 as the dominant medium of instruction. Then it is maintained for at least 50% of the total amount of instruction until the secondary stage when more subjects start to be given in L2, and L1 is kept as a language course till the end of schooling (grade 12).

The L2 that parents choose for the children from the three working languages of the EU is initiated as a language course starting from grade one for as long as 30-45 minutes a day until grade five. Communicative teaching strategies prevail during the first three primary grades, with rare explicit language teaching. From grade three, L2 starts being provided as a medium of instruction of a general subject like physical education, and starting from grade five it is taught as a compulsory subject for at least three periods a week. Students are thus familiarized with L2, and are then encouraged to interact in imaginary contexts that imitate real life situations through games, drama,
projects and other activities. Gradually more explicit language teaching is provided such as metalinguistic explanation, or pattern drilling, whereas grammar teaching and systematic analysis of L2 is left to when the first BICS threshold is attained at the intermediate stage. The allocation of medium of instruction in L2 is gradually increased, but never exceeds that of L1 except in the final years when students have already reached the CALP. From grade three and onwards, students are also encouraged to make use of their L2 during the “European Hours” (Baker, 2001, p.224) which are activity classes designed to put together students from different language sections. Specifically, native speakers of L2 are included as language models, in games and discussions that enhance their awareness of their common European background (Housen, 2002).

In addition, a third language is offered from grades 7-10, and it becomes an elective from grade 11-12, whereas a fourth language is provided for two years, if the student specializes in languages. The same curriculum is followed by all ES in all the languages involved, leading to the European Baccalaureate, which is a diploma that gives students access to any university worldwide.

An important characteristic of the ES is that their teachers are all native speakers of the languages they use in teaching whether in language or content classes. As they have not all been trained to teach in multilingual schools, they are offered some in-service training programs prepared by the schools. Nevertheless, all the school staff are bilingual with knowledge of at least one of the working languages of the EU, and some are qualified in teaching their language to non-native students. Most notably, according to Housen (2002) teachers are observed to be dedicated to meet the ES missions and goals because they believe that multilingualism and multiculturalism are vital to the existence and continuity of the EU, other than being viable educational goals.

Another significant characteristic of ES model is the process of social engineering, which refers to their systematic combining of groups of students from different linguistic and national backgrounds in L2 classes. The purpose of such practice is to avoid any school population break up along nationalistic or linguistic grounds since they were initially put in language sections according to their L1. The natural multilingual environment and this engineered grouping in L2 classes provide ES students with regular opportunities to communicate in either L2 or L3 inside and
outside the classroom, while they might be further exposed to foreign language use in the wider environment (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1995).

Finally, it is important to note that the ES model has just recently gained recognition, and is spreading because “the European union is built around the free movement of its citizens” (Commission of European Communities, 2003, p.3), which makes learning language skills (including reading and writing) in at least two languages of the EU necessary to communicate with each other, while being an important element of becoming an EU citizen.

When it comes to evaluating the outcomes of this multilingual model, little research is found; however the research that exist show positive results (Baetens-Beardsmore, 1995; Housen, 2002). Other than the high success rates in academic achievement, studies have also shown predictable superiority in L2 outcomes when comparing ES students to those in mainstream schools learning L2 as a foreign language subject (Baker, 2001; Housen, 2002).

Bilingual Model in Tunisia

Discussion of a bilingual model from the Arab world seems necessary to this review. The example studied in this paper is the bilingual program used in public Tunisian schools for the Tunisian private schools are deemed to have inferior standards (Clark, 2006).

After the independence in 1956, the education system in Tunisia was in complete disarray due to the difficulty that the leadership was subjected to in wanting to design an education system that is suitable for its specific needs as a developing nation by replacing French with an Arabic medium of instruction. Like its other North African neighbors, Tunisia implemented an official “Arabization” policy with the aim to restore its national identity. However, the Arabization process could not occur overnight and the new administration had neither the material nor human resources to accomplish such goals, since its first modern educational curriculum content was created in French and taught by foreigners. At the outset, this process started with the primary literacy program. Then the content material was progressively Arabized, grade by grade. The math and science courses were embarked on last because of the difficulty to find teachers to teach them in Arabic.
The realization of its objectives took place progressively and somewhat inconsistently, due to the politically controversial question of whether to keep French instruction or not. Arabic alone could not satisfy the Tunisians’ prospects and scientific and technological needs in their economic turmoil. Arabic was more related to their past and heritage, whereas French was related to modernization, technological advances, and thereby their future needs. Moreover, the diglossic situation of the Arabic language surfaced, and was accentuated by the little use of Standard Arabic even in the media or in other official contexts in which standard languages are customarily used (Daoud, 2001). Thereby, the Arabization program, which was strongly pushed at the outset has in due course slowed down and become hesitant. The ensuing discontinuities in terms of the stages in which French was introduced and the subjects offered in it as L2, gave rise to differentiated language proficiency among the population, and the formation of different attitudes towards both Arabic and French language learning (Daoud, 2001).

The decision to keep tertiary instruction in French prompted schools to prepare students for the university syllabus in French by teaching it not only as a language subject, but as medium of instruction. With this perspective, the Tunisian bilingual program is structured around a compulsory basic education program that encompasses a nine year system including primary and lower secondary levels. In addition, there is an optional upper secondary level comprising four years. According to the last reform Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is initiated starting from grade one (Daoud, 2001). It is maintained as a language subject until grade 13, and used as medium of instruction for most subjects until end of grade nine, which is the end of compulsory schooling. Daoud (2001) points out that dialectal Arabic in Tunisia is occasionally used in teaching content material to support the MSA which is not widely used outside school, thereby not perfectly understood.

In examining language use in Tunisian schools from Daoud’s (2001) article, it is noted that about 90% of general teaching load in grades 1-2 is offered in MSA before the introduction of French as L2 in grade 3. Then MSA is decreased in grades 3-4, leaving space for L2 and reaching a 70/30 ratio of time allocated for MSA and French. In grades 5-6, L1 material is further decreased to a 63/37 ratio of the time. As for grades 7, 8, and 9, comparable time is offered to both language classes (17% and 15% for MSA and French respectively) leaving space for content teaching which is
totally in Arabic and raising time allocated for Arabic subjects to 71% of total instructional time. As from grade ten, when schooling becomes optional, both language courses are further reduced to give space for the scientific content material. At this stage a shift from Arabic to French medium of instruction takes place for math and science whereas economy and technology are offered in L2 only in grades 12 and 13 to prepare them for university courses in French (Clark, 2006; Daoud, 2001).

In attending to the needs of a global market economy and to support the tourist sector, the Tunisian schools furthermore add English as an L3 starting from grade seven, and a fourth language from grade ten with 11% and 7.5% of the time allocation respectively (Daoud, 2001). A major issue is the fact that there are no reliable measures of the students’ language achievement in comparison with students in other language programs to evaluate its effectiveness in producing bilingually proficient students. However, Daoud (2001, p. 211) claims that students of the mandated Tunisian program “lack spontaneity” in both French and Arabic.

Bilingual Models in the Gulf Region

The study of bilingual programs in the Gulf region is mainly focused on the private sector due to the paucity of L2 teaching in the public sector (Rashid & Rizvi, 2003). In the UAE, International Schools intended for Arabs are the most sought options of bilingual schools offering Arabic and English. The proliferation of these schools in the Gulf region is due to five factors: a) the people’s skepticism towards the existing educational programs b) the closure of the public schools to the expatriate communities c) the comparative affluence of the average family in the region d) the temporary status of a big number of the population in the UAE e) and the university requirements for high levels of English proficiency.

An important aspect of these International Schools (IS) is being accredited by recognized international agencies, in addition to being typically managed or monitored from abroad. Examples of such schools are the affiliates of the International Schools Services (ISS) (http://www.iss.edu/pages/about.html) and the GEMS Schools (http://www.gemseducation.com/server.php?show=nav.001001003), which originate from the US, and the UK respectively.

Such schools might have started without any accreditation, but eventually open up voluntarily for evaluation by a recognized international accrediting agency,
which initially sets high standards of education that the evaluated schools are required to meet or exceed. The accreditation is validated after a team of experts in the educational field have carried out on site assessments of the whole educational program and its implementation. Reaching the required high standards reflects the school’s trustworthiness and liability within the community and among other international schools. The focus is mostly on academic attainment achieved through English medium of instruction since it is the global language. The L1 instruction depends entirely on the schools’ and local government’s vision for languages and language learning. The two international schools to be examined in this study are affiliates of such agencies.

The bilingual programs reviewed above are far from being inclusive of all existing bilingual programs. They were chosen for being the most representative to illustrate the global contexts (additive/subtractive contexts) that play a major role in bilingual programs and to highlight different approaches to native language and second language proficiency development. These bilingual programs differ according to their specific contexts, such as the linguistic and cultural characteristics of the learners involved, the customary instructional approach, the allotment given to the two languages involved, the extent to which the policy makers and the community support the program, and the goals of the program.

Important Variables in Bilingual Education

The differentiated outcomes of BE have led to much research worldwide to evaluate its effectiveness (Montecel & Cortez, 2002). It is observed that any difference in the variables involved in bilingual education affect both L1 and L2 learning either positively or negatively. Thereby, the focus of current research and experimentation is set on identifying models that have been evaluated to be more successful than others, and discerning the distinctive features that make them effective as indicators of success (Garcia, 1992; Montecel & Cortez, 2002; Rivera, 2002). Not only does such data help in depicting the relevant factors of successful bilingual programs, but it enables schools with existing programs to examine their own practices, and compare them with established indicators of success with the aim to identify what should be modified to improve their educational outcomes (Garcia, 1992). This study about the effects of the school culture and educational policy, the teachers’ teaching practices and attitudes,
and the parents’ attitudes in promoting bilingual education compares the indicators of success with the existing conditions in the schools of the study to evaluate how they impact the students’ achievement.

The array of investigated factors are classified under such categories as students, teachers, parents, and school system because they concurrently involve the principal components of language learning processes.

Student Related Variables

Several student related variables impact the learning process. They include socio-economic status, experience, exposure to L1 and L2, and affective factors.

Socio-Economic Status (SES)

A well documented factor related to students is their SES, not as a determinant of effective bilingual instruction per se, but for the effects it entails on its members (Krashen, 1999). It is suggested that students of higher economic status are more exposed to print, and in turn are more prone to enter school with an ability to make sense of the printed word, to figure out how the written language works, and to have experimented with reading and writing earlier than those with lower economic status which explains the privilege detected among them (Baker, 2001; Genessee & Gandara, 1999; Rivera, 2002).

Students’ Prior Linguistic Experiences

Students’ prior experiences in L1 or L2 learning make a big difference in the type of interaction they will have in the classroom, and thus in the outcomes they will achieve (Collier, 1995; Hickey, 2001; Rolstad, Mahoney, & Glass, 2005). Students who have lived in the country of the L2, or frequently visit it will probably have higher L2 proficiency than those who have not. Students who initially learn L1 before being immersed in L2 have an advantage over those who start their education by being immersed solely in L2 since they would have already gained literacy and basic knowledge in their L1 that they can transfer to L2 when introduced to it (Krashen, 1999). The extent to which students are actually exposed to the languages they are learning outside school in everyday interactions, whether with family, friends, or in the community greatly affects their performance in school (Baker, 2001; Mc
Laughlin, Gesi Blanhard, & Osanai, 2002). For instance, if students only speak in L1 at home, have no contact with people who speak L2, and do not seek opportunities to hear the L2 even on TV, their exposure to L2 would be limited to school or language classes. This minimal input restricted to instructional settings would not enable them to achieve mastery of L2 (Knapp, 2002; O’Brien, 2002). In contrast, restricted use of L1 in school, at home, and within the broader community results in probably gradual attrition of students’ L1 whether in immigrant or similar contexts (Kayser, 2000). The context surrounding the learners along with their individual inclination and incentive to use and expose themselves to L1 and L2 play a big part in reaching the achieved level of performance. On the other hand, students’ prior experiences are also valuable in enhancing the students’ self esteem and integration in the classroom (Garcia, 1992).

**Affective Factors**

Motivation, self esteem, identity forming and anxiety levels of students are all factors that produce different student attitudes towards L1 and L2 learning. These student factors are influenced by the attitudes of their surroundings (Genesee and Gandara, 1999; Malallah, 2000), and their own experiences with the languages they are learning (Corson, 2001; Dornyei, 1994). For example, if teachers, school and/or the environment belittle students' language, culture and/or community, students would be prone to respond in one of three different ways. They might reject the L2 community, culture and language by means of drop outs or resistance to L2 learning. They might seek to withdraw into their L1 relations and community out of having developed a sense of need for self protection (Corson, 2001). Otherwise, they might feel ashamed of exhibiting their denigrated language and culture, and go through self denial leading to avoidance of one’s language, culture and community of origin as a result of lowered self esteem. A third type of reaction is that of the oppressed who lose interest in their surroundings and let negligence take over (Rivera, 2002). Alternatively, students can be motivated to develop themselves in ways that their whole behavior would improve and in turn, impact their learning outcomes (Cummins, 2000 a; Hickey, 2001; Lindholm-Leary & Borsato, 2002).
Teacher Related Variables

The gain from effectively preparing teachers for bilingual education is clearly emphasized by research (Rivera, 2002; Sugarman & Howard, 2001; Tucker, 1999). The comprehensive US report prepared by Christian, Pufahl, and Rhodes (2000) emphasizes that most research identifies well trained teachers as the most frequently cited factor that determines excellence in L2 education. The action plan prepared by the Commission of the European Communities (CEC) (2005) additionally highlights the role of training language teachers with an accent on personal values. Based on their research findings, Lee and Oxelson (2006) stress that educators who did not experience any training as language teachers communicate negative or indifferent attitudes toward their students’ bilingualism.

Teaching Standards for L2 Teachers

Based on research by a group of well-known organizations such as the National Association of Bilingual Education (NABE), the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS), the Center for Research on Education, Diversity & Excellence (CREDE), the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), and the Office of Educational Research and Improvement (OERI) of the U.S. Department of Education, seven standards that teachers need to attain are discussed for the purpose of the study:

- The teachers’ in depth knowledge of the teaching material is an important standard. As L2 teaching is increasingly offered through content education, content teachers should be as knowledgeable in the linguistic skills that enhance the students’ language learning as in their subject matter (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Kelly, 2008). Richards (n.d.) goes further to state that knowing the material is not enough, for it has to be substantiated with a grasp of basic communicative skills.

- Bilingual teachers with the same linguistic and cultural backgrounds as their students are found to be more capable of attending to their students’ needs (De Jong, 2002; Montecel & Cortez, 2002; Mora, Wink, & Wink, 2001; Rivera, 2002; Solis, 1998). Not only does passing by the same experience of learning an L2 make teachers become more sensitive to the their students’ difficulties,
but their attitudes towards language diversity are improved leading to a more positive learning environment than monolingual teachers lead (CEC, 2005; García- Nevarez, Stafford, & Arias, 2005).

- Teachers should recognize the importance of the students’ first language and culture in their education as it supports their L2 learning by acting as a basis for it (Cummins, 2001; Garcia, 1992; Krashen, 1999), and nurtures their self esteem by raising their status (Nieto, 2002; Smith, González, Poveda, Arnot-Hopffer, Carmichael, Murphy, & Valle, 2002).

- Teachers need to be familiarized with the cultural components corresponding to the students’ L1 and L2 (García- Nevarez et al., 2005). They should constantly be conscious about their own teacher-student relationship in connection with the attitudes that they might have developed towards both languages, the corresponding cultures, and their own ethnic origins (Genesee & Gandara, 1999; Montecel & Cortez, 2002). The CEC (2005) similarly points out that teachers should serve as role models, who tolerate different cultures and show no prejudices.

- The teachers’ commitment to the stated goals of the school’s bilingual program is central in maintaining cohesion and inciting knowledge sharing among the whole school community (Montecel et al., 2002; Mora et al., 2001; Rolstad et al., 2005; Sugarman & Howard, 2001). When teachers are committed, the school’s objectives become their own. Thereby, they would be more focused and prepared to work harder to accomplish them.

- Language teachers should hold high expectations of their students, by communicating them clearly to both parents and students while presenting challenging tasks (Cazabon et al., 1998; De Jong, 2002; Montecel & Cortez, 2002).

- Teachers are required to stay updated with best practices in bilingual education by getting involved in action research, and in service training opportunities (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Montecel & Cortez, 2002; Tucker, 1999). Credentialed language teachers are aware of the developmental stages in which the students’ two languages are acquired, and how their choice of teaching practices would interact with the surrounding variables to affect the
student outcomes (De Jong, 2002; Genesee, Paradis, & Crago, 2004; Montecel & Cortez, 2002). Menken and Holmes (2000, p.3) further add that professional development is not a “one shot process”, as effective teachers keep seeking data that gives them insight.

Teaching Strategies for L2 Instruction

To abide by these standards, teachers should be able to use a variety of instructional techniques that research found effective in overcoming the obstacles that teachers face in L2 instruction. These techniques are categorized below into four groups according to Meyer’s (2000) identification of four main obstacles (called loads): cognitive load, culture load, language load, and learning load.

- Cognitive Load

Overcoming the cognitive load refers to techniques which deal with the difficulty to initiate new concepts/skills. It is crucial for teachers to identify the students’ prior knowledge and academic backgrounds through initial student assessments as it guides teachers to whether they can proceed according to the curriculum, or start by filling in the assessed conceptual gaps using scaffolding (Genesee et. al, 2004). Effective teachers also regularly evaluate what their students have learnt as a way of assessing their own teaching, and identifying what worked well, what did not, and what needs reinforcement (Meyer, 2000).

Successful teachers try to instigate inquiry based approaches to learning by encouraging questioning and discussions that advance knowledge and the desire to expand it (Smith et al, 2002). Moreover, it is a means of connecting with what students think about their language teaching process in order to allow for relevant and effective future lesson planning.

One of the best teaching techniques teachers could provide their students with is the active incorporation of hands-on learning, actual practice, active rehearsal activities, and peer teaching, since they are opportunities to make the instructional material relevant to students by using them the way they might be used in real life (Genessee, 1999; Larsen-Freeman, 2000).
• Culture Load

Reversing the culture load refers to the view of culture disparity as a resource to learning rather than a problem. The load illustrates the strong interrelation between language and culture, particularly the type of relation that might impede learners from acquiring an L2 due to unfamiliarity with L2 culture, or divergence between L1 / L2 cultures. Thus, teachers must first incorporate students’ cultural and language backgrounds and experiences in meaningful instructional activities (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Student curiosity is triggered to learn more about the target culture, and in turn the target language by lowering the culture barriers built when mistrust, misunderstanding, and lack of interest prevail (Baker, 2001).

Second, the teacher must integrate the students’ experiences into the learning environment by involving parents (Allen, 2005). Not only can this act clarify a lot of misunderstandings, but it can alleviate the anxiety level that emerges when learning foreign languages, through building trustful relationships with students and their parents (Harding-Esch & Riley, 2003; Meyer, 2000).

Third, the teacher must present new vocabulary within their linguistic and cultural contexts (Meyer, 2000), not just through a corresponding word in L1 or L2. The meaning of the two words might differ from context to context. Connotative meanings of words, and the cultural contexts embedded in them have to be revealed and explained (Nunan, 2001).

Fourth, the teacher must eliminate or modify material that could offend the learners for containing culturally or religiously inappropriate L2 material (Meyer, 2000). Finally, the teacher must express class regulations and expectations clearly and explicitly to avoid misunderstanding and prejudices because of mismatch with the students’ expectations (Crookes, 2003).

• Language Load

Just as it is necessary to identify the students’ cognitive level and use it as the basis on which lessons are being planned, good teachers undertake the same procedure for language features (Brown, 2001). Knowing their students’ language level helps them determine the input level that students can benefit from - just a little beyond the students’ level - to be comprehensible and challenging at the same time.
A well informed teacher has to make a distinction between the students’ conversational language level and the academic language they need to develop according to the range of registers they need for content learning (Cummins, 1999). They can subsequently distinguish between the students’ lack of knowledge and their incapability to express themselves in the adequate type of register.

Another type of developmental stage in the language learning process is the systematic progression of language production manifested in the students’ types of errors, which mark their discourse as being at an interlanguage stage (Brown, 2001). The teachers’ role is to recognize this stage and try to overcome it with appropriate feedback. Good teachers try to maintain a balance in correcting students’ errors by avoiding too much feedback that inhibit fluency, and too little feedback that builds up fossilized errors (Brown, 2001).

Cooperative learning is an effective way of integrating challenging language tasks, which become rather sheltered when different roles are assigned to members of each group (Crookes 2003). The ultimate goal of language teachers should be to lead students to use language meaningfully in real world situations by connecting new information into their existing cognitive structures, which promote long-term retention rather than requiring rote learning (Brown, 2001; Wormeli, 2003).

- Learning Load

This category involves teaching strategies that teachers use to enhance student learning with regards to their different learning styles and strategies. Effective teachers recognize that there are a number of paths to learning rather than a single one that all learners need to follow (Smith et al., 2002). Therefore, they use differentiated instruction that appeals to their students’ different learning styles in order to ensure and improve student comprehension and achievement (Wormeli, 2003). Lessons are offered in various forms and ways such as deductive/inductive types of explanation, in addition to using several cues such as visual, auditory, or kinesthetic.

