

Doctoral Dissertation

Language Policies in Tunisian Higher Education: Tutors' and Students' Language Use and Perceptions regarding the Status of English

Aicha Rahal

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Abstract

Although noteworthy initiatives (e.g., Aouina, 2013; Boukadi, 2013; Rahal, 2021, 2023a & 2023b) have been reported in the literature, research on Language Policy (LP) in Tunisia has not yet been in the limelight. Research to date has never investigated the lack of a compromise between linguistic needs and political regulations. This dissertation aims to explore language practices in Tunisian higher education, the perceptions of Tunisian university tutors, researchers, and students regarding the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, the LP discourse, and the promotion of the status of English in Higher Education (HE). Spolsky's (2004) triangular model is used as a theoretical framework for investigating language practices, language beliefs, and language management.

Methodologically, this dissertation employs a qualitative method that includes quantitative data. Data is triangulated with informal and formal observations, a questionnaire, interviews, and desk research. The purpose of using triangulation is to collect data from different sources and gain a thorough understanding of the subject matter. The Constant Comparative Method (CCM) is used to analyze data from the four research tools, compare, and contrast the results to identify core themes that represent aspects of the developed provisional model for LP.

The results demonstrate that grassroots views, represented by tutors, researchers, and students, show an urgent need for English in HE. There is also a call to promote Arabic and French. All the interview informants agree on the absence of a clear LP, indicating a mismatch between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs. By synthesizing the key findings, a provisional holistic model for LP is developed. This model incorporates aspects of the data, emphasizing the right of all stakeholders (tutors, researchers, students, and policymakers) to create and implement language policies. The LP model calls for a dialogue between "people with power," "people with expertise," and "people with needs," adopting a bottom-up approach rather than decisions imposed from the top down. LP development should involve consultation with policymakers and the commitment of those who work most closely with students ("bottom-up") (Baldauf, 1997, p. 4).

To my parents...

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List of Abbreviations

LPP: Language Planning and Policy

LP: Language Policy

HE: Higher Education

LEP: Language Education Policy

EMI: English as a Medium of Instruction

CLIL: Content and Language Integrated Learning

CBI: Content-Based Instruction

LC: Language Choice

LS: Language Switching

MSA: Modern Standard Arabic

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

MHE: Ministry of Higher Education

CCM: Constant Comparative Method

MC: Member Checking

CA: Conversation Analysis

Introduction

Rationale for the Research

This dissertation provides a comprehensive picture of the current status of English in Tunisia by amplifying the voices of tutors and students. It encourages further investigations into specific aspects of promoting English in higher education. Additionally, it offers tutors and students an opportunity to express their perspectives on enhancing the status of English and integrating it as the language of instruction in higher education. The research aims to raise awareness of the current situation in Tunisia and highlight the initiatives proposed by tutors and students.

This research will investigate the political and academic rationale behind the Tunisian Language Policy (LP) to create a compromise between political and linguistic needs. The findings are expected to make a significant contribution to the field of LP. It aims to advance this growing area of research by exploring the role of linguists in shaping LP and examining how language experts should be involved in its formulation. Additionally, this research could serve as an impetus for forthcoming reforms in the Tunisian educational system.

Research Objectives and Research Questions

This research aims to explore how Tunisian university students and tutors perceive the current perspectives on the frequency and preference for using English and the reasons behind its use. It also investigates their attitudes towards using English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) in higher education and the anticipated outcomes of implementing EMI. In light of these objectives, this dissertation addresses a central question: How do Tunisian university tutors and students perceive the current status of English, including its use, policy, and promotion? The following are the research questions:

- 1) To what extent and in what contexts are Arabic, French, and English used in Tunisian higher education?
- 2) What are the functions of language switching?
- 3) What are norms that govern language choice and language switching?

- 4) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the frequency and preference for using English and the reasons for its use in higher education?
- 5) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the promotion of English and its use as a Medium of Instruction in higher education?
- 6) What regulations should the Tunisian government and the Ministry of Higher Education implement to promote the status of English, according to the informants?

The Structure of the Dissertation

The dissertation consists of an introduction, seven chapters, and a conclusion. The introduction presents the rationale for the research and introduces the research objectives and research questions. It concludes by outlining the structure of the dissertation. Following the introduction, Chapter 1, the Literature Review, is divided into two parts. The first part defines key concepts: Language Planning, Language Policy (LP), and English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI), and provides an overview of the historical development of LP and its models. It also presents the theoretical framework of the dissertation and reviews previous studies on language use and language beliefs. The second part introduces the linguistic situation in Tunisia, outlines the LP background, and reviews previous research on LP in Tunisia. The chapter concludes with a summary of the main points and highlights the research niche.