Besides, the teachers’ role is primordially to enable the students to become autonomous learners for the rest of their lives, and avoid trying to control all learning activities that take place in the classrooms (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, Lile, 2002). They seek to motivate their students to be in charge of their own learning by training them to use strategies that are adequate for different types of tasks.
Lesson planning and classroom management are, moreover two important skills that characterize expert teachers (Crookes, 2003). The first plans for the set of activities that make a language session organized and efficient, while the other one is the actual management of the plan. Despite the fact that Farrell (2003) confirms that conducting a successful lesson depends on the effectiveness of the corresponding lesson plan, beginning teachers who plan their lessons on a daily basis encounter the most common pitfall in the teaching experience which is classroom management (Crookes, 2003). Some of the constraining factors that affect classroom management are: pacing the sequence and timing of lessons and activities in each class session, managing the large number of students in class, their multiple proficiency levels and their unpredicted questions (Brown, 2001; Lewis, 2002). To be able to handle these complexities, good teachers set clear and thorough rules in order to impose more orderly classrooms and appoint students for different tasks that help in managing the classroom like distributing papers and taking attendance (Crookes, 2003).

Lack of motivation is one of the most challenging barrier that teachers may encounter in their teaching experience (Lile, 2002). The difficulty lies in that it is closely tied to affective and psychological factors that teachers might not feel responsible for. However research suggests that teachers have an active role in channeling student energy towards learning (Brown, 2001; Dornyei, 1994). The main concern is on capturing the students’ attention and interest through appealing, challenging, and rewarding material and activities that offer students some kind of satisfaction from learning, and make them intrinsically and extrinsically oriented (Lile, 2002).

Eventually, it seems imperative to underscore the significance of offering teachers opportunities to apply these teaching techniques in training sessions before entering the real classroom (Sugarman & Howard, 2001) since well prepared teachers can compensate for the shortcomings of the curriculum and material as well as the lack of resources.

Parent Related Variables

While many studies insist that teacher qualification is the strongest predictor of students’ academic success, others suggest parent involvement as predictor of success (Antunez, 2000; Basterra, 1998; Chavkin & Gonzalez, 1995; Henderson and
Berla, 1994; Shartrand, Weiss, Kreider & Lopez, 1997; Smith, et al., 2002), and specifically of successful bilingual programs (Baker, 2001; Basterra, 1998; Genessee, 1999; Montecel et al. 2002; Tucker, 1999).

The benefits that emerge from parent involvement could range from higher motivation to higher language achievement (Basterra, 1998). When parents are involved schools report more consistent attention to homework, better attendance, and higher student test scores (Edwards, 2004, Epstein, 1994). It even enhances their self esteem, positive attitudes, and behavior towards learning which leads to higher graduation rates and greater enrollment rates in post-secondary education (Antunez, 2000). According to Christenson (2002) when the parents are involved, the children are not the only beneficiaries; the school and teachers benefit because their common goals are attended to more efficiently. The partnership that is developed between them is important in resolving learning difficulties, especially that language learning is closely tied to its corresponding culture, the learners’ culture, and affective traits and attitudes towards the learnt languages (additive and subtractive contexts) which the school has no access to without the parents’ help (Edwards, 2004, Shartrand, et al., 1997). Moreover, learners tend to interact with the learning context based on their home culture and parents’ influence, yielding positive or negative attitudes towards them.

Satterfield-Scheffer (2003) suggests that positive parental attitudes towards teachers, language curricula, language learning, and their commitment to bilingualism are the most distinctive features of PI by validating the effect they have on their children’s motivation to learn, and in turn on their academic achievement.

**Parents’ Attitudes**

The significance of this investigation lies in the fact that these attitudes generate the incentives or motivation by which the parents either engage themselves in their children’s learning or not. The parents’ attitudes are moreover important for the effects they have on the students’ own attitudes, and thereby their learning outcomes (Family Involvement, 2005). The attitudes relevant to this study are parental attitudes towards bilingualism in general, the bilingual program, teachers and school administration, and finally toward their children’s learning process.
• Parental attitudes towards bilingualism: Research argues that all parents of students in bilingual programs should try to stand up for teaching their children their L1 alongside the L2 as an act of recognition and appreciation of the value of bilingualism and culture awareness that the children are going to acquire (Montecel & Cortez, 2002). In fact, the parents’ and in turn students’ attitudes towards bilingualism vary depending on several factors: the rationale for which the parents choose bilingualism for their children and the extent to which they need it (Lightbown & Spada, 2003); the extent to which parents and students are affiliated and identify with the people and culture of the learnt languages (Brown, 2000; Dornyei, 1994); and the way in which the learners’ L1 and L2 are positioned in the community forming a power relationship (Nieto, 2002).

• Parental attitudes towards the bilingual program: A prerequisite for becoming a strong advocate of the school’s bilingual program is developing a satisfying vision (Smith et al., 2002) by getting acquainted with the school’s bilingual program and its outcomes, so that the rationale and objectives of the program are identified. Being strong advocates of the bilingual program means employing every skill or experience they possess to support the efforts of school personnel as equal partners committed to help the students maintain the two languages (Montecel and Cortez, 2002).

• Parental attitudes towards teachers and school administration: Although most parents struggle to provide their children with the best child care and education they are capable of, they sometimes find themselves having confrontations with teachers and school administration because of the negative impressions they might have about each other (Antunez, 2000). When these parents’ strengths, weaknesses, needs and expectations are not validated by the school (Allen, 2005), and they are contacted solely to announce the child’s deficiency, feelings of hostility and defensiveness arise between parents, students and the school (Shartrand et al., 1997). Parents need to be persuaded of their valuable role in their children’s instruction, and reached out by schools so they can take their share and be accountable for it (Basterra, 1998).
Parental attitudes towards their children’s learning process: For parents to convey positive attitudes that influence the children’s proficiency level, they first need to establish a reliable vision of their children’s education (Villareal, 2005). Parents can instill in their children trust in their capacity to assist them by showing them they understand their particular learning needs (Christenson, 2002). Positive attitudes can be manifested through expressing high expectations (Antunez, 2000) and interest in hearing about what happens in class, and commenting positively on it, reading and discussing what has been read, and getting implicated in helping children prepare for homework, tests, and projects (Christenson, 2002). Consequently children gain confidence in their learning capacity.

The need to practice using L2 outside school is another feature that elucidates the value of PI for L2 learning, where the parents’ role is to provide children opportunities to be exposed to L1 and L2 and encourage their use (Antunez, 2000). Because the experiences which language learners go through with their parents and teachers shape up their language learning outcomes, PI is critically needed to prompt success in language learning (Antunez, 2000; Christenson, 2002).

In consideration to the above research, the US Department of Education (1998) set the National Educational Goal 2000, emphasizing the importance of developing a working relationship between schools and parents by stating that all schools are expected to invest in augmenting active partnerships with parents by the year 2014 to foster the social, emotional, and academic growth of their students. Henderson et al. (2004) indicate that the purpose for any school investment in forming partnership with parents should be based on: (a) first of all, admitting that “parents belong in the school …and the school belongs to them” (p.5 ); (b) creating a community of parents who assist each other by providing whatever information and skills they are experienced in to all members who need them, with the aim to upgrade the school standards; (c) and creating a school system that allows for engaging parents not only as advocates, but as valid, and responsible partners in their children’s schooling (Family Involvement, 2005).
School Related Variables

Bearing in mind the literature about the importance of teacher training and performance, as well as parent involvement, makes it an obligation for schools to address these factors. Irrevocably, schools represent the controlling force that employs and trains qualified language teachers besides encouraging parents to engage in all activities organized to benefit the students’ language learning.

Bilingual schools furthermore need to make a number of decisions in the process of establishing quality bilingual programs concerning the development of their vision, goals and language policy, their choice of language program, the approach to its implementation, and the value given to the school resources in teaching both languages.

Development of a School Vision

It is generally accepted that the efficacy of a school approach is governed by the clarity of its vision and goals (De Jong, 2002; Richards, n.d). To make informed decisions, a planning committee should be formed of representatives of the administration, teachers, parents, and community members bearing in mind that a sufficient amount of time and expertise should be dispensed throughout the planning process, with successful bilingualism as the primary goal (Sugarman & Howard, 2001; Christian et al., 2000). Teachers and administrators are required to consult experts in the field and keep up with current pedagogical principles of effective bilingual education and the rationale for its viability (Genessee, 1999), in order to increase their commitment and dedication to the planned bilingual program.

In the quest for quality teaching environments and activities that lead to high standards of language attainment, a fundamental step is the elaboration of an explicit long term vision of school program goals with articulated academic, linguistic, and socio cultural objectives that embrace the goals of bilingual education (De Jong, 2002; Richards, n.d.). A clear and extensive mission statement guides all the school stakeholders (administrators, teachers, and staff) to keep track of their specific objectives while serving as a transparent distribution of their responsibilities and roles (Richards, n.d.).

Richards (n.d.) also suggests that effective leadership further expands this vision into a strategic plan where the goals coincide with the means to attain them.
The time needed to reach the goals, the evaluation system of the whole program, in addition to several other educational needs, must also be determined if the plan is to be comprehensive and well organized.

**Choice of Language Programs**

The most characterizing features that distinguish between the possible variations refer to the period of time at which L1 and L2 instruction start, last and stop so that academic accomplishment in both languages could take place (Greene, 1998). Many researchers anticipate pedagogical advantages for using the students’ L1 to initiate literacy and content teaching to ensure mastery in both languages, as discussed under levels of bilingualism (Baker, 2000; Benson, 2002; CEC, 2003; Crawford, 2000; Cummins, 2000; De Jong, 2002; Krashen & McField, 2005).

Effective programs can start with 90% of the time corresponding to the language that needs more help for not being prevalent in the broader community. Then, it is gradually decreased until both languages are equalized and kept at 50/50 till the end, or else a 50/50 ratio can be implemented from the beginning till the end. It should be emphasized that to attain bilingual proficiency the ratios are only equalized when the students’ reach the mainstream level in L1 and L2 (Cummins, 1999).

Subject allocation is another important factor in L2 learning. According to the literature reviewed above (Cummins, 2001; Krashen, 1999; Krashen & McField, 2005), content teaching should not be introduced in L2 unless the learners have reached a CALP level in L2.

**Coordination between the Elements of the Program**

Research shows that it is more efficient to learn languages in content based classes where students get to learn a language while they are communicating about meaningful content knowledge instead of being constrained with unauthentic situations where lack of real language use fails to produce fluent speakers of L2 (Brown, 2001; Met, 1994). Accordingly, effective schools need to make decisions as to how to coordinate the implementation of such classes (Sugarman & Howard, 2001). Planning the integration of language and content instruction is an integral part of coordinating the curricular objectives (Met, 1994), which should be done collaboratively by content and language teachers preferably under the supervision of a bilingual program.
coordinator. The common language and cognitive skills to be taught across the curriculum are to be determined and emphasized as consistent objectives by all grade teachers (Genessee, 1999).

Genessee (1999) further recommends some strategies and techniques that reinforce the coordination of the linguistic and academic program such as: language is adjusted using scaffolding methods which take the children’s level into account; repetition and paraphrasing are important strategies to be used in the beginning to encourage grasping new vocabulary; hands on experiences are utilized to make the subject area and grade level language meaningful, comprehensible, and interesting; cooperative learning facilitates the activation of the students’ language and knowledge backgrounds; and tasks should be context embedded, yet cognitively challenging to engage the students’ interest to learn (Met, 1994). Thematic units related to content material given in L1 should be used to make them meaningful and relevant (Genessee, 1999). Ultimately no translation should occur so that students do not lose interest in following the L2 communication by relying on the L1 translation (Baker, 2001).

An important strategy in coordinating L1 and L2 teaching is the creation of boundaries that consolidate the use of each language in the classroom and prevent students from code switching (Baker, 2001). The most common forms of language separation that occur in school settings are established by allocating each language to either subject area (Math, Science, etc.), a certain time (half day, day by day, semester, year, etc.) person (different teachers, supervisors, etc.), or medium of activity (speaking, listening, reading, writing). It is preferable to consecutively deliver the respective periods of time for each language medium to extend the students’ exposure to each language in a way that fosters learning. Otherwise, the alternation of the two languages in short periods might thwart soaking up the students in L2 or L1 (Baker, 2001).

Value Given to School Resources

Bilingual education literature indicates that school resources are an interacting factor in bilingual education outcomes (Baker, 2001). The availability of a library, computer lab, visual aids, science equipment and lab play an important role in promoting the success of bilingual students (Rennie, 1993). These resources stimulate student learning effectively by making traditional boring classes interesting through
meaningful activities and hands on experiences (Genessee, 1999). A variety of supplementary materials should be available to all teachers as well. Audiovisual aids, graphs, models, and hands on materials are a way of offering teachers and students means of self instruction by giving them access to recent research. Finally, resources should be available in L1 as well as L2 or at least in equal parity so that both languages get equal attention and opportunities to improve (Genessee, 1999).

Hypothetically, the majority of bilingual schools aim at attaining high levels of language proficiency in L1 and L2 as well as grade level academic competence in all areas of the curricula. Because the school policy and system control all stakeholders (students, teachers, and parents), a preliminary and fundamental requirement for school administrators is to get informed to make the numerous decisions that deal with the means to reach the goals (Rennie, 1993; Solis, 1998), to hire qualified teachers and train them adequately, and encourage partnership with all stakeholders so that everybody’s interests and goals are considered and fulfilled.

In trying to shed light on a number of questions that surround bilingualism and bilingual education, relevant issues were identified and discussed and some erroneous notions such as achieving balanced proficiency in two languages, and incontestable negative interference of L2 instruction on L1 learning were clarified. The difficulty in evaluating language proficiency was illustrated as a quandary which requires more efforts to find a reliable instrument that truly reflects the learners’ language competence. Different levels of bilingualism were also reviewed, and part five provided examples of worldwide models of bilingual education with a focus on their strengths and weaknesses to point to their distinctive features as guidelines that bilingual schools can follow or avoid. The last part of this literature review presented the most important factors in promoting bilingual education specifically those relevant to this study such as teacher performance and attitudes, parent attitudes towards their children’s learning, and the school’s culture and language policy.

The following research examines two bilingual schools in the UAE by investigating their language programs and the learning atmospheres that prevail in them in relation to the factors under study. The comparison of findings with literature about the most effective variables in the field of bilingual education is expected to give a picture of the positive and negative aspects of the two programs in order to reveal areas that need to be maintained or improved.
CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The statement, “The key issue is not finding a program that works for all children and all localities, but rather finding a set of program components that work for the children in the community of interest, given the goals, demographics, and resources of that community” (Rolstad, Mahoney, & Glass, 2005, p. 147), served as the basis that guided me in exploring the impact of the three components under study in two schools to find out how they influence the implementation of bilingual instruction in the UAE community: (a) the school culture and language policy established as the means to implement the bilingual program, (b) teachers’ use of effective teaching strategies and attitudes towards bilingualism, and (c) the parents’ attitudes towards their children’s language learning.

Moreover, very little research exist dealing with bilingual education in the Gulf region. Schools generally follow models of bilingual programs in developed countries, which fail to account for local factors.

The School Settings

The two schools in this study were selected based on two factors. First, I have personal knowledge of those schools because my children attended them. Second, they were among the list of schools that the school districts in Sharjah and Dubai recommended as representative of bilingual programs in the UAE. The officer in charge of private schools in the Sharjah school district affirmed that the Ministry has no accredited program that claims to put forward balanced bilingual education. She explained that the number of schools offering English as medium of instruction have multiplied significantly to meet the community’s demand for English. Consequently, the Ministry of Education mandated that all schools teach its Arabic language program as an obligatory subject for all Arab students to ensure that all Arab students learn their native language.

According to the school districts of Sharjah and Dubai the two private schools selected for this study have good records of linguistic achievement. Both schools have similar objectives to those of most international schools of the region. Their goal is to provide their students with two languages to prepare them for a successful entrance
into high quality universities and to enable them to integrate into the global community. Nevertheless, these schools differ in the approach they carry out their objectives.

The Dubai School (DS) was accredited as an international school in 2002, and offers an independent trilingual program in English, French, and Arabic. The Sharjah School (SS) was accredited in February 2007, and offers three programs. Students may choose the public program of the Ministry of Education, an American curriculum, or a British curriculum. When the SS started, it offered French as a third language starting from grade one, but it gradually delayed its introduction until it was finally set at grade four. The two schools are mandated to offer the Ministry of Education’s Arabic language and Islamic Studies (IE) curricula for Arab Muslim students starting from grade one, and Social Studies from grade four.

Participants of the Study

Students

60 grade twelve students—all girls—aged between 16 and 18 following comparable programs that provide Arabic and English at DS and SS are involved in the research. The students in the SS were selected from the American section because its program is comparable to the DS independent program. Grade 12 was selected based on the assumption that its students have had the greatest chance of attaining the two threshold levels discussed earlier in the literature by Cummins (2001). Students were classified into high and low achievers based on their language scores and labeled (A) and (B) students respectively.

Parents

60 parents of the same students were surveyed to provide data for examining the third factor in the research. They are also classified according to their children’s classification into A and B groups.

Teachers

To examine the second factor influencing the achievement of bilingual education both teachers (Arabic and English) and four content-area teachers from both schools were surveyed. Data were collected about their expertise and educational
backgrounds, their teaching practices, their relationships with their students, as well as their attitudes and perceptions of bilingualism, the school program, and the languages involved in their school.

Co-directors and Department Heads

The headmaster of SS declined to be interviewed, and referred me to his co-director, who plays a major role in the setting of goals, rules, and expectations, and oversees the instructional process by monitoring the different administrators and teachers. So, the official in the same position in DS was interviewed to obtain comparable data.

The last participants are the L1 and L2 heads of departments. Their role is to manage the language programs' delivery in their schools. Their expertise about language development, perceptions, attitudes, and expectations for the language program were examined through interviews.

Materials and Procedures

The qualitative data come from the responses to a set of three questionnaires filled out by the students, parents and teachers; interviews of the co-directors and language heads of departments; as well as focused school and classroom observations. The three questionnaires have a common focus on the participants linguistic and academic backgrounds, perceptions of the language program, and attitudes towards the two languages and bilingualism. They are all written in both English and Arabic for them to fill in according to their language preference.

The student questionnaire, additionally, provides information about their exposure to the two languages inside and outside school, and their reasons for learning the two languages (see Appendix A). The teacher questionnaire also addressed the teachers’ commitment to bilingualism, the extent to which they expect success for their students, coordinate their efforts, and cooperate with each other, as well as with the parents and students. The other questions target the type of training or professional development the teachers had received, and the extent to which they were familiar with sound teaching methodologies (see Appendix B).

The parent questionnaire collected information on their reasons for choosing bilingual instruction for their children, their engagement in it through language use,
their expectations for its outcomes, as well as their perceptions of the value of learning two languages (see Appendix C).

The co directors’ questions were designed to gather information about the school program’s main characteristics, the rationale behind its actual implementation, the hiring processes and standards by which teachers were selected; the availability of professional development for teachers, and whether they were given opportunities to collaborate in planning. Interview questions also targeted their perceptions about what constitutes a good language program, parent involvement, and teacher qualification, and finally their expectations for the students (Appendix D).

The two language heads of departments are interviewed to collect additional information about the language standards that each school has set for itself, the methodology of implementing the curricula and the means of supervising the teachers’ approaches, the authority given to them as supervisors, and finally their level of satisfaction and perception of the teachers’ qualifications as well as the students’ language proficiency (see Appendix E).

An ethnographic observation of the whole school environment is conducted in both schools, in addition to a ‘structured” classroom observation for which a sheet with a tally system adapted according to Hopkins’ (2002) suggestions is developed using effective teaching practices in a checklist. (Appendix F).

Planned Analysis

Given that the focus of this study is to investigate the impact of three factors—teacher performance, school policy and culture, parent attitudes—on the effectiveness of bilingual school programs of the region, the research findings are divided into three corresponding major categories.

The plan was to distribute student questionnaires based on their language achievement. The purpose was to study two groups of students - high and low achievers of language proficiency in both schools – in order to investigate if the inspected variables could lead to their specific level of achievement. As I was not given the permission to see the students’ grades, I had to rely on the supervisors to make the desired classification according to their acknowledgment of the students’ academic achievement. The supervisors in both schools affirmed that academic
achievement is representative of their language achievement except that it is much
easier to obtain.

Although the design of the study called for 20 top students and 20 average
students from each school; only 18 students from the first group and 19 students from
the second were available from DS and were labeled A and B students respectively.
Similarly, in SS there were only 11 A students and 12 B students from SS.

The teacher questionnaires were given to the supervisors to give to the
teachers whom I asked to observe. In DS, the questionnaires were returned the day I
came back for the interviews, whereas there was some difficulty in getting the
teachers to fill the questionnaires in the SS. Thereby, I distributed them at the end of
each classroom observation. As the Math, Physics, and Religion teachers refused to
fill them, they were replaced with Social Studies, chemistry and Business teachers
added to an additional English language teacher.

The parent questionnaires were sent with the students’ from A and B groups.
This allowed me to distinguish parents of high achievers and low achievers. Although
their academic and linguistic backgrounds were expressed in the questionnaires, I
decided to discard this data as it is unlikely that schools of the region would benefit
from it. Moreover, the sociocultural backgrounds of the student/parent population
were roughly examined in both schools for the impact they have on the learners’
readiness to learn L1 and L2. Data about their attitudes towards bilingualism, the
school and teachers, and their perceptions of the languages their children were
learning, and the bilingual program were examined and analyzed.

To conduct the interviews I took permission to record them so that the
information could be deciphered and analyzed at my own pace. In DS, an
appointment was scheduled for the three interviews on the same day, and they were
all recorded. In SS, the co-director decided to answer the study questions on the spot,
while the heads of the Arabic and English departments set separate timings. Besides,
only the head of Arabic department agreed to being recorded.

Two language classes (Arabic and English) and four content classes in English
(Math, Physics, Biology, and Computers) and one in Arabic (Social Studies) were
observed in DS. The same number of language classes, plus only two content classes
in English (Math and Physics) and one in Arabic (Religion) were observed in SS. The
choice of classes that I observed was randomly selected by the school supervisors based on availability.

The tally sheet specifically designed for the observation was supplemented by notes recording extra information. At the end of each observation notes were categorized into possible teaching strategies.

Finally, the students’ relevant responses were analyzed with other data to detect the impact that these variables might have exerted on the students. The collected data should portray the learning and teaching process that occurs in the researched schools.
CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

School Related Variables

School Goals and Objectives

The SS objectives are listed in the school’s 2006 yearbook and profess to offer sound teaching principles such as providing a balanced curriculum that offers students opportunities for acquiring knowledge and skills; addressing the learner’s intellectual, emotional, social, linguistic, and physical needs as a whole; developing an appreciation and tolerance for different cultures; emphasizing the students’ experiences and preferences within the learning process; involving parents in their children’s education through regular communication and involvement in school activities; hiring qualified teachers; and getting resources that enable students to enhance their potential.

In seeking additional information, I was given an undated file titled school prospectus which indicated that they expected to be accredited by two of the best accrediting agencies in the “world” in 2005. Some school characteristics were added to the above such as teaching Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) and English equally; leading student centered teaching/learning, providing certified native speakers of English for English teaching, and the availability of a Mothers–Teachers Council.

In contrast, DS objectives are listed in the parents’ guide as such: provide a challenging program derived from a comprehensive university preparatory curriculum, foster intellectual curiosity, develop the students’ potential by promoting their participation in a variety of “full range” activities, raise the learners’ self confidence via accomplishment, and raise their awareness of the importance of continuing education to face the demands of a world of rapid change.

The school profile in the same booklet provides a clearer picture of the school vision by stating that it offers a trilingual comprehensive program that enables its graduates to attend recognized universities worldwide. MSA, English, and French are taught though English is the basic medium of instruction. The language proficiency levels targeted at the high school level are a TOEFL passing score for English required by most universities, and a passing grade in the Ministerial exam for Arabic
The school ascribes high value to trilingual instruction and research and supplement with a resourceful library, and a variety of labs and clubs.

The efficacy of the schools’ goals and objectives are evaluated by examining the awareness, commitment, and advocacy of the school leaders for the school objectives in terms of the language teaching program. As there is overlap between the co-directors’ and heads of departments’ interview questions (see Appendix D & E), I am going to state each question followed by the responses of the different interviewees who were questioned.

In answer to the first interview question: “What are the main goals for the school?, the SS co-director and the head of the English department (HED), who is a British lady married to an Arab, did not mention any of the goals stated in the school documents. The co-director broadly stated that: “the school aims at teaching and raising individuals to be decent members of society, who cherish their country and seek mutual respect for cultures and values.”

In DS, the co-director responded that the school’s main goal was to provide its students with three languages and a solid education that enable them to pursue their higher education in any university worldwide. The HED answered with regards to her position as an English supervisor by stating that her most important goal is to enable the students to express themselves very well in writing and orally and to research papers in order to be ready for college. She also mentioned the school’s attention to preparing students to score well in the TOEFL exam and be ready with the SAT vocabulary. On the other hand, the HAD asserted that foreign languages in general and English in particular cannot be excluded in preparing children for a bright future, the school considers MSA as one of its priorities in terms of its language program especially at the early stages due to its importance in forming children’s bonds with their mother tongue and roots.

In answer to the question about the schools’ language educational model “What are the characteristics of your language education model?”’, both the SS co-director and the Arabic language supervisor stressed the school accreditation which it had just received, in addition to the implementation of three different programs as the most important advantages in the school.
The DS co-director pinpointed to the school's trilingual program as a distinctive feature, and their concern for teaching students MSA and keeping in touch with it “for we do not enjoy this drift away from our mother tongue”, she said.

The question about the teaching elements that promote bilingualism “What constitutes a good teaching program that promotes bilingualism in your opinion?” was also answered by the SS co-director and heads of language departments without any indication to their school’s teaching program. On the contrary, the co-director referred to an important trait in L2 teaching that is not implemented in school like using perceptible/non abstract language for beginning stages. The head of Arabic department (HAD) referred to the importance of promoting additional reading in the Arabic language course, since most of the subjects are now offered in English. But when asked if their students were required to do extra reading, he replied that they were not supposed to add anything to the ministerial curriculum.

The DS co-director’s and HED’s choice of components of good language teaching programs was set on reading as the principal ingredient too. The co-director explained that their school created a system that required reading, and encouraged it by enforcing trips to the library and giving bonuses to students’ individual initiatives to reading. She also gave an example of the school’s initiation of a school magazine, written totally by students, and the yearbook as outlets for writing. From a teacher’s point of view, the HED in DS emphasized reading through a literature syllabus and gave a long account of how it is used in their school. Lastly, the HAD reported that setting the goals for any language instruction should be the foremost element in a good program. Then, the language skills should be approached based on the students needs in an attractive and smart way using modern technology. She called for introducing listening classes where discussions about what is heard occur to promote speaking in the same manner. When asked if the school applies such courses, she stated that the idea is still under study since it requires expensive equipment.

The extent to which the goals and objectives are applied is assessed by addressing the schools’ hiring policy, and the teachers’ and students’ perceptions of the schools’ language policy through responses to interviews and questionnaires. The question about the hiring procedures was “What type of qualification do you seek most in your teachers?” The SS co-director referred to the possession of a BA or a diploma in the teacher’s instruction field as the requirement of the Ministry, which
was contradicted by the HED and an Arabic teacher. The HAD explained this discrepancy by pointing out that many teachers were already licensed to teach by the Ministry before this law was issued. Such teachers were retained for their experiences since their teaching license is no longer an issue. The HED also reported that in the past they only used to hire native speakers, whereas at present there are different nationalities.

In DS, the co-director responded to the question about teachers’ minimum qualifications being a BA and for some particular subjects, it was even required that they have higher degrees. She also added that content teachers were additionally expected to have a good grasp of the language they use in teaching. Both the HED and HAD confirmed that teachers in their school have at least the BA, while it was further required to have some kind of educational diploma, a higher degree, or some teaching experience, but it was not a must. The capacity to pass on knowledge and use constructive and engaging techniques of delivering lessons were also taken into account in the mini lessons that applicants were required to give.

The SS teachers’ perceptions of the school’s language policy were drawn from responses to Q 6 -7 in section II which asks if the school’s language policy stresses Arabic teaching over English or the inverse. The responses denoted that 50% of the teachers disagreed that any of the languages is stressed over the other, while 17% believed English is stressed over Arabic, and another 17% thought Arabic is, and the rest agreed to the two propositions. Their perspectives were at odds because they expressed their perspectives in terms of their perception of the students’ proficiency in their respective language of instruction. For example, the business teacher expressed Arabic was emphasized over English since he perceived they had low proficiency in English; whereas the Arabic social studies teacher similarly indicated that English was more emphasized. As for the Arabic language teacher, who agreed to both options, he explained that neither language was given the proper enforcement.

The SS students’ perceptions of the school’s language policy drawn from Q 11 in section II, showed that 50% of the A students considered that it equally favored English and Arabic, while the other half deemed English is favored. In contrast, 67% of the B students deemed that the school emphasized English over Arabic, while 33% of them considered they are equally emphasized. Thus, both teachers’ and students’
perceptions about the SS language policy showed discrepancy with what the documents stated about it.

The DS teachers’ perceptions of the school’s language policy illustrate that 50% of the teachers strongly disagreed with the statement that English is more emphasized than Arabic, while the other half curiously agreed that the school stressed the use of Arabic over English, showing that all the teachers contested the fact that English is more emphasized than Arabic. This reflected their recognition of the school’s struggle to maintain Arabic despite the choice of English as the school’s medium of instruction.

Students’ questionnaire results revealed that 28% of the A students stated their school gave equal instruction in Arabic and English, and 67% thought English was given more attention. Similar views were held by B students of whom 37% thought that Arabic and English were given equal attention, and 63% thought English was given more attention. The students’ perspectives on the language position in both schools reflected the actual position of the two languages in school.

Type of Curricula

The school’s choice of language program, the time and subject allocation for MSA and English instruction, and the extent to which the school coordinates language and content teaching are described based on information provided by the school leadership. A comprehensive description of the curriculum is also derived from the weekly plans of all the educational stages KG-12 (see Appendix G and H).

The co-director of the KG reported that literacy was initiated with 27% and 73% of time allocation for MSA and English respectively. Physical education (PE) and arts are offered in English by the class teacher, who was customarily the English language teacher. Since math was introduced in English, the school did not even teach numbers in Arabic. Given that the English numerals are originally Arabic, and that they are currently used by Arabic media, it is decided not to teach what used to be labeled the Arabic numerals. Yet, she felt that it was a pity the children were not even taught to count in Arabic, because the teachers were restrained with time to teach them the designated material.

The SS curriculum incorporates the Arabic language and Islamic Education (IE) courses imposed by the Ministry into the American curriculum from grade one.
Social Studies are taught in English from grades one to three unless parents requested it in Arabic, while it is in Arabic from grades four to ten as per Ministry requirement. The PE and art teachers in all sections excluding the KG are typically monolingual and speak in dialectal Arabic, however as there was no rule as to what language should be used these subjects were not integrated in the time and subject allocation.

The subjects allocated for Arabic versus English start with two versus five respectively from grade one till four. Then they are gradually increased until they become equivalent to English in grades 7-8. Grade nine is the only stage in which subject allocation for Arabic exceeds that of English with five versus four subjects. As the school only had scientific and business sections in the upper secondary stage, Social Studies were withdrawn from the curriculum in grade ten, and new sciences (chemistry, physics, and biology) and business subjects (business, computer and accounting) were offered reducing Arabic subject allocation drastically to two versus six for English (see Appendix I).

In contrast, the time allocated for Arabic is almost half the time allocated for English along all the elementary grades. From grade seven, time allocated for Arabic medium is further decreased to less than half the time. The last three years of school, time allocated Arabic medium is dramatically reduced to only 17% of the instructional time which is less than one fourth of the time allocated for English medium (see Table 1).

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This English dominance over the curriculum showed inconsistency with what the school prospectus indicated about Arabic and English being equally emphasized.

On the other hand, the SS extracurricular activities are all related to sports such as the football or basketball club, with no activity that promotes language use. They also have an audio visual center, computer labs, and a library.
DS implements a trilingual program which incorporates English as the basic medium of instruction, whereas MSA and French are selective elements that reinforce their vision of developing trilingual students. The American curriculum is implemented for English language and content subjects in addition to the Arabic program imposed by the Ministry of education and supplemented by extra Arabic material offered to elementary students in support for the Ministerial program. Moreover Social Studies in Arabic are introduced from grade one, and are extended to grade 12 to reinforce the limited Arabic medium of instruction. Their staff was bilingual, but the teachers of PE and arts speak in Arabic in recognition of the need to support MSA. Yet these two subjects are not counted within the curriculum to facilitate comparison with SS.

DS emphasizes the initiation of literacy in the three languages simultaneously, within a holistic view of languages. The co-director of the KG section explained that their material is classified into languages instead of subjects. Teachers created situations where children find themselves incited to communicate in French, Arabic or English. Taking into account that the first educational years are primordial in language acquisition, each language is allocated the amount of time that facilitates its learning with regards to its prevalence in the environment. French activities, thus, occupy the highest proportion of time, taking into consideration that the children might not have heard it before, other than having no exposure to it in the surrounding environment. Activities in Arabic occupy the second place, because the upcoming curriculum attaches more importance to English as the leading language that students need to learn to enter any internationally recognized university. When asked about how they taught the Arabic numbers, the co-director’s answer matched that of the SS. It was considered futile to teach the children numerals that are not used anymore. However, their concern for MSA urged them to teach the children to count in addition to learning Qur’an within the Arabic language classes.

To allow more time for MSA learning at least in the beginning, science is omitted from grade one program, whereas Social Studies is introduced in Arabic representing three subjects equally allocated to both media. From grades two to six subjects allocated for Arabic are reduced to three versus four for Arabic and English respectively. From grades 7-9 subjects are equally allocated for Arabic and English media again. Grade ten is a transferal year where substantial change in time and
subject allocation occurs. Both the Arabic and English language courses are reduced. However subjects in Arabic medium are reduced, while those in English medium are increased to six versus three for English and Arabic medium respectively. The subject allocation for English medium goes through more adjustments in grade 11, with one period taken from PE to the preparation for the SAT exam (see Appendix J).

Table 2. Percentage of Time Allocation for each Language in DS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Medium of Instruction</th>
<th>KG 1-2</th>
<th>Gr. 1</th>
<th>Gr. 2</th>
<th>Gr. 3-6</th>
<th>Gr. 7-9</th>
<th>Gr. 10</th>
<th>Gr. 11</th>
<th>Gr. 12</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>48%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>54%</td>
<td>57%</td>
<td>68.5%</td>
<td>71.5%</td>
<td>71.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>11.5%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>5.7%</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When time allocation is examined, it is clear that time offered to English is double that offered to Arabic in all the elementary stage similarly to the SS (see Table 2). The gap gradually increases until in grade ten the time allocated for Arabic is noticeably decreased to less that one third of the time allocated for English, and is stabilized to 20% of the instructional time till the end of schooling. Time allocated for English is further increased in grades 11-12 to reach 71.5% of the curriculum time.

The school admits that it uses mainly English as medium of instruction to realize the long term objective of enabling their students to enter recognized universities worldwide. However, its concern for MSA that is not granted enough time in international education systems, guided the programmers to put more emphasis on it in the first two years.

The school also offers a variety of extra curricular activities for students to join in organized clubs. Notwithstanding the sports clubs, these clubs are offered in the beginning of the year to enrich the students’ experiences and heighten their talents while using language under direct staff supervision and guidance. Examples of such clubs are Drama club, Art Club, Religion Club, History Club, Computer Club, Photography Club, Science Club, Math Club, Astronomy Club, Comité de Français (French Committee), Broadcast Station, Scouts, and Environment Club. Some of the products of these clubs were illustrated in the DS online link. The opportunities to subscribe to a variety of language related clubs where writing and reading are the embedded key ingredients are diversified, since they are mainly established to satisfy
the students’ needs and interests. The annual ski trip abroad is another type of activity that aim at gaining the students’ allegiance in the school’s ability to fulfill their non academic needs as well as the academic ones.

A noteworthy resource that is integrated with the grades 11-12 curriculum is the DS application of the N4 books technology, which has transformed their classrooms into learning e hubs. The standard books of DS have been digitized and transformed into e-formats that allow the students and teachers to access and manipulate the information as wanted. Interactive white boards and multimedia projectors among other high quality network structures are put at the teacher’s and students’ disposal to utilize advanced levels of technological learning procedures that enhance overall student achievement.

Professional Development

The professional development, training, research experiences and support the school provides for its staff make up the third feature of school’s variables and are described based on the school leaders’ responses to the interviews and the teacher questionnaires in the concerned schools.

The interview question was “Do you require any kind of professional development? What opportunities for professional development do you provide?” In response, the SS co director, HED, and HAD confirmed that professional development was not considered a prerequisite in hiring their teachers since the school arranged workshops offered by Cambridge to those in need for it. The HAD added that these Cambridge programs for professional development were offered annually to all teachers including those teaching Arabic after having been translated. He also pointed out that the UAE Ministry of Education designed a new Arabic curriculum that required the teachers’ role to be more involved in supervising than explaining lessons. Having no experience with such a curriculum and new role, all the teachers were required to take special courses and change their old traditional ways of teaching. Both the HAD and the Arabic language supervisor highlighted the Arabic teachers’ resistance and difficulty in adapting to new teaching methodologies which depend on cooperative learning in student centered classes, and suggested that more professional development is needed to effect change.
Professional development is an important part of the different adjustment processes that SS is going through owing to their recent accreditation. However, the magnitude of the advantages that the school and teachers could yield from professional development is underestimated. Being offered only to those who need it, teachers resist professional development since it classifies them as teachers who do not have enough qualifications, instead of being systematically offered to all teachers.

The DS co-director, on the other hand, proclaimed that although professional development was recommended in hiring teachers, it was not a condition for incoming teachers. Nevertheless, once teachers were in school, regular professional development is provided for all school staff at all levels: department level, administrative level, and IT level. They underwent regular training sessions either on a monthly or bi-weekly basis depending on the programs. Some programs trained teachers on new methodologies to be used in class, while others gave training on IT all year round, especially for teachers of grades 11 and 12, since their daily work required expertise in operating the N4B teaching technology. Moreover, most teachers were involved in all Harcourt (the book series used for teaching all English subjects) workshops. Teachers also participated in most conferences in the UAE. The HED and HAD confirmed this information and referred to the fact that the school sometimes sent one or two teachers abroad to attend a course with the purpose of benefiting the others by reporting it when they came back. In addition, they attended meetings under the administrative and Ministerial guidance.

Communication with Parents

The communication system that the schools created between parents, teachers and administration was examined for being directly related to the effectiveness of any school. The extent to which the two schools encouraged parent involvement was also investigated through the interviews, and questionnaires. Findings were compared with the school statements in their school documents to check if they were in line with what was stated.

The question “How do you involve parents in your school?” was briefly answered by the SS co-director that parents communicated via the administration, or the heads of departments when they had something to communicate indicating that the frequency of the communication depends on the students’ competence. The HED
further hinted that parents did not care enough to get involved. She said some of them
did not even show up in parent’s meetings, let alone getting involved in school. The
HAD explained that parents and teachers were expected to meet twice a year to
discuss the student’s individual difficulties; however, not all parents recognized the
influence that their involvement could have on their children’s achievement. They
believed that it is the school’s responsibility to inflict learning on students, so they let
both teachers and students rely on themselves to do their jobs. He added that even
when a few get involved they mostly stress English language and subjects, since
English has become a necessity.

As for the Mothers-Teachers Council which was referred to in the school
prospectus, the supervisor revealed it was deactivated by the headmaster.

This data was triangulated with the parents’ responses to whether they were
satisfied with the parent teacher communication in school. It was found that in SS
only 44% of the A parents were satisfied and 55% were dissatisfied, whereas 67% of
the B parents were satisfied and 33% were dissatisfied.

The triangulation with the teachers’ perspective of the parent school
communication investigated in the teacher questionnaire illustrated that 33% of the
teachers disagreed that there is enough parent-school communication.

In DS the co-director said that the school has opened the channels for parents
demonstrating that their engagement is welcomed, but it could not force them into any
activity. Then she retorted that the school believed in the great role that parents could
play in their children’s learning, admitting that the best ideas that the school applied
came from parents. That is why; it is in direct communication with them especially
before new projects were concluded. In addition to the comprehensive parents’ guide,
an interactive web site was put in service for the use of parents, students, teachers and
administration, so that private and confidential communication via private e-mail
boxes could occur, besides public communication via bulletin boards annexed to the
school web site. This link makes an updated means of communications, where one
can check homework, report cards, and events anytime. The information about the
open channels was confirmed at my entry to their site and in the parent’s guide which
is provided at the enrollment of every new student. The parents’ guide put forward the
rules and regulations to all students, teachers and parents. It also explained the dress
code, attendance policy and procedures for parent-school communication. The school
strived to provide them with all the information they might need to combine forces so that the best is obtained out of the teaching/learning process.

The HED further explained that some parents get involved while others do not, but every co director had an appointed afternoon scheduled online for parents’ meetings. So, if the parents wished to discuss any student issue they had to make an appointment. Moreover, if they wanted to meet a teacher formally they had to pass by the corresponding co director of the student’s specific educational stage.

The HAD showed a positive perception of parents by attesting that most parents were concerned about their children’s learning, though they did not react in the same way. Some of them made sure that their children were well integrated within the whole curriculum. Others paid less attention to the MSA curriculum. She argued that it did not concern the school when parents were of foreign origin, but when they were Arabs the school tried to enhance their acknowledgement of the significance of learning one’s mother tongue to the students’ connections with their roots. “We try to influence the parents to improve their attitudes towards their children’s learning, as it would affect the students’ attitude towards their own learning.”

The DS parents’ responses to the question about the extent to which they were satisfied with the home school communication revealed that 77% of the A parents and 95% of the B parents expressed satisfaction with the parent school communication.