Before presenting the empirical studies of this dissertation, Chapter 2 provides an overview of the research design and methods. This chapter introduces the method of triangulation, the Constant Comparative Method, and trustworthiness, and concludes with ethical considerations. Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6 present four major studies. These chapters follow a similar structure: They begin with a methodology section that includes definitions of the data collection tools, a presentation of the design and validation processes, followed by the results and analysis.

Chapter 3 discusses key aspects of observation by reviewing its definitions, types, and features. Additionally, this chapter presents the two developed observation charts and the results of the validation process. Then, it introduces the selected interactions and their analysis. Chapter 4 provides an overview of the questionnaire, including its definition, rationale, and limitations. The chapter then focuses on the design process for the developed

questionnaire. The discussion continues with the validation process, presenting the results of the think-aloud protocol and Cronbach's Alpha. This is followed by the results and analysis of both closed-ended questions and open-ended questions.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to the third study, the perception interview. Similar to Chapter 4, this chapter presents the definitions, rationale, and limitations of the interview. It outlines the design process for the developed interview schedule and its validation process, followed by the results and analysis. Subsequently, Chapter 6 provides an overview of desk research, including its definition and rationale. It also presents desk research documents and analyzes the emerging themes.

The overall discussion of the results obtained from the four studies is presented in Chapter 7. This chapter begins by addressing the research questions, comparing the results, and discussing several issues raised in the previous chapters. It then introduces the provisional holistic model for LP and describes its components. The dissertation concludes by summarizing the main findings and recapitulating the theoretical and methodological implications. Additionally, the conclusion presents the limitations and directions for future research.

Chapter 1. Literature Review

This chapter provides a theoretical overview of the dissertation by defining key concepts, presenting the theoretical framework, and discussing previous studies relevant to the research topics. The chapter is divided into two main parts. The first part consists of three sections. The first section focuses on the conceptualizations of Language Planning and Policy (LPP) and related concepts, such as Language Education Policy (LEP) and English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI). The second section gives an overview of the historical development of LPP and various LP models, including Fishman's cyclical model (1979), Tollefson's Historical-Structural model (1991), and Spolsky's triangular model (2004). The third section presents the theoretical framework adopted in this dissertation, beginning with introducing the first component, "language practices," and definitions of related key concepts, including language choice, language switching, borrowing, and translanguaging. This is followed by a discussion of "language beliefs," and subsequently, the conceptualizations of "language management" are introduced.

The second part of this chapter explores the linguistic situation in Tunisia, with a particular focus on higher education and the LP background. It also presents previous studies on language use in Tunisia and Tunisians' perceptions of the language situation and language policies.

The choice of the theoretical framework structure 'practices, beliefs, management' can be explained by the objectives of this research, which aims to investigate grassroots-level language use and perceptions of local stakeholders (tutors, researchers, and students). The discussion begins with language use because I believe it produces language beliefs. Language management, which encompasses LP documents and regulations, is examined in Chapter 6 to explore the relationship between declared regulations and de facto language practices, offering a holistic view of the LP landscape in Tunisia.

1.1 Language Planning and Policy

1.1.1 Language Planning

Language planning is defined as "the activity of preparing a normative orthography, grammar, and dictionary for the guidance of writers and speakers in a non-homogeneous speech

community” (Haugen, 1959, p. 8). Similar to Haugen’s definition (1959), Kloss (1969) asserts that “planning with regard to languages is usually understood to mean that some agency, person, or persons are trying to change the shape or the corpus of a language by proposing or prescribing the introduction of new technical terms, changes in spelling, or the adoption of a new script” (p. 81). These definitions highlight the “form-function” dimension of language planning and the codification of specific aspects of language, such as orthography, grammar, and spelling. Building on this, Haugen (1983) introduces the concepts of “status planning” to refer to the allocation of norms and “corpus planning” to mean codification, which includes graphization, grammatication, and lexication (p. 275).

According to Cooper (1989), language planning can be defined as the “deliberate efforts to influence the behavior of others with respect to the acquisition, structure, or functional allocation of their language codes” (p. 45). This definition indicates that language planning focuses on individual behaviours, plans or programs to achieve certain goals. For the purpose of this research, Cooper’s (1989) definition is adopted, as it describes language policy as a process of planning and decision-making by policymakers to achieve specific objectives.

1.1.2 Language Policy

Language Policy (LP) is defined in various ways. According to Ager (2001), it refers to “official planning, carried out by those in political authority, and has clear similarities with all other forms of public policy. As such, LP represents the exercise of political power, and like any other policy, may be successful or not in achieving its aims” (pp. 5-6). Shohamy (2006, p. 45) defines LP as “decisions made about languages and their uses in society [...] with regard to the preferred languages that should be legitimized, used, learned, and taught in terms of where, when, and in which contexts.” Both Ager (2001) and Shohamy (2006) conceptualize LP as an authoritative statement that clarifies the selection, use, and teaching of specific languages, involving the official implementation of plans that manage language practices.