In triangulating with the teachers’ view of parent school communication 100% of the teachers agreed that there was enough parent-school communication.

The School Culture

*Population and Language Use*

The school culture covers the type of student population with respect to their origins, the distribution of roles of the school staff, their use of Arabic and English in school, as well as the type of discipline that the school imposes. Findings are based on my ethnographic observation, teacher and parent questionnaires, and conversations with a number of teachers and students.

In SS the first aspect regarded the origin of the majority of the student population, which was estimated to be mostly from the UAE (65%), with quite a big number from other Arab countries (30%) and only a few from foreign countries like Persia or India (5%). The significance of this observation is in identifying the type of
students that the school targeted, illustrating that the SS mainly set the curriculum to meet the requirements of Emiratis. SS seemed to be more appealing to Emirati people, for adopting more conventional practices and behaviors, because it is owned by a renowned Emirati personality from Sharjah.

The observation also showed that students encountered more English than Arabic in the elementary section hallways, where the supervisor was bilingual and might speak with the students in English as well as in Arabic. English billboards were more prevalent on the walls with rare posters in MSA in classes. Yet, in the playground, the children mostly conversed in Arabic unless they were with non Arabs which rarely happened. In upper levels, it seemed the school tried to compensate for the strong English dominance by hanging more Arabic billboards on the walls, but the students communicated in English much more often than in elementary section. Another remark is that content teachers offering their subjects in English mostly spoke in Arabic with their students when out of class, and as the supervisor of upper grades was not bilingual, she only spoke in Arabic. In the administration, all the native speakers of Arabic spoke in Arabic unless they were talking to non Arabs like the English teachers and the headmaster’s secretary who was Asian.

In DS it was observed that the majority of students came from the Middle East and other Arab countries (60%), whereas locals were a minority (25%). DS also boasts that its student population was made up of 60 nationalities including Persians, Asians and other foreigners (15%) which was confirmed in the student questionnaires. The local student population that chose DS was generally less conservative because the school was owned by a group of Emirati business men and some educational specialists from the Middle East.

The observations showed that although most teachers were bilinguals, they used English only to teach their subject matter in the classroom or when talking about the teaching material, whereas Arabic was used when discourse involved non educational material. One content teacher explained that the school’s language policy required them to convey all teaching information in English since they are assessed in English, but anything outside the material can be conveyed in Arabic as long as the class did not comprise of foreign students who do not understand Arabic. Likewise, the staff members in the administration mostly used Arabic in conversing with each other, while they used Arabic, English or French with the parents depending on how
they were addressed. Although the English language teachers were also Arabs they were the only ones with whom the students communicated only in English revealing that these teachers never talk with their students in Arabic.

The students’ language use differed according to the students’ stage of learning and their origins. Specifically, the dominant language among students in lower sections was mostly Arabic with some English interjections; whereas in the upper section, more English was used between students.

DS notices on billboards and posters are hung in MSA and English equally. A number of writings in MSA written by famous men of letters (e.g., Jibran Khalil Jibran) were hung in the hallways inciting people to fight against any foreign language dominance that situational pretexts impose before it drains them from their identities.

*Relationships Between School Community Members*

The value given to the school’s contribution in promoting the development of good professional relationships via clear distribution of roles and the dissemination of a supportive atmosphere was examined by different instruments. Data about the existing relationships between all the participants in the instructional process are obtained from questionnaires and interviews and triangulated with my observations of different classrooms.

To explore the relationship between the school leaders and teachers, the school leaders were asked the following questions “How do you insure the teachers’ good performance in class? and “Do you negotiate the language program and teaching methodology with other teachers?” The SS co-director clarified that the heads of departments, educational consultants, and the Ministry’s supervisors observed the teachers and prepared reports about them. As to the 2nd question, he briefly affirmed negotiating with teachers without any further explanation.

The HED, on the other hand explained that all teachers discussed their specific program at the end of every year, but did not have expectations for the efficacy of this procedure. She expressed her dissatisfaction with the language teachers’ commitment and performance that showed irresponsible attitudes.

The HAD, in contrast had a more positive outlook since he affirmed that Arabic teachers currently meet more frequently, because of the Ministerial reform of
the Arabic program. He indicated discussing the new teaching methodology without negotiating the Arabic program since it was imposed from the Ministry. He also pointed out that the teachers’ traditional methodologies had to be adjusted, but his authority was not enough to manage the teachers who were under his control, which led to the decline of their relationships. However, he concluded that regular supervision from the part of the school supervisors and the Ministry would eventually compel them to adjust.

The administration did not give teachers and supervisors enough credit to solve their problems nor did it delineate their roles so they could act accordingly by following the set regulations to deal with discipline and attitude issues. As a result of such unclear distribution of roles teachers confounded between what they were accountable of and what they were in leading their classes. In fact, most of the SS staff were frustrated by their lack of control. An example of the lack of authority within the school was the supervisor’s inability to make the students fill in the questionnaires. She distributed the forms four times because the students failed to return them. In the end, she suggested I should try to give them directly to students. The supervisor also complained for not being supported by the top administration to overcome any confrontation with the students. She did not show consideration to teachers too. An example is when in the middle of a lesson I was observing, the supervisor came in to take two girls without even taking the teacher’s permission. Teachers were similarly not given authority to react to problematic students by expelling them out of class or punishing them. Consequently their frequent complaints and distressed attitudes did not help in building good relationships among the school community. Thus, discipline issues were discernible all the time, because students felt the administrators’ lack of control and defied their supervisors and teachers’ authority.

In DS, the co-director ascertained that she kept track of the teachers’ performance through the reports given to her by her deputies, division co directors, and heads of departments who observe classes as often as possible similarly to SS. However, she added that she listened to feedback from the school community, even if she did not necessarily take it as truism. She also revealed that the language program was discussed with the teachers at the end of every year to decide whether it required change or adjustment.
The HED and HAD confirmed the co directors’ account on how negotiations took place, and expressed satisfaction with their role in reform. The HED repetitively praised the success of teachers as members of a team working and planning together to reach the school goals. She explained how the teachers’ experiences helped make adjustments that achieve better results. An example was given concerning teaching adverbs, which was postponed to grade four as teachers recognized its difficulty for second graders. Teachers suggested things from their experiences, and transformations occurred if their suggestions were sound. The HAD also asserted that some adjustments were undertaken in Arabic language teaching like adding lessons or topics that enforce and facilitate learning the compulsory lessons, included in the Arabic program which was imposed by the Ministry. She expressed teachers’ stipulations requiring research and extra curricular reading from students, and adding beautiful poems and texts in an attempt to draw the students’ interest in MSA.

This type of relationship demonstrated evidence of transparency in the distribution of roles of the school staff. Not only did the teachers know the limits of their accountability, but they were also aware of their colleagues’, and bosses’ responsibilities and level of authority. As a matter of fact, the co-director explained that these roles were discussed in staff meetings and had to be agreed on with indication to the parameters of liability in order for teachers to be fully accountable for their jobs. Consequently, all the teachers were given authority over what they were accountable for, and encouraged them to work hard to make things happen as planned in order to achieve the outcomes they were expected to realize.

Drawn from my observation this clear distribution of roles among the teachers and administration extended to the students who seemed to know their limits, abide by rules, and respect their teachers.

The examination of the two schools’ goals and objectives illustrated they pertain to similar standards, and the implemented curricula had comparable major elements of focus including the dominant language and media of instruction. However, the big difference resided in the attitude the SS and DS administration and staff took towards implementing their goals. It was demonstrated that DS objectives were shared with their staff in the training sessions that updated them with all that is relevant to them. The school had a very strong linkage system with all the vertical and horizontal positions defined explicitly so that the distribution of roles was clear to everyone.
In contrast, the problem with the SS seemed to be that the school vision and objectives were not shared neither by the administration nor the teachers. The lack of strong leadership, and the high authority that the school granted parents on an individual basis created difficulties within the school.

Teacher Quality Related Variables

The most influential features related to teacher performance are the teachers’ academic background, expertise/years of experience, type of training or professional development, which I identified from their responses to (Q 1, 2, 3 in section I of the teacher questionnaires). Then their teaching approaches are described in view of class observations conducted in both schools, with the aid of the observation sheet in which major teaching techniques were recorded. I only indicated the nationality of the English language teachers to show if they were native speakers of the language of instruction.

Teacher Background

In SS, three of the six teachers who filled in the questionnaires had Masters Degrees related to their field. The first teacher was a Russian teacher who taught English, and had an MA in Russian and English languages in addition to the CELTA, making her the only one in SS to have experienced training related to bilingual education. She has taught English for five years in the secondary section and two years in intermediate sections.

The second teacher was a business teacher with a Masters degree in International Business Administration, but who has never undergone any educational course, training, or professional development in the field of teaching. He has taught for five years in the secondary section.

Finally, an Arabic teacher who had an MA in Literature Critics and a BA in Arabic Literature, and has attended several training programs assigned by the Ministry, and taught Arabic for 20 years in the secondary section along with 15 years in the intermediate section.

The remaining three are: a Social Studies teacher who had a BA in History and Education, and has attended all training courses assigned by the Ministry, some workshops on recent teaching methodologies provided by the Sharjah Educational
Zone, and some training courses provided by the school. She has taught Social Studies for one year in the secondary section and 15 years in intermediate and elementary sections side by side.

A Syrian teacher of English who had a BA in English Literature and has taught English for two years in the secondary section and three years in the intermediate with no educational degrees, professional development, or training in the field of teaching.

And finally a chemistry teacher, who had a BS in chemistry, and has undergone several training courses, and attended professional development programs provided by the Ministry and the school. She has taught chemistry for seven years in the secondary section along with science for 16 years in the intermediate section and seven in the elementary section.

In DS, six teachers also filled out the questionnaire. Two had Masters Degrees related to their field: A biology teacher with an MS in biology has taught biology for five years in the secondary section, and has had some training sessions offered by the Ministry to UAE schools.

A math teacher, who had an MA in Math Education, and has taught mathematics for five years in the secondary section and three years in the intermediate section and one year in the elementary section. She mentioned having undergone professional development, without specifying the type of courses, which I assumed were provided by DS.

The other four are: A Lebanese who had a BA in English literature, and a degree for teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) for high school students. She has taught English for six years in the secondary section, and has undergone training in a school within the requirements for attaining her degree, added to some professional training provided by DS school, which made her the only one in DS to have had training related to bilingual education.

An Arabic teacher had a BA in Arabic Literature, and has been teaching for 12 years in the secondary section. He indicated having attended several courses on teaching methodologies.

A religion teacher, with a BA in Islamic Studies, who has taught for five years in the secondary section and five years in the intermediate section. She had some training courses on teaching methodologies and planning.
A computer teacher, who has taught computer for one year in the secondary section and two years in the intermediate section, with a BS in computer programming. She has also attended some teaching workshops in the field.

A noteworthy remark is that none of the content teachers in both schools have ever participated in training or professional development related to bilingual education although they are all teaching subjects in their L2 which is the students’ L2 as well. Moreover, two teachers in SS have never had professional development. The selection of the observed teachers was done randomly according to availability. They were grade 12 classes in both schools.

Teaching Performance

a. SS English Language Teacher Observation

The first class I attended was an English class given by the Syrian teacher. She was observed and asked to fill out the questionnaire. It was her first year in the SS, and the curriculum supervisor observed her teaching with me for the first time, although it was almost the end of the year.

The teacher spent the period drilling on such vocabulary exercises as matching definitions and synonyms of some assigned words. The teacher’s role was just to make sure they chose the right answer and write it on the board. When the students did not understand the meaning of the word, she put it in a sentence while explaining it. When one of the students chose a different option than that selected by her, she stated that the sentence could take two words without explaining the difference in meaning that the sentence would have in both cases. She made some grammar, semantic, and pronunciation mistakes, such as verb-subject coordination mistakes and explaining the word “indifferent” as meaning ‘being yourself’ or ‘being neutral’.

Class management was poor in this class, since the teacher was unable to deal with those who did not participate and left them alone as if they did not exist. During the second exercise she assigned a homework which they did right away and handed them either while they were doing the exercises or at end of the lesson.

Having attended with the supervisor I thought the observation was affected and asked to attend another lesson, which also turned to be a vocabulary lesson. She explained that she emphasized vocabulary because it was important for languages. This time some students became noisy while talking with their friends. Avoiding
confrontation, she only came closer to those who participated to be able to hear them and explain meanings to them individually. One girl even put her book away at the beginning of a new exercise saying she had done it at home. The teacher barely used any of techniques on the observation sheet. In addition to relying mainly on the book, she had no control over the class, and was unfamiliar with how vocabulary classes could be handled.

The supervisor’s duties were not undertaken properly since he observed her at the end of the year for the first time. Moreover, nothing seemed to have changed between my first and second observation which had a month’s gap between them. As he was new, he seemed to feel powerless to actively try to make things change.

b. SS Arabic Language Teacher Observation

The Arabic language teacher I observed was in the same class of the English observation and he also filled out the teacher questionnaire. The teacher seemed to have a good relationship with the students. Although the lesson was a continuation of a previous one, he did not review the previous information. Instead he started by introducing a sentence to be extensively analyzed. In explaining, he always started with MSA but gradually turned to dialectal Arabic. Before explaining a sentence, he made students read it, and elucidate on what the author meant. He encouraged them to elaborate on the meanings, and then he further clarified in detail all the words and their meanings in the sentences. The teacher showed in depth knowledge of the era and literature analysis by discussing the historical background of the text and the author and incorporating related issues that would give the students a clearer picture of the textual context. He additionally reviewed some literary terms that they already knew from L2 instruction such as metaphors and made the relation between the terms in both languages. Various methods of explanation were used to ensure the understanding of new words and concepts, after which probing questions were asked to monitor the students’ progress. Students were asked to make inferences, predict information, and activate their prior knowledge (e.g. metaphor). The class was teacher centered but the learners were given the floor to ask questions, while he paced the explanation to allow for note-taking. After having finished with the lesson, he went back to syntax analysis to model how it should be done by the students.
Only a few students showed interest in the lesson. From my place in the back, I had a complete view, and saw a girl sleeping and another one clipping her nails. The teacher tried to motivate them by talking to them once in a fatherly tone and another time in a humorous friendly tone. Some students really appreciated his intimacy while the others took advantage of his kindness. He created a positive learning atmosphere through providing positive feedback, but he did not give linguistic feedback. He only corrected mistakes related to content, and tried to encourage the students’ involvement by giving them opportunities to show their understanding.

Given the importance of coordination between language and content teachers as a factor that increases language learning opportunities, the administrators’ and teachers’ views of the need for coordination were investigated together with actual coordination present between teachers.

The language teachers’ responses to (Q8 in section II of the teacher questionnaire) showed that 50% of teachers who filled in the questionnaire communicated absence or insufficient coordination between teachers. The Arabic language supervisor attributed the lack of coordination to the heavy load imposed on teachers, which prevents them from going beyond what they are required to. He added that few teachers might reinforce certain language points in their content classes, but it would be on an individual basis without consulting the language teachers of the students’ particular needs.

c. **SS Content Teacher Observation**

One session of religion in Arabic medium, and one session of math and physics in English medium were observed in grade 12. Content teachers were observed to assess their use of linguistic skills to help students increase their comprehension and L2 learning.

The physics session: the teacher came after recess into a disorderly situation resulting from a previous incident and was frustrated about having to repeat himself. He conducted a teacher centered class, while he had difficulty expressing himself in English and made many mistakes of pronunciation and sentence structure. The students spoke to him in dialectal Arabic while he replied in English at the beginning. As the lesson progressed he started using (dialectal) Arabic to enhance their comprehension and to address the students out of the syllabus. He was not prepared
with adequate resources to facilitate comprehension. As most of the students did not have their books with them, he passed around to show them a small picture in the book when he needed to show the parts of a generator, instead of drawing it on the board or preparing a big poster or flashcard. Due to the students’ disregard for his explanation, he warned them that he would not repeat his explanation again and listed a set of equations which they were asked to memorize for their next quiz.

The IE lesson followed the physics period, and was taught by the secondary supervisor, who started her class by lecturing them in dialectal Arabic about the earlier incident. Then she told the girls she was going to postpone the rest of the previous lesson for the next class, so that the guest (I) can attend a whole lesson.

The students were less talkative than they were with the physics teacher. Her efforts to gain the students’ interest paid off as about half the class participated which was good in comparison to other classes.

In examining her teaching methodology, she seemed too attached to the book, nonetheless she exposed the students to a very wide range of information in her explanations showing in depth knowledge about the material. Not only did she connect their real life situations to what they were learning, but she tried to enhance their critical thinking by asking them to give their opinions and justifications of the historical account and its relevance to Islam and Muslims. She tried to draw their attention, and paced her speech to allow for note taking. She used strategies to help students become test wise by giving a detailed summary at the end and highlighting important information. Asking them extracurricular questions encouraged them to seek extra curricular knowledge. The class was teacher centered, but a positive learning atmosphere was prevalent. Most of the students listened and understood, while some interacted as participation was encouraged.

With respect to linguistic issues, the teacher’s explanation was closer to MSA after reading, but gradually turned into dialectal Arabic when she extended her explanation to give related information by mixing words common to Palestinian and Emirati dialects. A lot of sound teaching techniques that promote learning were utilized; however language skills were not taken into consideration at all. Content teaching is emphasized for the content knowledge that it consists of, and the language in which it is provided is trivial to the teacher as well as students as long as comprehension is ensured.
The math session followed the IE lesson, and was the last period of the day. The math teacher came in with an earnest look telling the students to follow him to the audio visual center, where there was a projector connected to a computer and the internet. He had some difficulty connecting to the projector, so he first spent ten minutes trying to do it by himself. Then, he called a technician and lost ten more minutes, while the students, surprisingly, conversed quietly and acted reasonably until the lesson started. Whenever their voices grew louder, the teacher shouted after which the students immediately stopped. When he was ready, they systematically turned to the board to listen. His harsh tone kept the students quiet while following with the teacher carefully. His stern expression warned them that there was an important lesson to be given, and he rarely said anything outside of the lesson.

On the other hand, his English was good enough to be understood especially that math relied heavily on symbols. The girls seemed to understand. They solved problems, asked questions, and took notes. His only Arabic interjections were articulated either to stop them from talking or to clarify something they did not understand after having already explained it in English.

His teaching methodology was teacher centered class where there was little interaction with the students. He gave a traditional lesson in which the students had to follow and take notes. From time to time he asked if they understood, but he did not test their comprehension through exercises on the board or a quiz.

d. DS English Language Teacher Observation

The class began with the analysis of a reading text that was read at home. The DS English teacher who had native like proficiency started by asking the students questions about the events of the text, and then stimulated their participation by asking analytical questions, and creating hypotheses that challenged them with possible situations that required critical thinking and review of previous knowledge. The students were actively interacting with the teacher and striving to reach full comprehension of the text. Along with these arguments, they went over the text’s stylistic description passing by literary terms like simile, metaphor, and irony in addition to many vocabulary words. Their knowledge of the terms and word meanings were tested by asking them to explain and utilize the words in sentences of their own. These words with their meanings were later written by the students on the board as a
revision, sent to the students’ computers via the interconnection of the board (notebook project), and assigned to be studied for next time.

Next, the class started working on the correction of a comprehension test. The teacher made them undergo the testing experience again as if it were the first time. Students individually read each question and explained what they thought they were required to do. When they faced some difficulty, she modeled how they should react to what they don’t understand in a think aloud manner. The teacher taught them explicitly some strategies of how to deal with difficult words or formulations. She listened to their answers and opinions carefully, and taught them to support their points of view while showing them how to express them. She had an amazing capacity to draw the students’ attention to interact with her for the whole class session.

One important detail was that she never stopped the students to correct their grammar. However, she did repeat their statements correctly when they were not clear. Although the teacher encouraged the memorization of new vocabulary words and concepts, she used differentiated instruction to explain them and ensure their grasp by asking them to put them in sentences. She also guided them to use learning strategies such as making inferences and predictions from linguistic and non linguistic clues, and transferring knowledge from Arabic. The teacher paced the lesson to allow for note taking, whilst modeling most of what the students are required to do like providing the main ideas of texts and summarizing main points. An interactive approach to teaching the different language components was used within a holistic framework where all language skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking) were used and viewed as a whole.

e. DS Arabic Language Teacher Observation

The Arabic teacher started by projecting the text of a poem on power point. Students first read the poem, and then some questions were asked to check their understanding. It was a new lesson, so the students had some difficulty in understanding all the words. The teacher asked different types of questions to evoke the students’ background knowledge. Students were requested to make inferences and predictions from the text and previous lessons about the author and related historical background. The teacher guided them to seek the roots of difficult vocabulary words,
and then he put them in sentences to facilitate deducting their meaning. The poetry contexts and literary terms as well as difficult vocabulary words were clarified and explained explicitly and repeatedly using different methods. After having discussed the poem within a holistic framework where different skills were considered, the teacher resorted to the questions of the book, and asked them to analyze its syntactic structure. Then the answers and vocabulary words were added to the PowerPoint slides so that students could get back to them on their computer notebooks.

Upon the teachers’ request, three girls volunteered to recite the poem successfully. He asked the students if they had any questions, and required them to identify the syntactic forms of different parts of the poem in order to enhance their comprehension of the poetry text, and integrate grammar practices into authentic material which they were studying. Finally, the teacher asked the whole class to deliver the poem in writing, took their papers, sent them the PowerPoint lesson with the answers to all the questions, and assigned a quiz on the poem lesson including its analysis and vocabulary for next class. Although this activity of memorizing the poem and putting it in writing is not viewed as self expression, it familiarizes students with high standard Arabic sentence structure, and exposes them to certain expressions that they might make use of in more authentic practices.

The teacher was very comfortable in using MSA, whereas only some students used it to answer questions. They either mixed dialectal Arabic with MSA or exclusively spoke in their dialects. He encouraged them to use MSA, and modeled the way sentences and answer should be said. MSA seemed too complicated for students, so some of them avoided participation. However, he insisted on helping them try to answer before asking other students, even if they were not confident about the answer. Though the teacher had repeatedly analyzed most of the poem and the majority of the students answered the variety of questions correctly, a few could not answer some of his questions, because standard language was not readily used by them.

The fact that teachers in DS share knowledge was evident in the steps he used to deliver the lesson, which were similar to the English teacher’s. He went through different ways of explaining the text and effectively raised their attention level, but some students had an attitude towards the teacher or maybe towards the use of MSA in class. The teacher seemed to be aware of it, so he insisted on involving these students and helping them respond in successful interactions in order to get rid of their
negative attitude towards using MSA. However, his formal appearance and attitude
might have been the cause for creating a barrier between him and the students and in
turn the language classes.

When the coordination between language and content teachers is examined
the DS interest in languages was demonstrated in the consideration it gave to proper
language use in content classes even if it was only the in the elementary section. From
personal experience when my son joined this school, I observed the linguistic
feedback offered on his grade four Social Studies book.

In response to the question about the coordination between teachers, the HAD
stated that content teachers were required to try to improve the students’ language by
correcting their mistakes and offering them appropriate input, especially in
elementary classes; but this was not done in collaboration with language teachers.
She also confirmed that all the teachers met to discuss the students’ collective and
individual weaknesses, but the concern was not specifically linguistic. In response to
my question to whether they supervised language within content teaching in upper
grades, the co director explained that the material was heavier in upper grades and
their teachers could take into account language and comprehension issues at the same
time.

The triangulation with the teachers’ perceptions of the presence of
coordination in school showed that 100% of the teachers who responded to the
teacher questionnaire expressed their satisfaction with the coordination between
language and content teachers. This showed they were not aware of the type of
coordination the literature recommends between teachers. The content teachers’
integration of language items was further investigated throughout the observations of
teacher practices in the classroom.

\[f. \quad DS \ Text \ Content \ Teacher \ Observation\]

After observing four DS teachers giving content classes (math, physics,
biology, and computers) in English medium, and one social studies class in Arabic
medium, I decided to integrate the physics, math, and social studies classes only, to
make comparable observations in both schools.

The physics session took place after the break, and the teacher was in class
before the students. He started the explanation by introducing an equation on the
projector. His use of inductive and deductive means was useful in making the students understand the difficult concepts. But as he frequently questioned their comprehension, he was aware they had not understood and used different methods of teaching. He proposed ways in which students were helped to determine when the equation under study should be used. Although he encouraged them to get involved, they were only engaged when he assigned a test. So, after the explanation of the lesson, students were required to solve problems on the board. During the process of solving it was found they had not yet grasped the different steps of the solution. He tried to be patient and explained it in a different way to clarify the concept. He even used pens in an interesting way to demonstrate the theory. However, the lesson was tiresome and difficult. There was an open relationship, which allowed the students to ask questions frequently and repeatedly. The teacher was young and seemed to face difficulties in imposing his authority. They even questioned his explanation which he patiently tolerated when the questions were reasonable. At the end, he gave a drop quiz, and some of them asked for the equation, which frustrated him as he had repeated it several times, and requested them to memorize it. This teacher tried hard to pass content knowledge, but it was his first year in the secondary section, and the girls did not seem to have enough confidence in his experience, especially that the material was difficult.

Language wise they had the opportunity to practice English in meaningful context with a good role model as his English competence was quite good. As there was a foreign student in class, he only spoke in English, and the students communicated in English too. He also tried different teaching methodologies through paraphrasing, problem solving, and questioning, but his concern was just to make sure they could give back the required information notwithstanding their language use or appropriateness.

In contrast, the math teacher started her session with a revision of a previous lesson through posing a lot of questions that evaluate the students’ grasp of the lesson before passing to another one. Then, she introduced the new lesson topic, and carried on by making the students solve some exercises on a worksheet as a kind of practice. Students had to explain their way of solving each exercise so that she could write it on the board. The teacher accepted different ways of solving, as long as it was logically sequenced. Later, their e-books were used to solve new problems. Five students were
required to read five exercises to five other students who would solve the exercise on the board. To check for understanding she gave them a pop quiz of one exercise that many students were unable to solve. Seeing that they had difficulties, she collected their papers and worked on the exercise with them to find out where the gap occurred. Towards the end, she assigned a homework for the next day. The math teacher regularly involved the students in class, and performed according to their needs for more exercise or explanation, however her class still resembled a teacher centered class, for she wrote most of the exercises on the board and directed them from one activity to the other.

Her English proficiency was good, but she often code switched to Arabic either to comment on a student or to say something out of the lesson. Anything within the lesson was uttered in English to model how it should be communicated by them. Making some students read while others solve required clarification for the problem to be well understood, which raised language questions considered to be a good practice in a math class.

The Social Studies session was at the end of the day. They started with a short test for which the teacher had prepared two sets of questions that she distributed and read to alternate columns of students. The second half of the period was spent on a geography lesson about economic self sufficiency, and how it can be developed in the Arab world. Students were given particular sections of the lesson to be read, discussed and reflected on. They reflected on the economic status of countries in the Arab world and on the particular economic conditions that applied to each country. The teacher posed questions that required critical thinking, and invoked the students’ experiences, and connected them to what she was teaching. Later she showed her notes on PowerPoint and provided them many examples about relevant issues and information which were open to short discussions. The teacher insisted on student participation, and stimulated them with challenging questions that required extra curricular knowledge. In sum, the class seemed learner centered as the teacher tried to shift the discussion making it between the students letting them decide on the issues from their points of view not the teachers’.

MSA was used when the teacher and students read the texts and questions from their books and Power Point notes, but the discussions were in a mixture of dialectal Arabic and MSA that everybody participated in.
Coordination between language and content teachers is not applied as recommended in the literature. The teachers’ major concern was to ensure that students understood the required content, as they were preparing for the final exams. Except for some rare practices like those which the math teacher performed, the focus was on passing knowledge through the language of instruction.

Teacher Attitudes and Perceptions

The attitudes and perceptions that teachers hold towards BE and towards their own roles in motivating language learning, their advocacy to the school’s bilingual program, and their expectations for students L2 learning were detected from the teacher questionnaires (Q1, 2, 4, 5, 12, and 13 in section II) for their significance in channeling language learning.

In SS, six teachers filled out the teacher questionnaires. From Q1 “What is your opinion of bilingual education?”, the teachers’ perceptions of BE were examined. 50% of the teachers had positive attitudes believing BE is a rewarding experience; and 33% teachers perceived that it is a difficult issue that requires planning, while 17% stated it is a problematic issue that complicates teaching.

Teachers’ opinion of the effectiveness of their school program in Q5 revealed that 100% of the teachers believed that the school program was well planned. In opposition, when they were individually interviewed, most of them criticized the attitudes of the administration, the unsystematic setting, and the students’ competence in both languages.

Further investigation of teacher advocacy to the school program through Q 12 showed that 100% of the teachers agreed that the students benefited from the school program. On the other hand, from Q13 only 67% of the teachers disagreed that the students had difficulties due to BE, and 33% agreed, which reflected that the third of the teachers were not advocates of bilingual program.

The teachers’ perspectives of the language in which students in SS are more proficient is also examined through Q14 as an assessment of the extent to which the bilingual program achieves its objectives. 50% of the teachers thought that students were more proficient in English, whereas the other half thought they were more proficient in Arabic. It is noteworthy to mention that 17% expressed that the students’ English proficiency is in third position. The teachers’ viewpoint showed that teachers
believed that the two languages were not equally emphasized. Teachers perceived the students’ language proficiency in terms of the language they used in class. Each teacher thought the students’ stronger language was not the one used in class; since the students were not good enough in it.

Considering that the expectations of the heads of Arabic and English departments and teachers for students’ language achievement symbolized the perceptions held for the effectiveness of the bilingual program and their advocacy for it, such data was also verified. In response to Q 2 “What are your expectations for the students? The HED in SS expressed dissatisfaction with the students’ achievement. The HAD also showed dissatisfaction but believed the school is pressured by the parents demands.

As for the teachers’ perceptions of the students’ English language skills, the majority of teachers thought the students had average conversation skills, writing skills and grammar skills, whereas there listening skill were ranked good (see figure 2). It is noteworthy to indicate that the same minority who had negative attitudes toward BE perceived the students’ grammar skills were poor. Knowing that this minority represented content teachers teaching in English medium, the negative attitude is probably the result of the perception that the students were struggling to learn the content material through L2.

Figure 2: SS Teachers’ Perceptions of Students’ English Proficiency

In DS, the teachers’ perceptions of bilingual education in general showed that 50% of the teachers believed it was a rewarding experience for the students, while the
other half described it as a difficult issue that requires planning. None of them thought it is a problematic issue and they showed awareness of the complexity of the process.

The investigation of the DS teachers’ perspectives of the effectiveness of their school program revealed that 100% thought it was well planned, and 100% strongly agreed that the students benefited from the program, and similarly strongly disagreed that students were having difficulties due to BE.

The teachers’ perspectives of the order in which most students achieve proficiency in DS reflect their awareness of the English dominance in school, since all the teachers who responded ranked English in the first position, Arabic in the second position, and French in the third position.

Investigating the school leaders’ expectations in DS showed that the HED anticipated their students will be able to speak fluently while being ready for college for she deems they have been intensely and firmly prepared. The HAD in contrast, manifested that the aspired level cannot be achieved by solely applying the imposed Arabic language program of the Ministry since the rest of the subjects are in English medium. However, she expected them to succeed in the future because they were well equipped with what is needed to have promising opportunities

Figure 3: DS Teachers’ Perceptions of Students English Proficiency

The teachers’ perceptions of the students’ English proficiency showed that all the teachers esteemed the students had excellent speaking skills. 50% of the teachers considered their listening skills excellent, whereas 67% perceived their writing skills were good, and finally 50% considered their grammar skills good (see Figure 3).
Parent Related Variables

Results from the parent questionnaires were triangulated with the students’ responses, and sometimes with the teachers’ responses to report information about the relationship between the three (parents, students, and parents. Parents were classified into two categories corresponding to the A and B students labeled A and B parents. The impact of the parents’ choice of language used at home and outside school in the effectiveness of bilingual education was inspected via the parents’ intentional or unintentional choice.

Choice of Language Use at Home and in the Environment

Under this section, the study examines the languages that parents choose to use with their children and opportunities for communicating with speakers of Arabic and English in the environment through Q5 in section I, & Q1 and 2 in section III of their questionnaire. Then, data is triangulated with the students’ responses to Q 2-8 in section I.

In SS, 11 A parents and 12 B parents responded to the parent questionnaire. The mother tongue of 100% of A parents and 92% of the B parents was Arabic, while that of 8% was Armenian.

The study revealed that the majority of A and B parents used Arabic with their children most of the time, but 63% admitted using English once in a while. In triangulating with the students’ responses, students seemed to have higher estimation of their use of Arabic with parents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SS</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ar. At home</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng. At home</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ar. Exposure</td>
<td>73%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng. Exposure</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, A parents estimated their children were much more often exposed to Arabic than English in the environment, whereas their children judged they were equally exposed to them. The B parents in contrast, judged their children
were exposed to both languages equally while their children estimated they were more exposed to English (see Table 3).

In DS, 18 A parents and 19 B parents responded, and the mother tongue of 83% of the A parents was Arabic, whereas that of 12% was Farsi, and that of 5% was English. The collected data revealed that 61% of the A parents used Arabic most of the time with their children, but it should be kept in mind that 17% were foreigners. At the same time, 39% of the parents admitted using English at home which was equivalent to 22% of the Arabic native speakers if the foreigners were not included in the count. Similarly to SS, when triangulated with the students’ responses students seemed to have a higher estimation of their use of Arabic at home.

The study also revealed that the majority of A parents thought their children were much more exposed to English than Arabic in the environment, and their children at this point seemed to agree with their parents.

In comparison, the mother tongue of 90% of the B parents’ was Arabic, while that of 5% was Farsi and that of another 5% was English. The majority of B parents’ and students agreed they used Arabic at home most of the time but excluding the foreigners 5% of the parents admitted using most of the time and the others admitted using it minimally.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DS</th>
<th>Parents</th>
<th>Students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ar. At home</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>84%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng. At home</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ar. Exposure</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eng. Exposure</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The B parents viewed that their children were equally exposed to Arabic and English in the environment, while the children viewed that they were slightly more exposed to Arabic than English (see Table 4).

Parents’ Attitudes towards Language Learning

The different features of the parents’ attitudes towards their children’s language learning are altogether going to be examined in an attempt to understand
what makes some parents more involved than others, and how should their negative attitudes be dealt with. The findings were drawn from their responses to Q 3 section I and Q14, and 15 in section III in the parent questionnaire, and Q 7 and 8 in section III in the student questionnaire.

The parents’ attitudes towards language learning and the language program provided by the school, in addition to their perceptions of their role in the learning process and their expectations for the children were inspected through the parent questionnaire and triangulated through the student questionnaire. Examining the parents’ attitudes towards language learning should reflect the value they accorded to their children’s language learning. The comparison between the parents’ and the students’ attitudes display the impact that the parents’ attitudes might have on the students’ attitudes.

In response to the question asking why have parents chosen to teach their children the two languages (Arabic and English) to detect the value which the parents accord to these languages, only ten SS voices were involved in the findings.

In SS, almost all the A parents considered that the first rationale for learning Arabic was the fact that it is the language of the Qur’an, and the second was that it is the heritage language. The children were affected by their parents’ attitudes, since they accorded the same factors to the same positions. But they were more confused as to which rationale should come first: being the language of the Qur’an or being the heritage language. The third rationale was accorded almost equally to the account that it is a source of unity between the Arab people (see Table 5).

Table 5: SS (A) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason to learn Arabic</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>5th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heritage language</td>
<td>s*</td>
<td>p*</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 languages better than 1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 helps learning L2</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of Qur’an</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unites its speakers</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(s*=students, p*=parents)
With regards to the incentives to learn English, the majority of A parents as well as their children put being a global language in the first place. The second place was accorded to the role of English in helping people understand each other by A parents and students as well, emphasizing the impact the parents’ attitudes have on their children. Curiously both students and parents accorded its role in providing good jobs to the last place (see Table 6).

Table 6: SS (A) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning English

\[(s^* = \text{students}, p^* = \text{parents})\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A students &amp; parents in SS</th>
<th>1(^{st})</th>
<th>2(^{nd})</th>
<th>3(^{rd})</th>
<th>4(^{th})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reason to learn English</td>
<td>s(^*)</td>
<td>p(^*)</td>
<td>s (s)</td>
<td>p (p)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global language</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides good jobs</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps understanding others</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opens minds to diversity</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In comparison, the B parents’ and students’ rationales showed the first two positions were accorded to the same factors as the A group by both parents and students except that there was less variance between them than between A parents and students. A noteworthy remark is that the B students recognized the importance of L1 in learning L2 by putting it in third place (they are presumed to have lower proficiency in L2). Moreover, neither the parents nor the children considered the role of Arabic as a source of unity for its speakers important since they put it in the last place which confirms the great impact parents have on their children (see Table 7).

Table 7: SS (B) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning Arabic

\[(s^* = \text{students}, p^* = \text{parents})\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B students &amp; parents in SS</th>
<th>1(^{st})</th>
<th>2(^{nd})</th>
<th>3(^{rd})</th>
<th>4(^{th})</th>
<th>5(^{th})</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reason to learn Arabic</td>
<td>s(^*)</td>
<td>p(^*)</td>
<td>s (s)</td>
<td>p (p)</td>
<td>s (s)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage language</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 languages better than 1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 helps learning L2</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of Quran</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unites its speakers</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concerning the rationale for teaching children English, being the global language was accorded the first place by the majority of parents and students. However, they did not agree on the rationales placed in the second and third order. The B parents placed the role of English in providing good job opportunities second order, whereas the students placed it in third; and its role in helping understand other people was placed by the parents in third place whereas the students placed it in second place (see Table 8).

Table 8: SS (B) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning English
(s*=students, p*=parents)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>B students &amp; parents in SS</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reason to learn English</td>
<td>s*</td>
<td>p*</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global language</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides good jobs</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps understanding others</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opens minds to diversity</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In DS, 17 A parents responded and as seen above 17% were foreigners. The findings illustrated that the A parents’ voices equally allocated being the language of the Qur’an and being the heritage language in the first position, whereas their children put slightly more voices to being the language of the Qur’an than being the heritage language. Being the heritage language is further allocated to the second order of importance by both the parents and students. Interestingly, being advantageous to learn two languages is placed in the third place by the parents, whereas their children placed its role as a source of unity in the third place (see Table 9).

Table 9: DS (A) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning Arabic
(s*=students, p*=parents)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A students &amp; parents in DS</th>
<th>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>4&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>5&lt;sup&gt;th&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reason to learn Arabic</td>
<td>s*</td>
<td>p*</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heritage language</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 languages better than 1</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 helps learning L2</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of Qur’an</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>47%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unites its speakers</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With regards to the reasons for learning English language, research findings revealed that the majority of both parents and students considered being the global language the major reason for studying it. Opening minds to diversity was granted the second position by parents and third position by their children. Providing job opportunities is accorded the second place students, and third place by parents. It is noted that the parents’ impact on the students’ attitudes was demonstrated particularly in the choosing the first position (see Table 10).

Table 10: DS (A) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason to learn English</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global language</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides good jobs</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps in understanding other people</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opens minds to diversity</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17 B parents and students responded to these questions about the reasons for learning Arabic and English. The majority of B parents and students in DS considered the fact that Arabic is the language of the Qur’an the most important factor while being the heritage language was placed in second position. The difference is that the students accorded being the language of Qur’an more voices than their parents. The rationale that learning L1 helped in learning L2, and its being a source of unity were equally accorded the third position by the parents, whereas the students opted for the latter in the third position (see Table 11).

Table 11: DS (B) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning Arabic

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason to learn Arabic</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>5th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Heritage language</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 languages better than 1</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L1 helps learning L2</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language of Qur’an</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unites its speakers</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>17%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
With respect to learning English, the B parents and students considered that being the global language is the chief cause for learning English. The parents also accorded the second place to the same reason, while the students accorded it to the fact that it helps understanding other people, which the parents place in the third position. Strangely, even when the fact that learning English provides good jobs was opted for as the third reason for learning it, the voices granted for this option were little (see Table 12).

Table 12: DS (B) Parents’ & Students’ Reasons for Learning English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason to learn English</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global language</td>
<td>68%</td>
<td>53%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>37%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides good jobs</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps understanding other people</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Opens minds to diversity</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The analysis of the findings showed that the religious and cultural aspects of Arabic as the language of the Qur’an and the heritage language were the most emphasized rationales among all parents and students in both schools. This shows their relation with Arabic was closely tied with their past especially the SS parents and students. Moreover, the parents in SS accorded value to these aspects more than the students, whereas those in DS accorded less value to them than their children. On the other hand, the DS parents and students put more emphasis than the SS on L1’s role in creating unity between its people. This could be justified that they were closer to the political Middle East crisis or more involved in it. Within schools, the A students in both schools highlighted this latter role more than the B students. Another remark is that L1’s utility in learning L2 was more recognized among the DS parents and students than the SS parents and students. Specifically, more B parents and students in the DS and both groups of students in the SS recognized this benefit of L1. It could be that being at a lower language level they still needed to resort to L1.

The great majority of parents and students in both schools accorded the first position to the rationale that English is the global language, and the second position to the fact that English helps understanding the people who use it with the highest
concentrations of voices. What is interesting is that English was not very highly judged necessary for jobs, although this entire bilingual education quandary is about providing it to meet the job requirements.

Parents’ Perceptions of the School Program

The parents’ perception of the school’s language program is investigated through their responses to Q 1, 4, 5, and 6 in section II in the parent questionnaire. The collected data included the most important qualities of the schools, and the extent to which they were satisfied with teacher qualification, and teaching methodology.

In SS, 11 A and 12 B parents were taken into account in the investigation, which asked them to designate the most important qualities of their school. It is noteworthy to point out that the perception that private schools are more sensitive to students needs was accorded the first place by the A parents whereas the B parents accorded it to the fifth or last place. The perception that the school had a good educational program was accorded to the first place by the B parents, and the third place by the A parents. As for the perception that the school provided qualified teachers, it was accorded the second place by both A and B parents. Having a good record of successful bilinguals was equally accorded the second place by the A parents, while the B parents accorded it the fourth position. Finally the school characteristic of teaching three languages was accorded the fourth place by the B parents only (see Table 13).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SS parents</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>5th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: SS Parents’ Perceptions of the School Program

Concerning the other questions about the parents’ perceptions of the SS school’s teacher quality and teaching methodology, findings show that 70% of the A

83
parents were satisfied with the qualification of the teachers, and 80% were satisfied with the teaching methodology whereas, 88% of B parents demonstrated equal satisfaction with teacher quality and teaching methodology.

When the data corresponding to DS was collected, the perception that the school had good educational program was accorded the first position by the majority of both A parents and the B parents. Similarly, the school’s trilingual program was accorded the second position by the majority of both groups of parents. Likewise, the school’s good record of successful bilinguals was accorded the fourth position by both groups too. Similarly, the perception that private schools are more sensitive to students’ needs was accorded the last position by both groups. An interesting remark is that the quality of providing qualified teachers was not accorded by a majority to any position by neither group (see Table 14). Another remark is that the two groups of parents agreed on the position of all the qualities even if it were with a different concentration of voices showing better awareness of the school’s qualities than the SS parents.

Table 14: DS Parents’ Perceptions of the School Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DS parents</th>
<th>1st</th>
<th>2nd</th>
<th>3rd</th>
<th>4th</th>
<th>5th</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>B</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaches 3 languages</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>42%</td>
<td>39%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private schools sensitive to student needs</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides qualified teachers</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good record of successful bilinguals</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good educational program</td>
<td>56%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>24%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In examining the rest of the responses corresponding to teacher quality and teaching methodology, 94% of the A parents expressed satisfaction with both teacher quality and teaching methodology, whereas 84% of the B parents were satisfied with teacher quality, and 89% were satisfied with the teaching methodologies used by the school.

It seems interesting the only quality that the SS A and B parents agreed on according the same position (2nd) was providing qualified teachers, whereas the same quality is the only one not to be accorded a majority position in DS. Another remark
is that the perception that private schools are more sensitive to students’ needs which is actually only a distinctive feature compared to public schools has been accorded the first place by the A parents in SS whereas the majority of all parents in DS and the B parents in SS put it in the last position.

Related to these parents’ attitudes towards school, their satisfaction with teacher quality and the teaching methodology revealed that the great majority in both schools were satisfied with both variables. When the comparison was within schools, the B parents were more satisfied than the A parents in SS, whereas the A parents in DS were slightly more satisfied than the B parents. On the other hand, none of the parents in DS communicated being very dissatisfied, whereas a small minority communicated being very dissatisfied among the A and B parents in SS.

Parents’ Perceptions of Their Role in the Learning Process

The parents’ perceptions towards their role in their children’s learning and schooling are examined because of the significant embedded messages these attitudes might convey to the students, and thereby affect their learning. These perceptions are drawn from the parents’ responses to Q 7, 8, 9, and 10 in section III in the parent questionnaire.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SS Parents role</th>
<th>A parents</th>
<th>B parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning is teachers responsibility</td>
<td>27%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents are to be informed of children’s problems</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents don’t need to teach children more</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When supported children’s education improves</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents should show interest in children’s education</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the concept that parents should be informed of their children’s problems is inspected in SS, the findings showed that 100% of both groups of parents agreed to the statement. Likewise, 100% of both groups of parents approved of the statement
that parents need to show interest in their children’s education. The majority of B parents strongly agreed with the assumption that children’s learning is the responsibility of the teachers, whereas the majority of the A parents simply agreed. To get a closer idea of this perception they were asked to further respond to the hypothesis that parents do not need to teach more than what is taught at school, which was disapproved by about the majority of both groups of parents. The hypothesis that when students are supported their education improves was also supported by about 90% of both groups of parents (see Table 15).

Inspecting the parents’ perceptions of their own role in DS showed that 100% of the A and B parents considered informing them about their children’s problems a must. They also all agreed that parents needed to show interest in their children’s learning. On the other hand, the majority of the A and B parents approved of the statement that children’s learning is the teachers’ responsibility. The big majority of A and B parents also disagreed with the hypothesis that parents did not need to teach more than what was taught in school, whereas they approved of the statement that the students’ education improved when they were supported (see Table 16).

Table 16: DS Parents’ Perceptions of Their Own Role the Children’s Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DS Parents role</th>
<th>A parents</th>
<th>B parents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning is teachers responsibility</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents are to be informed of children’s problems</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents don’t need to teach children more</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When supported children’s education improves</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents should show interest in children’s education</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>28%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Parents’ Perceptions of Children’s Language Achievement

The perceptions that parents held for the children’s language achievement were inspected from Q 2 – 3 in section II in the parent questionnaire reflecting their satisfaction level of their children’s bilingual language proficiency and thereby the effectiveness of the respective bilingual program.

In SS, 100 % of the A parents were satisfied with their children’s Arabic proficiency level as well as with their English proficiency. In contrast, 75% of the B parents were satisfied with their children’s Arabic proficiency, while 100% were satisfied with their English proficiency. These findings did not reflect correctly the difficulty that SS faced in teaching the Arabic curriculum due to the L2 dominance which the teachers communicated. It seems the parents were satisfied with the students’ L2 competence because their reason for learning it was to understand people, which is a luxury not a necessity.

In DS, only 66% of the A parents were satisfied with their children’s Arabic proficiency, while 100% were satisfied with their English proficiency. Taking into account the B parents, 74% were satisfied with their children’s Arabic proficiency, and 90% were satisfied with their English proficiency.

The gap between the DS parents’ expectations for the students’ Arabic and English performance mounted to about 40% difference reflecting a very big gap between their Arabic and English programs. It was evident that the loads of English and Arabic teaching were heavier in DS for even the A parents were not satisfied with their children’s Arabic proficiency; while the B parents were not satisfied with their Arabic as well as their English proficiency. The SS parents’ high satisfaction level with the students’ English and Arabic proficiency was not commensurate with the low expectation that teachers expressed for them. It could be justified by the parents unawareness of their children’s learning situation, which the teachers had previously expressed. All in all, it seems that the students’ high exposure to English in the environment and the English dominance in school led to an imbalanced bilingual proficiency.
This study investigated the two selected schools (SS and DS) as examples of international schools in the region with the aim of answering the main research question: What are the key factors necessary for implementing a successful bilingual education program in the UAE context? To answer it I explored the impact of three factors – the school culture and language policy, the teachers’ performance and attitudes towards bilingualism, and the parents’ attitudes towards their children’s language learning- in the success of bilingual education in the UAE. Qualitative data of the administrators’, teachers’, parents’ and students’ responses were collected to measure the effectiveness of these factors in favoring bilingualism in alignment with the literature.

The School Related Factors

In response to the first question “Which educational policies and type of curricula favor bilingual instruction?” data about the school related factors showed the following:

School goals and objectives

One of the main reasons that led SS to face difficulties was its staffs’ apparent unawareness of the school’s goals since the administrators’ and teachers’ responses reflected that they were not informed and committed to the school’s stated objectives. The school did not make its objectives clear and accessible to its entire staff members to gain their advocacy. Consequently discrepancy was detected between the school leaders’ and teachers’ attitudes, my observations, and what was applied in SS on the one hand, and what was written in their documents on the other.

Type of Language Curricula

These two schools follow immersion approaches similar to those in schools which aim at replacing L1 with L2. The SS for example stated enforcing Arabic and English equally within its objectives, but in fact it immerses its KG1 children for 74% of the time in English medium; and 26% of the class time is offered in Arabic
Native speakers of English taught math in English in KG which is inconsistent with recent research. Thus, decontextualized language was used to explain the material to beginner language learners, which according to Housen (2002) jeopardizes the grasp of new concepts. Most importantly, the students are kept with this type of immersion, where the allocated time for English is double that of Arabic or more from KG till the end of grade 12. This huge difference between the two language allocations diminishes slightly in the primary classes, but gradually increases from grade seven until English occupies more than four times 77% the time for Arabic 17% in the last three secondary years. Although the Arabic program is described to be inefficient in this context where English dominated the curriculum, nothing is done to support it. On the contrary, some subtractive features impacting MSA learning prevail. Not only is there little time allocated to MSA but even the sort of attention accorded to it is subtractive. Scheduling the lunch break during an Arabic period in KG (ten minutes were cut off from the Arabic period for the break) indicated the marginal position of Arabic in school timetables. Delaying Arabic social studies from grade one to grade four, reducing Arabic medium to 17% of the time allocation, and including only what the Ministry of education imposes sends the message that Arabic is not as important as English.

The DS example has English as the dominant language too, and is declared as such in its mission statement with Arabic and French in second and third positions. The school’s awareness of the language dilemma led it to make plans in an attempt to handle it. The importance of highlighting language learning (including MSA) in early instruction at an age when children readily focus on means of expression and subsequently easily acquire languages is emphasized. Children are immersed in the three languages starting from KG according to their position in the broader community. In the elementary stage, the concentration on Arabic language diminishes and the focus on English starts to take precedence. As a matter of fact, science is postponed till grade two so that they could keep on highlighting Arabic, while Social Studies is imposed on Arab learners in Arabic starting from grade one.

In the secondary stage, when scientific subjects take precedence over languages, an independent course of Arabic social studies comprising economic geography and world history is added to the curriculum, in an attempt to maintain MSA use through content based learning. Hanging Jibran’s poems about the beauty
of Arabic language, its significance to its speakers, and its relevance to their progress and advancement, also represent an additive trend because they represent the ethos that act as motivators or learning enhancers referred to in the literature (Housen, 2002; Montecel & Cortez, 2002). The school’s efforts to raise the status of Arabic are coherent with Benson’s (2002) study suggesting that as the status of one’s L1 is raised, her/his own pride regarding the native language and culture is enhanced and her/his motivation to learn too. DS attempts to create a setting where the power relationship between MSA and English is balanced at least in the affective value they accord it, which generates positive attitudes but are not enough to achieve the aspired results vis a vis MSA, since in the curriculum the time allocation for English (70%) in the secondary stage occupies more than triple the time for Arabic medium (20%).

Figure 4: Time Allocation for Arabic & English in SS & DS

It is reasonable to expect that any language used as medium of instruction for more than double the time allocated for the other language throughout the students’ schooling is imperatively going to dominate the other language, especially when this language is also used in the environment (see Figure 4).

Because both schools focus on achieving good standards of English proficiency, they miss the linguistic and cultural rationale that Cummins (2001) advocates for which suggests reinforcing L1 learning as an additive approach in
which L2 is added to L1, and not replacing it as in a subtractive approach. The predicament is that when there is no internal motivation to learn one’s language, and when the students’ evaluation of themselves and their own language is negative, the probability of attaining language proficiency is low (Brown, 2000). The importance of starting with L1 is particularly stressed in contexts where the L1 is not prevalent within the broader community; and in countries where the L1 has a diglossic situation (Labeova, 2000).

Subject allocation accorded to each language has to be well coordinated too. Providing subjects related to humanities in the language that represents the culture and heritage of the students, whereas the other subjects related to science and technology are offered in the international language does not give students a dynamic view of their language (Baker, 2001). One of the problems of the schools under study is that their programs allocated only IE and social studies for Arabic, and all the other scientific subjects for English from grades 1-12.

Coordination between content and language courses is another issue that both schools needed to plan for within the curriculum. Content subjects were supposed to be offered in an L2 in order to enhance the learners’ L2 proficiency. Nevertheless as soon as content teachers started delivering their lesson, their sole objective was to make students understand the content knowledge they delivered. The stress being on grasping the required lessons, many opportunities that could have been utilized to provide new words and sentence structures while paraphrasing, defining, and summarizing were discarded.

The Arabic language supervisor suggested that the focus on linguistic performance might take place in the SS as an individual initiative, but the norm was that content teachers did not consider language their responsibility. DS was minimally involved in parallel processes only in the elementary stage. However, the process needs coordination between language and content teachers, and decisions have to be made as to how to coordinate the implementation of such classes according to the students’ linguistic and academic needs (Met, 1994). In fact, Genessee (1999) stipulates that content teachers should be trained in teaching content using L2 teaching methodologies, whereas the language used for instruction was not supervised to be in line with the level students were expected to attain whether Arabic or English. Content teachers’ language use was not taken into account in SS, since teachers were
typically not linguistically proficient in terms of the language of their content material, because their hiring requirements considered their certification in the field of specialization not the teachers’ language proficiency. Students’ language use either was not particularly emphasized. They were not even expected to use MSA. In fact, neither schools imposed the use of MSA in all classes, though it was noticeably used in DS in the Arabic language courses only.

The School Culture

Several studies report that school administrators, teachers and staff have to be proactively involved in the bilingual program, through regular and open communication between them (Genessee, 1999), but SS fails to recognize the importance of empowering teachers to gain advocacy for their school. The school has no clear dynamic communication system that entails vertical (central office and school staff) and horizontal (among school staff) linkages which lead to constructive collaborative work (Richards, n.d.). Basically, the administration gave parents and students authority over the rules and in turn the teachers, who felt the carpets pulled from under their feet. The heads of departments also complained of their lack of control and put the blame on teachers. Thereby, teachers have become skeptical of the hierarchal structure due to the lack of transparency in the distribution of roles and the hesitant authority in their school. Subsequently, the relationship between all the school population was undermined, and no one was inherently accountable for his/her roles, including the students, who have become negligent. One of many examples of how the school staff did not feel accountable of their responsibilities was the supervisor’s inactive role in observing the English teacher and guiding her to better teaching practices.

The SS did not promote the development of good relationships among its school population. Teachers were neither well trained to deal with language complexities nor supported by the administration. They were hoping for change to happen from outside (Ministry supervisors, Cambridge trainers). This attitude supports Lee and Oxelson (2006) hypothesis in their research findings attesting that educators who did not experience sufficient training as language teachers communicate negative or indifferent attitudes toward their students’ bilingualism.

Because professional development in SS was associated with lower standards
of performance, it was viewed as a remedial intervention. Therefore, teachers did not want to be perceived as needing it. It was provided unevenly and inconsistently in a way that diminished its value for teachers, while it did not address teachers’ use of practices that particularly enhance bilingualism.

Inconsistent with studies that encourage schools to try to gain the parents’ assistance in their children’s learning (Allen, 2005; De Jong, 2002), SS did not acknowledge the parents’ needs and expectations for their children by informing them of their children’s teaching and learning process (Edwards, 2004). Other than the messages that were sent with the students, parents were not provided with information about the school regulations and policies; whereas, if they were informed of them they would be able to help in reinforcing them. The school failed to recognize the resources that parents could bring to their children’s learning, when they deactivated the Mothers Teachers Association. Such barriers sometimes prevent parents from striving to overcome them, and contribute to developing negative attitudes toward schools, since the school does nothing to validate their concerns and needs (Antunez, 2000). The communication difficulty between the parents and the school was illustrated in the teachers’ and parents’ confirmation that there was not enough communication among them.

Subsequently, the teachers’ and students’ perspectives of their schools’ language policy illustrated that the schools did not stress the two languages equally as stated in the documents. Based on the interview responses, the HADs in both schools expressed concern about the students’ Arabic proficiency and thought that parents should be made aware of this. The HADs felt disempowered to act unless parents got involved to help improve the status of Arabic. Moreover, SS teachers’ ambivalence as to which language was stronger among their students by English teachers pointing out that Arabic was stronger and vice versa can be interpreted as a judgment from the teachers that since the language skill of the students were weak in English, then they must be better in Arabic. The same judgments were held by the Arabic teachers regarding English. Finally, in both schools the parents too expressed their dissatisfaction with the students’ proficiency in Arabic. All these findings are coherent with the literature confirming that the above features of the school factor do not favor bilingual education.
Teacher Quality Related Factors

In answer to the second question “What teaching practices and attitudes promote bilingual development?, qualitative data concerning the teachers’ performance and attitudes were explored to measure their effectiveness in developing the students’ bilingual education with reference to the literature.

Teacher Background

The teachers’ academic and professional background seemed to be similar in both schools for they all had a BA and some even have an MA. However, teacher qualification does not just refer to the certification. Recent research tells us that when the language of instruction is not the students’ L1 knowing the material is not enough (Darling-Hammond, 1999; Kelly, 2008). Teachers have to gain some basic language communication skills in addition to being informed of effective teaching practices (Richards, n.d.). In contrast, from the 12 teachers who responded to the teacher questionnaire, only four (33%) have certificates in education, and only two were familiar with L2 teaching (one of the English teachers in the SS and the other in the DS).

In SS, the only bilingual teachers were those of content in English medium and nonnative teachers of English, which is inconsistent with research since it is recognized that bilingual teachers are more capable of attending to students’ needs (De Jong, 2002). Those bilingual teachers’ language skills were not taken into consideration in hiring them because stress was on content knowledge. Some teachers did not have a BA, because they had their license before the Ministry requires teachers to have a BA. Moreover, professional development and training was not systematically provided to them. All this disclosed, teacher performance remains the best indicator of their effectiveness and acquaintance with effective teaching methodologies, and is discussed within each school separately since teacher contexts in DS were different from those in SS.

Teacher Performance

Based on my observations and interview responses, lack of control of the administration in SS developed unruly attitudes which disempowered teachers in their
own classes. All SS teachers had to deal with the discipline issue, which every one of
them handled differently while teaching being affected seriously.

All teachers led teacher centered classes which did not encourage interaction. They were not proficient enough to maintain their classes in standard language
whether English or Arabic. The content teachers in English medium had difficulty
expressing themselves, and stress was mainly on content. Students’ language skills
were subsequently overlooked. The teachers using Arabic medium mostly used
dialectal Arabic, while MSA was only used to read texts or questions from the book.
They were either not sufficiently qualified to interact totally in MSA, or did not see its
significance since the school did not require them to. When I asked one teacher to
justify using dialectal Arabic, she replied that students would not understand, which
reflects the alert some educators communicated for fear of losing the status of MSA as
the lingua franca among Arabs (Mourani, 2004).

The English teachers’ performance in SS was a strong evidence of the schools’
inefficiency in hiring qualified teachers and supervising them. Not only did she lead a
teacher centered class contexts, but she taught language skills separately which did
not allow for negotiating meaning in authentic contexts. Similarly, the teacher in the
Arabic class did not provide the students with opportunities to discuss issues that
stimulate talk. They were only asked to answer short questions or read exercises from
the book. His focus was on understanding the literature context and literary terms, like
any other content subject, without any linguistic feedback. This focus also reflected
the teachers’ view of their role as providers of information that students have to spill
out in the exam which encouraged rote learning and memorizing.

Teachers in the SS could not draw the students’ attention because they did not
present the material in a way that made it interesting. The Arabic teachers were also
not accustomed to new effective practices as confirmed by the HAD. They were not
trained to use resources. An example is the physics teacher’s passing around with a
mini picture from the book instead of preparing the illustrated model in an appropriate
size. The math teacher too was not trained to use the available resources.

Teacher Attitudes

The teachers’ attitudes towards the school, the bilingual program, the parents
and the students were very important for the learning atmosphere and in turn the
learning process Garcia-Nevarez et al., 2005; Genesee & Gandara, 1999; Montecel & Cortez, 2002). The teachers’ unfamiliarity with bilingual teaching in addition to lack of adequate training led them to have negative attitudes about bilingualism and the students (Lee & Oxelson, 2006). The negative attitudes that SS teachers and staff communicated was thus consistent with the literature. Teachers complained to students about the school system portraying the school and the teachers negatively. Some teachers even expressed low expectations to students sarcastically such as “why don’t you try to get something out of coming to school!” which research warns of since it builds barriers of mistrust and lack of interest leading to low achievement (Calderon and Carreon, 2000). These teachers regarded it as a way of expressing their discontent, but it actually turned against them as they did not try to solve problems adequately. The HED expressed negative perceptions of the students which impeded her from reacting positively to difficulties.

Another important teacher attitude that affects students’ achievement is their attitudes towards their parents (Shartrand et al., 1997). Teachers need to recognize that all parents want what is best for their children and want to be good parents. Such an attitude can facilitate the communication between teachers and parents and alleviate the mistrust that can build up between them. However, due to cultural factors, parents did not interfere with their children’s learning unless they were having some problems. Based on the interview responses, the majority of teachers in the SS believed parents were not aware of their children’s needs, and they typically blamed parents of poor learners for lack of concern for their education. Such negative teacher attitudes accumulate and surely impact student outcomes.

The last teacher attitude discussed for the purpose of this study was their perceptions of the students’ English and Arabic proficiency, which demonstrated SS teachers’ low expectancy and dissatisfaction with the students’ achieved levels. Neither teachers in English medium thought they were proficient in English nor teachers in Arabic medium believed their Arabic proficiency was satisfying. The heads of language departments were additionally not satisfied with their teachers’ performance. Their hopes for the future were based on expecting change as a result of professional development that the accreditation agency might impose. Thus, it should be recognized that in line with the literature in the field, all the above teacher related variables did not favor the development of the students’ bilingualism.
On the other hand, the DS teachers were linguistically proficient and used standard languages in both media Arabic and English. They had control over their classes and used established teaching techniques. However they were not familiar with L2 teaching strategies, and there was no coordination between content and language teachers just like in SS school. The Arabic teacher provided extra challenging tasks requiring use of MSA that were incoherent with the students’ proficiency level. Besides, he had a formal attitude towards the students which created a barrier that obstructed student participation and limited their output. Such relationship and practices might have also affected the students’ attitudes towards MSA.

As a result, even when these teachers had positive teaching attitudes and performance this was not enough to counteract the impact of English dominance in the curricula especially that even the stated goals did not include balanced bilingualism. Teachers did not target students as bilingual learners by using L2 learning strategies and coordinating between the two language learning. In theory they were teaching two languages, but in practice overall teacher performance targeted proficiency in L2 as indicated by the school objectives in the school documents. Even teachers in Arabic medium were aware of this situation and were trying to compensate for the shortage in the Arabic program separately not in an integrated bilingual program. Consequently, the student outcomes obviously showed proficiency in one language which is English as expressed by parents and teachers alike, suggesting that the above teacher performance was not enough to favor bilingualism since they were all heading for proficiency in English.

Parent Related Factors

In response to the third research question “To what extent do the parents’ attitudes towards bilingual education impact their children’s academic outcomes?”, qualitative data investigating the parents’ impact on the students’ language use, their attitudes towards the learnt languages and towards their own role in their children’s learning, and their expectations for the students were analyzed to measure their effectiveness in developing the students’ bilingualism taking into account what the literature says about these variables.
Parent Contribution to Children’s Language Use

One aspect of parent involvement in their children’s language learning is offering them opportunities to use L1 and L2 such as communicating with them in the language which needs reinforcement, and facilitating their exposure to it whether through the environment, travel, reading or media in both languages (newspapers, TV, songs, movies). For the purpose of the study focus was on the students’ language use at home and in the environment.

In the case of the SS and DS students, it was noted that all parents used Arabic most of the time in communicating with their children, but many parents admitted using English sometimes particularly among the DS parents. This use of L2 at home has detrimental effects on their use of L1 since it facilitates its gradual attrition when the broader community and the school contexts favor use of L2 (Kayser, 2000).

Some differences emerge between language use students of both schools when the environment was taken into consideration. The SS children were almost equally exposed to Arabic and English in the environment, with a slight inclination to be generally more exposed to Arabic than those in the DS, which is maybe due to being locals in their own environment. As for DS students, they were considerably exposed to English in the environment. The comparison between the students use of languages in both schools was strongly correlated to the type of language they were exposed to in the environment. This outcome confirms literature findings that maintain that the languages learners used in the wider community influence their performance considerably (Baker, 2001; Mc Laughlin et al., 2002). To achieve optimal results, parents have to recognize their children’s needs, and provide them more exposure to the weaker language, which was not the case of the DS parents and students.

Parents’ Attitudes

The parental attitudes towards language learning, the language program provided by school, their perceptions of their role in the learning process, and their expectations for their children are attitudes that have indirect influence on their children’s learning. The significance of putting these attitudes under scrutiny is to review the type of attitudes that impact the language learning of children of the region in relation to research that highlight the significance of these variables for student
outcomes (Basterra, 1998; Brown, 2000; Dornyei, 1994; Shartrand et al., 1997; Smith et al., 2002).

At the outset, parents need to be conscious about their own language perceptions to determine if their children were going towards or against their aspirations (Villareal, 2005). The parents’ unawareness of these perceptions might lead them to say or do things that unintentionally manipulate their children’s perceptions towards language and its learning, in an unexpected way. This remark, which is consistent with research findings, was brought in by the HAD in the SS as a result of his experience in the SS parents’ attitudes. He added that their zeal to teach their children English has unconsciously stifled their bond with Arabic.

Therefore, the perceptions that the SS and DS parents hold towards the two languages are discussed through the assessment of the rationales for learning them.

As seen in the findings, most of the parents’ and students’ viewpoints tied Arabic to being the language of the Qur’an and the heritage language, and more particularly the SS parents and the DS students. This view could have a subtractive effect on the students’ language achievement, since students might build an attitude that Arabic language was only needed to read the Qur’an, and was being learnt only to tie them to their past and culture, without being relevant to their modern way of living (Baker, 2001). Consequently, they might lose the impulse that makes them want to learn it profoundly judging that the basic reading and writing skills were enough to perform the religious duties. Findings showed that students were unquestionably influenced by their parents’ views, yet they had other roles for languages, such as the role of Arabic in helping learners learn L2. Not surprisingly, this role was identified mostly by the B students who were deemed to have lower language levels in SS and DS.

Likewise, the perception held toward English reflected its place as global language, but it did not represent it as indispensable to them. In fact he SS parents and students discarded its necessity for jobs. They might not have experienced its need yet as they were mostly locals. Subsequently, it seemed that their view of languages was optimistic meaning they regarded language learning as a luxury not a necessity. The problem is that not having a strong reason to learn L1 and L2 affects the students’ motivation to learn these languages (Lightbown & Spada, 2003). Thus informing the parents and in turn the students of the significance of learning English (L2) and
simultaneously keeping Arabic (L1) is an important undertaking for the school and the community.

Assessing the parents’ awareness of their indispensable role in their children’s learning showed that the majority believed that their role dictated them to show interest in their children’s learning and be informed of their learning difficulties, but they perceived the major responsibility of teaching them laid on their teachers. The majority realized that students also needed their help, but some of them communicated that supporting them did not ensure their success. However providing this support was essential as it showed the importance parents accorded to the children’s learning. It is true, teachers and parents have different roles, but their roles complement each others’, while their responsibilities overlap to support the children’s learning process (Allen, 2005; Edwards, 2004). Failing to hold themselves accountable for their children’s learning, SS and DS parents miss the opportunity to actively engage themselves by seeking to get informed of their children’s learning conditions and ways to improve their language proficiency at home.

In accordance with literature that emphasizes the vital role that parent have in becoming strong advocates of the bilingual program (Christenson, 2002; Epstein, 1994; Smith et al., 2002) their attitudes towards their corresponding schools were evaluated. The SS parents’ perception of their school mostly focused on teacher qualification, whereas the highest concentration of DS parents’ voices was accorded to the school’s good educational program. Based on the entire study it seemed the DS parents were more aware of their school characteristics since the school provided them with the necessary information that enabled them to act towards their children’s learning accordingly. On the other hand, teachers in SS did not conform to this perception of the SS parents, which demonstrated they were not well informed of the teaching context.

The discord between parents’ perceptions of the students L1 and L2 proficiency and the SS teachers’ expectations for the students further revealed the parents unawareness of their students’ learning conditions. The parents who were almost equally satisfied with their children’s bilingualism had higher perceptions of their children’s bilingual proficiency than the teachers. The majority of teachers on the other hand had already communicated that the SS parents were not quite aware of their children’s needs. One justification for this discord might be that their optimistic
view of languages did not require high levels of proficiency in English. Another possibility is that they compared their children’s proficiency with their own.

In contrast, the DS parents’ expectations for the students conformed to the teachers’ expectations since English teachers were as satisfied with their proficiency level as parents. As the Arabic teachers’ expectations for students were not investigated, the study considered the parents’ expression of dissatisfaction and the HAD’s and teachers’ accounts of the low status of Arabic in both schools from their responses to interviews.

As a result, the SS and DS parents’ own discontent with their children’s Arabic proficiency combine with the HAD’s expression of distress calling for parents’ help confirm findings reported in the literature that suggest that these above parent variables impact their children’s bilingual outcomes.
CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION

Summary of the Research

UAE officials proclaim to value Arabic and English equally, in view of their status as equally prestigious languages. Nevertheless, it is believed that the urgent need to teach English actually preceded the need to maintain Arabic language. In their rush to adopt English, the policy makers seem to have neglected Arabic. In western countries, educators are fighting for the immigrants’ right to maintain their first languages in order to ease their assimilation in their new communities. In Arab countries educators are calling for the maintenance of MSA in the face of an aggressive dominance of English.

While the aspiration of the Emirati parents and universities is that their high school students come out of the UAE bilingual schools with the ability to interact in a variety of academic contexts in Arabic and English, a plea in the Arabic media release that students get out of high school with a level of bilingualism that is often below what is anticipated for them (Mourani, 2004; Rashid, 2005; Wiess, 2003; Zeitoun, 2000). Researchers have suggested that success in bilingual education depend on a variety of elements such as which language is used to introduce literacy skill, the subject and time allocation accorded to each language, the type of coordination between the two languages of instruction, and several other factors that are examined in this study in an attempt to determine some of what schools, teachers, and parents should be aware of to be able to improve the students’ language achievement.

The current study investigated three major factors (teacher performance and attitudes, the school culture and language policy; and parents’ attitudes towards their children’s bilingual education) in two schools to evaluate their impact on language learning. The study is far from being conclusive, but the collected data were very enlightening.

The SS language policy being created with locals in mind had educational objectives set with UAE standards consistent with the expectations of the UAE locals. The school’s focus was on preparing the students for the region and global community they live in. It provided alternative curricula with the aim to prepare the students for the available types of universities in the country; mainly the American or
British university programs. The emphasis on IE courses with 2-3 periods/week from KG-12 reflected their cultural goals. The choice of native speakers for English language instruction reflected the theory that a language is better learnt through its speakers notwithstanding other recent findings that confirm that bilingual teachers who have the same L1 as their students were more sensitive to their needs.

Although teachers in SS were provided with professional development, its importance to the entire school staff as one interrelated structure was not sufficiently enhanced by the administration members who were supposed to be the first to attend. This lack of regular connection with research and established findings was evident in the different practices the school implemented. They not only failed to support the Arabic program to fight against the English dominance, but the sort of attention it was subjected to had subtractive effects on its learning. Similarly, the integration of L2 content to beginner learners by bilingual teachers jeopardized L2 and content learning. Failure to recognize the importance of providing content area as enhancer of language learning whether L1 or L2 was evident in the teacher qualification they sought for content teachers stressing only content delivery with no regard to language development. Finally, they did not recognize the importance of empowering the teachers and parents as partners in the learning process. The heads of department and teachers were not supported when faced with student problems and discipline issues nor were they accorded the authority to control their duties. Parents were held away from school procedures by deactivating the Mothers Teachers Association, which had negative effects on the whole school community not only for not exploiting them as efficient resources in their school, but for the negative message it conveyed by neglecting the school vision.

Teachers from both schools would be equivalently qualified if assessed by their certification, however, when teacher performance was observed teachers in SS were neither familiar with new methodologies nor sufficiently trained. This lack of training has been found to produce negative attitudes towards the students’ bilingual education which requires special attention that they should be acquainted with. Moreover, the unconstructive atmosphere that reigned in school added up to the negative attitudes that teachers have built up and impacted their motivation to seek development.

In contrast, the standards DS have set for its language policy reflected to a certain degree the inspirations of Middle Eastern parents to enhance English, French
and Arabic language learning. Because language education is higher in their countries, they demanded similar standards in case they had to go back in the middle of the children’s instruction. That is why; their interest in Arabic language did not solely conform to the Ministry’s directives. It was part of the parents’ expectations, just like facilitating the students’ entry to universities worldwide was part of their plan.

All the staff members in DS adhered in continuous professional development where they were updated with the most established teaching principles. The school’s recognition of the significance of using content to teach languages was demonstrated in its emphasis on linguistic features and feedback while explaining content lesson in the elementary stage, and its choice of content teachers who were proficient bilinguals. Teachers’ role in school planning was recognized by negotiating the program with them as informed partners while their efforts and contribution were appreciated. In addition, they were also supported in cases of confrontation. Channels were opened for the parents to get as involved as they wanted. An effective communication system that linked all the school community in an online network was designed to facilitate active participation. The school even involved them in decision making through surveys and conferences.

The DS teacher qualification was not merely based on certification since their hiring system included the content teachers’ competence in the language of instruction, teacher performance assessed through mini lessons, and character. However being specialized in bilingual education was not indicated within the requirements. The teachers’ familiarity with recent findings guided them to implement new effective practices such as explicitly teaching problem solving strategies. They had positive attitudes towards the school program, bilingualism, and parents. The ensuing perceptions of the students’ English language proficiency were subsequently high.

The last investigated factor consisted of the type of parent attitudes that affect the children’s language learning, such as the indirect contribution to their language use outside school. The children’s language use showed that they were more influenced by the environment than by their parents, but SS students used Arabic and English almost equally in the environment, while DS students used more English than Arabic. Their reasons to learn Arabic and English were not strong enough to enhance their motivation to learn the two languages. The parents in both schools had high
perceptions of their children’s English language proficiency. Their perceptions of the students’ Arabic language proficiency were a little lower particularly in DS. However, DS parents seemed to be more informed of the children’s real level than SS parents, since their expectations conformed to the teachers’ perceptions of the students.

The reevaluation of the implementation of the variables within the three major factors suggests that bilingualism was not a priority in both schools. In DS there was no reference to bilingual education in any part of its documents or interview responses. Their responses only referred to their special interest in Arabic that distinguished it from other international schools.

In SS, the only indication to equal teaching in Arabic and English was in the old school prospectus which was not easily accessible since it was only provided when I asked for more information about the school. However, their language policy derived from the type of curriculum they implemented showed that in practice bilingual education was not targeted. The teacher practices and the type coordination between subjects and teachers did not show any affiliation to effective bilingual education. Finally even the majority of parents and students did not reflect any concern about not being provided with balanced bilingual education.

On the other hand, the Sharjah School District maintained that the list of schools that was given to me represented schools that are the closest we can get to bilingual education since the other schools focus on one language either Arabic or English with minimal provision of the other language. Consequently it seems that schools that aim at providing children of the UAE with equal instruction in Arabic and English do not exist.
Recommendations

Although the heaviest load of educating future generations lies on schools, I believe it is too big a responsibility to be left solely to them. The support of the educational policy makers is needed to make the big decisions.

Recommendations for Educational Policy Makers

Educational policy makers have to be aware that choosing a dominant language assigns a specific value to the language and impacts the attitudes of the whole school environment (teachers, students, and parents) and in turn the whole community.

Research shows that due to the diglossic situation of Arabic, it is crucial to introduce instruction predominantly in MSA for four reasons: (a) to avoid its gradual attrition; (b) to ensure that students successfully develop its basic language skills; (c) to ensure grasping information of content subjects; (d) and finally to facilitate L2 learning by acting as a basis for it. In addition, several issues should be settled before imposing content subjects in English medium:

- Give special attention to initiating literacy in both languages. As L1 is the stepping stone that helps in learning L2, it must receive appropriate emphasis in the early stages to make it attractive, while L2 is initiated using sheltered language in communicative classes.
- Introduce content instruction in L2 when the learners have already attained a level of L2 that is analogous with L1. Otherwise they are first provided in less demanding subjects such as arts, PE. Difficult content area is maintained in L1 until L2 is academically equivalent to L1 (CALP). Attention is also paid to the type of subjects accorded to both languages so that Arabic is not only accorded the static subjects (Social studies, Religion).
- Allocate time for both languages on a 50/50 basis because of the abundance of the two languages in the environment. L2 should not exceed L1 especially at the beginning.
- Accord both languages equal value so that the students do not develop strong inclination towards one at the cost of the other.
• Encourage teachers, and educators to join forces and produce Arabic children literature for education and fun that comprise simple constructive material that are as informative as attractive to the students.

• Increase the number and quality of teacher trainers and language teaching inspectors to overcome the complex undertaking of effective L1 and L2 instruction. Just as teachers are required to attain certain standards, teacher trainers should uphold high standards by assuming ongoing professional development.

Recommendations for School Directors

• Share the school objectives by making them clear, accessible, and familiar to the rest of the school community in order to raise their commitment towards these shared goals leading to the formation of strong advocacy for the school which initiates cooperation and commitment among its population. When committed, they would be more focused and prepared to strive to accomplish mutual interests.

• The school leaders have to be well informed and aware of the consequences of the implemented program to be able to make any required modifications on the program.

• Teacher performance is more important than academic qualification because it reflects what teachers do in class not only what they have learnt.

• Training and professional development should be provided systematically and frequently. Teachers are also required to participate in action research, and regularly update themselves with new findings and established practices. Subsequently their participation as informed partners in the evaluation of the program is encouraged.

• Involve parents in the school environment by creating a link between parents and teachers based on the development of high standards of expectations and consistent involvement of all stakeholders to accomplish their common goals.

• Emphasize the teachers’ use of Standard Arabic, while providing students with a diversity of opportunities to use it profusely.
Recommendations for Teachers

- Teachers are expected to be role models, so they should be encouraged to learn an L2 which will sensitize them to the learners’ language difficulties, and develop positive attitudes towards bilingual education, acting as a motivator to students.
- Teachers need to keep seeking data that gives them insight and helps them link their practices with recent strategies that have demonstrated their effectiveness.
- Teachers should keep in mind that all parents want what is best for their children, so they should try to discard any negative attitude by communicating with teachers on a regular basis and not only when the student has problems. Keeping parents informed of their children’s progress alleviates the negative attitudes that they might have toward the school and teachers.

Recommendations for Parents

- Parents are the students’ first teachers. They must not wait for the school’s invitation to be involved. They have to act within the responsibility conferred to them as parents with the aim to improve the teaching and learning process.
- Parents should be able to question their children’s education as supervisors who inspect their children’s learning. Being inexperienced in such monitoring should lead them to seek for guidance from the teachers with the aim to assist them in their task. They should not worry about their interference since teachers bear higher considerations to parents who keep in touch with them and expect more of their children.
- Parents’ role extends from reteaching their children the class lesson to helping them understand it, and guiding them to actually integrate the lesson through conversations as language practice. They should encourage students to make use of the weaker language or the one they are least exposed to. Parents should also arrange for different sorts of opportunities that promote children’s language learning at all levels to amplify the significance of language learning and achievement.
- Parents should reflect on their perceptions of the two languages to ensure they do not convey negative messages that might thwart the children’s learning. They have to have pride and interest in their L1, while understanding the advantage of
learning the L2. One important message has to be transmitted to the children is that there is no language that is better or more interesting than the other. People learn their L1 to allow them to express themselves in certain contexts, whereas they might need the L2 in other contexts. Nevertheless whatever the context is they should not let the L2 take over as their preferred means of communication at all times.

Limitations and Call for Further Research

Throughout the different stages of the study I realized there was always something I would have done differently, if I had to do the research again either because of the schools’ situational framework, or flawed data.

First of all, the number of participants was neither sufficient, nor identical whether in terms of the students, parents, or teachers. I had planned for 20 students from each group A and B from both schools which should mount to 80 students. Nevertheless, DS proclaimed they only had 18 A students and 19 B students, and there was no way to get enough SS students to fill out the questionnaires. 12 A students’ and 11 B students’ responses were collected after several visits to SS. I could have eliminated the extra DS students to make them identical, but I thought more participants is always more insightful. It might have been more effective to make the students fill out the questionnaire on the spot. However, the parent responses which I attached to the students questionnaire were needed.

The second limitation is in the formulation of some of the questions such as the question related to the support offered by parents to the students. The parents’ question asked whether they checked homework, whereas the students’ asked if they were offered support in Arabic and English. The choice of words created discrepancy in the responses. It would have been more relevant to ask the parents about the type of support (Arabic or English). One would never know if it was due to the wording or just different views of their own behavior. But at least if the choice of words was the same variance would have been justified differently.

Another drawback to the study is its focus on English, although it was supposed to be examining bilingual education. A lot of questions could have asked about Arabic as well as English such as the teachers’ expectations for Arabic which was not assessed. As a matter of fact, when I chose the topic of my research I could
rarely find related Arabic research, so I searched the types of questions to be asked and designed them with reference to English. Then I replicated the questions with reference to Arabic education like in the questions about language use, but missed other opportunities.

The most important limitation is the lack of a reliable test battery in both English and Arabic. The plan was to use the GSE scores as the Arabic standardized test and their TOEFL scores as the English standardized test. However the GSE was not given in standardized contexts and the TOEFL scores of all the students were not available to me. Consequently for lack of time and adequate material I contented with qualitative data that gave the study a wide outlook to bilingual education in the UAE.

Finally further research should be conducted using standardized tests in both languages in order to produce data about the students’ real academic and linguistic achievement.

There is also need for research on the relationship between the teachers’ language proficiency in the subject they are teaching and the effectiveness of the school’s bilingual education, because it seems to me that there is a tendency to believe that content teachers’ language skills are not important since all they have to do is deliver content. Thus, I believe it is an issue that needs to be investigated in the region.
Reference List


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Appendix A: Student Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
<th>Other</th>
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1. Rank the languages according to the order you acquired them. (Rank 1 for the 1st, etc.)
2. For how long have you been learning:
   - Arabic years
   - English years
   - French years
   - Other (Specify) years

3. Rank according which language you use most with Parents, (Mark 1 for the one you use most etc.)
   - رتبة اللغات بحسب اللغة الأكثر استخداما مع أهلك.
4. Rank according to which language you use most with your brothers and sisters.
   - رتبة اللغات بحسب اللغة الأكثر استخداما مع أخوانك.
5. Rank according to which language you use most with friends.
6. Rank according to which language you use most with those who are not your family or friends.
7- How often do you talk with your family and friends in English?

Never  Rarely  From time to time  Half of the time  Most of the time

8- How often do you talk with your family and friends in Arabic?

Never  Rarely  From time to time  Half of the time  Most of the time

9- I read in English for fun on my own time.

Never  Rarely  Sometimes  Often

10- I read in Arabic for fun on my own time.

Never  Rarely  Sometimes  Often

11- In English I mostly read the following:

Newspapers  Magazines  Books

12- In Arabic I mostly read

Newspapers  Magazines  Books

Other- specify
Section II

1- How much work do you do for the English classes?
- Less than what is assigned
- Just what is assigned
- More than what is assigned

2- How much work do you do in the Arabic classes?
- Less than what is assigned
- Just what is assigned
- More than what is assigned

3- How often do you get to participate in the Arabic classes activities?
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often

4- How often do you get to participate in the English classes activities?
- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often

5- How much useful knowledge have you gained from your Arabic courses?
- None
- Some
- A great deal

6- How much useful knowledge have you gained from your English courses?
- None
- Some
- A great deal

7- How do you feel about learning English?
- Boring
- Somewhat interesting
- Very interesting
8- How do you feel about learning Arabic?

- Boring
- Somewhat interesting
- Very interesting

9- How important is learning English to you?

- Not important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
- Essential

10- How important is learning Arabic to you?

- Not important
- Somewhat important
- Very important
- Essential

11- Which of the following best describes the type of language instruction you are getting in your school?

- Equal instruction in both Arabic and English.
- More instruction in English than Arabic.
- More instruction in Arabic than English.

Section III

1- Do your parents read newspapers or books regularly at home?

- Only my father
- Only my mother
- Both
- Neither of them

2- How often do you ask your parents for help with your Arabic assignments?

- Never
- Rarely
- Sometimes
- Often
3- How often do you ask your parents for help with your English assignments?

Never  Rarely  Sometimes  Often

4- How often do you discuss things that you have read/studied in school with your parents?

Never  Rarely  Sometimes  Often

5- Which TV channels/programs do your parents mostly watch at home? Name some channels and programs.

6- Which TV channels/programs do you prefer to watch? Name some channels and programs.

7- Rank the reasons for making your children learn English as a second language in order of importance (rate 1 for the most important and so on…)

It is the global language used everywhere in the world
It provides a good opportunity for jobs.
It helps in understanding its people.
It opens our minds to diversity.

Other - specify
8- Rank the reasons for making your children learn Arabic in order of importance (rate 1 for the most important and so on…)

Arabic is a heritage language.  
Learning two languages is better than learning one in this global village.  
Learning one’s first language helps in learning the second language.  
Arabic is the language for Quran  
It creates some kind of unity between its people.

Other- specify
Appendix B: Teacher Questionnaire

To the teachers of grade 12: Please give your most candid and thorough response to the questions below. Rest assured that the information you share here will be coded and remain strictly confidential, and data from this research will be reported as a whole. If you have questions at any time about the survey or the procedures, you can contact Hoda Hamidedeen at mobile # [0505500196] or by email at prof.hyh@hotmail.com Thank you very much for taking the time and effort to respond to this questionnaire, and thank you for your support which would contribute in realizing the aim of the research which I hope would benefit bilingual education in the region. I would also appreciate your leaving a contact number or email for me to be able to get in touch with you in case any clarification was needed:

Section 1

1- How many years have you taught as:
A secondary teacher? years
An intermediate teacher? years
An elementary teacher? years
Other- specify years

2- What academic degrees do you have?

3- Have you ever participated after graduating in any teacher training related to bilingual education? (please specify)
4- Have you ever participated in any professional development activities related to bilingual education? Specify

Section II

1- What is your opinion about bilingual education? (choose one)
a- It’s a problematic issue that complicates teaching.
b- It is a difficult issue that needs planning.
c- It is a very rewarding experience for students.
d- Other - specify

2- Which of the following factors that play an important role in achieving bilingual education do your students mostly need? Rank in order of importance.

Time spent learning the two languages.
Adequacy of the school program in promoting bilingualism.
Availability of qualified teachers.
Exposure to the two languages outside school.
Parents’ cooperation and commitment to their children’s learning.

3- Rank the extent to which you emphasize each of the different English skills from most emphasized to least emphasized?

Conversation skills
Listening skills
Writing skills
Accuracy (grammar & vocabulary)

- مشاركتك في أي نشاطات لتطوير المهني؟ (يرجى التحديث)

- ما رأيك في التعليم باللغتين؟ حددي أحد الخيارات

- أي من العوامل التالية التي تلعب دورا هاما في التعليم باللغتين يحتاجها طالبك؟ ضع علامة في المربع المناسب حسب تدرج الأهمية.

- رتب مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية التي تهمك بتعليمها حسب درجة اهتمامك بها.
4- How would you rate your students’ English basic skills?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skill</th>
<th>Excellent</th>
<th>Good</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conversation skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing skills</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accuracy &amp; Vocabulary</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5- Our school program is well planned to promote bilingual/multilingual education.
6- Our school language policy enforces Arabic teaching over English.
7- Our school language policy enforces English teaching over Arabic.
8- There is enough coordination between language and other subject teachers in our school to obtain optimal results.
9- There is enough communication between teachers and parents in our school.
10- Parents are well aware of their children’s needs.
11- Our students realize the importance of learning two languages.
12- Our students in general are benefiting from learning two languages.
13- Our students are having difficulties for being taught two languages simultaneously.
14- Rank the order in which most students at your school achieve proficiency in these languages (Rate one for most proficient and 3 for least)

15- How do you deal with weak students?
- Tutoring classes after school
- Special (pullout) classes during the usual sessions
- Individual tutoring in school
- Tutoring outside school
- Other (Specify)

16- How do you motivate your students to learn English?

17- How do you motivate your students to learn Arabic?

18- Why did you choose to become a teacher?
Appendix C: Parent Questionnaire

Parent Questionnaire on Bilingual Education

Dear parents, you are invited to participate in a survey that tries to examine the bilingual situation in the UAE. Your participation in this study is voluntary; however, it is very important for us to learn your opinions. Your survey responses will be strictly confidential and data from this research will be coded and reported only as a whole. If you have questions at any time about the survey or the procedures, you may contact me at 0505500196 or by email at prof_hyh@hotmail.com. Finally, I thank you very much for taking the time and effort to respond to this questionnaire, and thank you for your support which would contribute in realizing the aim of the research which I hope would benefit bilingual education in the region.

I would also appreciate your leaving a contact number or email for me to be able to get in touch with you in case any clarification was needed:

---

**Section I**

1- What’s your first language?

- Arabic
- English
- Other (specify)

2. Do you speak any other language(s)? If yes, specify and how come:

3. If you do not speak a language other than Arabic, do you wish you did? Why or why not?

---
4- Language Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>مهارات اللغة العربية</th>
<th>مهارات اللغة الإنجليزية</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- My writing skills in Arabic are:
- My writing skills in English are
- My conversation skills in Arabic are:
- My conversation skills in English are

5- Spoken Language at home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>نادراً</th>
<th>بانتاً</th>
<th>بين حين وآخر</th>
<th>نصف الوقت</th>
<th>معظم الوقت</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- My family speaks Arabic at home
- My family speaks English at home

6- Reading Language at home

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>نادراً</th>
<th>بانتاً</th>
<th>أحياناً</th>
<th>كثيراً</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- I read newspapers/ magazines in English at home

7- My level of education is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Below high school</th>
<th>High school diploma</th>
<th>Bachelor's degree</th>
<th>Master's degree</th>
<th>PHD</th>
<th>Other (Specify)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section II

In your opinion, what are the most important qualities of this school? Rate (1) for the most important and (5) for the least important.

- The school teaches three important languages (Arabic, English and French)
- Private schools are more sensitive to the students' needs than public schools
- I want to make sure the students are taught by qualified teachers

القسم الثاني

- ما أهم مميزات هذه المدرسة في نظرك؟ رتب المميزات حسب الأهمية من (1) الفأكثر أهمية إلى (5) للأقل أهمية.

- المدرسة تدرس ثلاث لغات مهمة؛ (عربية، إنجليزية، فرنسية)
- المدارس الخاصة أكثر استجابة لاحتياجات الطلاب مقارنة بالمدارس الحكومية.
- أرغب التأكيد بأن الأساتذة القائمين على التعليم فيها هم من ذوي الكفاءات.
The school has a good record of successful bilinguals.

The school has a good education program.

Other (Specify)

Section III

1. How often is your child exposed to English outside school?

2. How often is your child exposed to standard or classical Arabic outside school?

3. هل تشجعين ابنتك على القراءات الإضافية؟

4. ما رأيك في الوسائل المستخدمة في تعليم ابنتك اللغات في المدرسة؟

5. ما رأيك في مؤهلات معلمات ابنتك في المدرسة؟

6. ما رأيك في نظام التواصل بين أولياء الأمور والمدرسة؟

1. - هل أنت راض عن مهارة ابنتك في اللغة العربية؟

2- Are you satisfied with your child's English proficiency?

3- Are you satisfied with your child's Arabic proficiency?

4- What you think of the methodology used to teach your child languages?

5- What you think of the qualification of the teachers at your child's school?

6- What do you think of the communication system between you and the school?

---

2023-03-13 14:20

绝不 Estimate

Somewhat dissatisfied

4. Somewhat satisfied

5. Never

6. Rarely

7. Sometimes

8. Often
3- Do you encourage your child to extra curricular reading?

4- How often do you check your child's assignments and books?

5- How often do you discuss your child's school issues with her?

6- How often does your child travel to English speaking countries?

7- Children's learning is a teacher's responsibility.

8- Parents should be informed when their children have problems.

9- Parents don't need to teach their children more than what they learn at school.

10- Children's education improves when their parents help them.

11- Parents need to show interest in their child education.

12- Which TV channels do you mostly watch at home? Name some of the channels and programs.

13- Which TV channels do your children prefer to watch? Name some of the channels and programs.
14- Mark the reasons for making your children learn English as a second language in order of importance, rate 1 for the most important and so on.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is the global language used everywhere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It provides a good opportunity for jobs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It helps in understanding its people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It opens our minds to other cultures</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15- Rank the reasons for making your children learn Arabic in order of importance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic is our heritage language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning two languages is better than learning one in this global village</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning one's first language helps in learning the second language</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It is the language of the Qur'an</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It creates some kind of unity between its people</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (specify)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# Appendix D: Co-director Interview

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Arabic Translation</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What type of qualification do you seek most in your teachers?</td>
<td>اللغة الإنجليزية؟ما نوع المهارات المتطلبة في معلمي؟</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you insure their good performance in class?</td>
<td>كيف يمكن التأكد من حسن أدائهم؟</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you require any kind of professional development? What opportunities for professional development do you provide?</td>
<td>هل تتطلبن أي نوع من التطور المهني؟ وهل تقدمون فرص لمثل هذا التطور؟</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you have statistics about the students’ success rate?</td>
<td>هل تتوفر لديكم إحصائيات عن نسب النجاح لدى طلابكم؟</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do you track students’ achievement and extent of progress?</td>
<td>كيف تراقبون تحصيل الطلبة ومدى تقدمهم؟</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What factors do you think play a greater role in language success? (Teacher quality, well-planned program, parent involvement, language allocation….)</td>
<td>ما هي العواصم في رايكم التي تلعب الدور الأكبر في النجاح في التحصيل اللغوي؟ (مستوى الأسئلة، البرنامج التعليمي الجيد، دعم الأبوين، المشاركة اللغوية….)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you negotiate the language program and teaching methodology with other teachers?</td>
<td>هل تقوم بمناقشة البرنامج التعليمي وطرق التدريس مع باقي الأسئلة؟</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How do involve parents in your school?</td>
<td>كيف تلزموا مشاركة أولياء أمور الطلبة في مدرستكم؟</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has your language program ever undergone any modification or reform, since the school started? If yes, give me an example of a cause for change and what was modified?</td>
<td>هل طرأت أي تغيير أو تحسين تعديل على المنهج اللغوي منذ بدأت المدرسة؟ إذا كانت الإجابة بنعم فإنني ذكر مثل عن سبب التعديل، وما الذي تم تعديله؟</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the demographic characteristics of your professional staff (teachers and administrators)?</td>
<td>ما هي الخصائص الديموغرافية لهيئة التعليم وإدارة المدرسة؟</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>How are the staff selected and recognized? (ads, references….)</td>
<td>كيف يتم اختيار المعلمين؟ (عن طريق الإعلانات، عن طريق التركبة من جهات أو أشخاص)</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What constitutes a good teaching program that promotes bilingualism in your opinion?</td>
<td>ما هي مكونات البرنامج التعليمي الجيد والذي يحفر الطلاب لتعلم اللغتين في رايكم؟</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the characteristics of your language education model?</td>
<td>ما هي خصائص النموذج التعليمي اللغوي الخاص بنا؟</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What are the main goals for the school?</td>
<td>ما هي أهداف المدرسة الرئيسية؟</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Are the teachers bilingual in the school?</td>
<td>هل معلمي المدرسة لديكم يجيدون اللغتين؟</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Arabic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>What are the mains goals of the school?</td>
<td>ما هي أهداف المدرسة الرئيسية؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>What are your main expectations for the students?</td>
<td>ما هي آمالك وتوقعاتك للطلبة؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>What are the characteristics of your language education model?</td>
<td>ما هي خصائص النموذج التعليمي اللغوي الخاص بمرستكم؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Do the students in your opinion become bilinguals? If yes, what</td>
<td>هل يجيد الطلبة اللغتين في رأيك؟ ما هي العوامل التي تساعدهن على ذلك؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>characteristics help them achieve it? If no, what you think hinders</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>their achievement?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>How do you insure their good performance in class?</td>
<td>كيف يمكن التأكد من حسن أدائهم؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Do Arabic and religion teachers communicate with students in</td>
<td>هل يتواصل أساتذة اللغة العربية والمواد التي تدرس باللغة العربية مع طلبتهم باللغة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>standard Arabic or in dialectal Arabic?</td>
<td>العربية الفصحى أم باللهجة العامية؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Do you require the teachers to use a certain form?</td>
<td>هل يطلب من الأساتذة استخدام أي نموذج لغوي معين؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Are the teachers bilingual in the school?</td>
<td>هل معلمى المدرسة لديهم اللغتين؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>What do you think about the reliance on memorization in the Arabic</td>
<td>ما رأيك في الاعتماد على الحفظ لتعليم اللغة العربية؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>teaching methodology?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Do you contribute or have any control on the language program planning?</td>
<td>هل تساهم، أو لديك سلطة للمساهمة في تخطيط المنهاج اللغوي؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Do you negotiate the language program and teaching methodology with</td>
<td>هل تقوم بمناقشة البرنامج التعليمي وطرق التدريس مع باقي الأساتذة؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>other teachers?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Has your language program ever undergone any modification or reform,</td>
<td>هل طرأ أي تغيير أو تعديل على المنهاج اللغوي منذ بدأ المدرسة إذا كانت</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>since the school started? If yes, give me an example of a cause for</td>
<td>الإجابات بنعم فيجري ذكر مثل عن سبب التغيير، وما الذي تم تعديله؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>change and what was modified?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>What are the demographic characteristics of your professional staff</td>
<td>ما هي الخصائص الديموغرافية لبيئة التعليم وإدارة المدرسة أيضا للطلبة؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(teachers and administrators) and students?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>How are the staff selected and recognized? (ads, references….)</td>
<td>كيف يتم اختيار المعلمين؟ (عن طريق الإعلانات، عن طريق التركيبة من جهات أو</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>أشخاص)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>What type of qualification do you seek most in your teachers?</td>
<td>ما هي المؤهلات المطلوبة توفرها في معلمي اللغة؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>What factors do you think play a greater role in language success?</td>
<td>ما هي العوامل التي تلعب الدور الأكبر في التحصيل اللغوي؟</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Teacher quality, well-planned program, parent involvement,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>language allocation….)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>What constitutes a good teaching program that promotes bilingualism in your opinion?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----</td>
<td>-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>ما مكونات البرنامج التعليمي الجيد والذي يحفز الطلاب لتعلم لغتين في رأيك؟</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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## Appendix F: Classroom Observation Sheet

### CLASSROOM OBSERVATION:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Specific Techniques relating to the Strategies</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Encourages repetition/memorization</strong></td>
<td>a. T encourages repetition of idiomatic phrases/vocab</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>b. T encourages memorization of reading passages</td>
<td></td>
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<td>c. T drills sts using grammatical forms (types of exercises)</td>
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<td>d. T determines particular phrases passages to be used in writing</td>
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<td><strong>Encourages creativity</strong></td>
<td>a. T encourages st involvement &amp; expression in meaningful context</td>
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<td>b. T engages sts to take risks in starting debates/discussing opinions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>c. T asks probing questions to monitor st progress</td>
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<td>d. T engages sts in writing journals &amp; voluntary writing</td>
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<td>e. Other</td>
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</table>
| Encourages collaborative learning | a. T encourages sts to share what they learnt in L1 or outside class  
b. T directs them to work in pairs or groups  
c. T creates learning activities & interactions with peers  
d. T develops peer evaluation sessions after writing  
e. Other |

| Uses differentiated instruction | a. T uses various methods to explain new words/ concepts to ensure achievement  
b. T uses inductive/ deductive types of explanations of lessons  
c. T incorporates various instructional illustrations ex. Films, diagrams…  
d. T implements various prewriting activities  
e. Other |

| Uses authentic context | a. T provides sts with situations that they will encounter in real life.  
b. T uses authentic material to support learning: magazines, newspapers…  
c. T chooses writing topics relevant & meaningful to the sts  
d. Other |

| Uses content/language based instruction | a. T uses subject matter texts to develop L2 skills while broadening content knowledge  
b. T conveys informational content of interest & relevance to the learner  
c. T requires writing summaries/ reports/ reviews of lessons to support learning  
d. Other |
| Guides sts to use learning strategies | a. T summarizes & provides main points at the end of the lesson  
b. T paces lesson to allow for note-taking  
c. T helps sts make inferences, predict info, anticipate from ling/nonling cues  
d. T directs them to transfer knowledge from L1  
e. T encourages sts to ask Qs for clarification  
f. T directs sts to set their own goals  
g. T models most of what sts are required to do  
h. T directs st attention to the process of writing not the product: drafting/ revising/editing  
i. Other |
|---|---|
| Elicits critical thinking | a. T asks sts to self correct selected mistakes & justify  
b. T requires sts to reason & analyze thought during discussions  
c. T requires sts to reason & analyze thought while writing  
d. Other |
| Conducts teacher or learner-centered classes | a. T accounts for st needs/ background knowledge/goals/ interests.  
b. T uses st strengths as basis for growth  
c. T encourages sts to assume responsibility for shaping learning tasks  
d. T incorporates st experience and culture into instruction  
e. T recognizes when sts do not understand  
f. T encourages self editing by setting evaluation criteria  
g. T suppresses emotions  
h. T authority is very obvious  
i. T does not accept disagreement/expression of opinion/ diversity of Qs  
j. Other |
| Focus on fluency or accuracy | a. T prompts sts with only selected corrections  
b. T focuses on functional use of language more than grammatical elements  
c. T emphasizes form over function of language  
d. T responds to writings with a view on the adequacy of expression rather than form  
e. Other |
|-----------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------------------|
| Creates positive learning environment | a. T provides sts with affective feedback to encourage speaking  
b. T plays games & laughs with sts to lower inhibition: guessing/ com  
c. T builds st self-confidence by praising them  
d. T uses L1 to clarify difficult concepts or words  
e. T accepts use of L1 to lower inhibition  
f. T encourages sts to share their writings by putting them on the walls  
g. Other |
| Maintains high expectations but within attainment | a. T shows enthusiasm & excitement towards sts’ work  
b. T presents challenging content material that provoke interest  
c. T presents challenging questions to stimulate discussion  
d. T answers questions clearly & directly  
e. T prepares sts for lessons with appropriate assigned readings  
f. T encourages sts to participate in collective activities: newsletter, theatre  
g. Other |
| CW & HW suggested to promote learning | a. T relates assignment to course content as practice & feedback  
b. T requires regular reading  
c. T explains assignments clearly & carefully  
d. T requires regular writing to be put in portfolios to monitor progress  
e. Other |
| --- | --- |
| Assessment used to improve learning | a. T uses assessment in planning for following instruction  
b. T uses portfolios as performance based assessments  
c. T drills sts to become test-wise  
d. Regular practice facilitates focusing on different aspects of writing  
e. Other |
| Comments | |
Appendix G: Language and Subject of Instruction in Sharjah School (SS) – (*p = period)

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Appendix H: Language and Subject of Instruction in Dubai School (DS)

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## Appendix I: Language of Instruction in SS

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VITA

Hoda Hamideen taught English for four years in primary classes and one year in the intensive program of King Saud University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. She has been a student all through her life by continuing her secondary schooling after her marriage at the age of 17 until she finished writing this thesis for her MA at 52. She has studied languages in Lebanon, the UK, France, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE gaining experience in learning as well as teaching. In view of the great effect second language learning has on Arabic culture and language in the region, bilingual education took great significance within her areas of interest as a means by which she can materialize her relation with religion/Allah.