Another definition of LP is provided by Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), who describe it as “a body of ideas, laws, regulations, rules, and practices intended to achieve the planned language change in the society, group or system” (p. ix). Similar to Ager (2001), Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) assert that LP includes official planning and ideas that can be developed into regulations. Notably, Kaplan and Baldauf’s (1997) definition differs slightly

from Ager's (2001) by including "practices," indicating that language practices are a key aspect of policy creation.

When defining LP, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997) distinguish between macro- and micro-levels. Macro-level policy refers to top-down decisions made by policymakers and national or governmental organizations. It includes both verbal and written statements, such as constitutional clauses, laws, and declarations. In contrast, micro-level policy encompasses bottom-up initiatives from smaller organizations, such as schools or classrooms.

These conceptualizations form the classical definition of LP "as text" (Ball, 1993, p. 10). However, other researchers view LP as a complex socio-economic process. For example, McCarty (2011) describes LP as a situated and embodied "complex socio-cultural process" that involves "normative claims about legitimate and illegitimate language forms and uses" (p. 8). Based on this definition, the field of LP has expanded beyond "stand-alone" official legislation to include micro-level practices.

Similar to McCarty (2011), Spolsky (2004) defines LP as the combination of "three interrelated but independently describable components: Practices, beliefs, and management" (pp. 3-4). His definition, therefore, differs from the previously cited ones by emphasizing the interrelation between individuals' behaviours, perceptions, and policymakers' planning and regulations.

In accordance with these perspectives, in this dissertation, LP refers to language practices, beliefs, and language management (planning and regulations). Thus, this research aims to explore these three aspects by focusing on the bottom-up level (tutors' and students' language practices and perceptions) and the top-down level (regulations and policymakers' perceptions).

1.1.3 Language Education Policy

Language Education Policy (LEP) is defined as "the official and unofficial policies that are created across multiple layers and institutional contexts (from national organizations to classrooms) that impact language use and education in schools" (Johnson, 2013, p. 77). According to Johnson (2013), LEP refers to policymakers' decisions regarding the organization of language use in education. Similarly, Shohamy (2006) clarifies the role of LEP, stating that it "determines the priority of certain languages in society and how these

languages should be used, taught, and learned” (p.77). This indicates that LEP focuses on methods of teaching and learning languages.

Although LEP is a component of LP, an in-depth discussion of this topic is beyond the scope of this dissertation. Another reason for not addressing LEP in detail is its primary focus on curricula, textbooks, and assessment methods. However, the aim of this research is to investigate the status of languages, particularly English, as well as LP issues, with an emphasis on language practices, beliefs, and management.

1.1.4 English as a Medium of Instruction

English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) has recently become a growing topic of discussion due to the global spread of English. It has previously been referred to as English medium teaching (Coleman, 2006) and English-medium education (Dearden, 2014). Dearden (2014) defines EMI as the “use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language of the majority of the population is not English” (p. 2). According to Dearden (2014), EMI involves teaching content subjects such as Chemistry, Engineering, History, Mathematics, and Science in English.

Macaro (2018) describes EMI as an elusive term, arguing that “it can be deployed as a broad umbrella term for several other teaching approaches or categorizations of educational systems, such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Immersion” (p. 1). While Jenkins (2018) suggests that CLIL can be used interchangeably with EMI, Macaro (2018) emphasizes the importance of distinguishing between EMI, CLIL, and Content-Based Instruction (CBI).

EMI is considered a pedagogical approach that uses English to teach academic subjects (Dearden, 2014). However, Coyle et al. (2010) define CLIL as a “dual-focused form of instruction where attention is given to both the language and the content” (p. 3). CBI, in contrast, is “designed to embed language instruction in the context of content that is meaningful to learners” (Cammarata et al., 2016, p. 12). The key difference among these three approaches is their dual focus on content and language: Both CLIL and CBI focus on both aspects, while EMI concentrates solely on content. Additionally, EMI is more commonly used at the tertiary level, whereas CLIL and CBI are more prevalent in primary and secondary education.

1.1.5 Benefits and Challenges of English as a Medium of Instruction

Several researchers (e.g., Kriukow & Galloway, 2018; Schmidt, 1998) identified numerous benefits from implementing EMI. Kriukow and Galloway (2018) argued that EMI offers better job prospects locally and internationally and participation in multicultural and multilingual communities. At the tertiary level, Kriukow and Galloway (2018) further stated that the incorporation of EMI is considered a way of meeting the needs of globalization. Additionally, Schmidt (1998) cited several benefits of implementing EMI, including ensuring that students gain the language skills necessary for successful subject content instruction, equal educational opportunity, and future employment (as cited in Tsui and Tollefson, 2008, p. 285).

These studies emphasized the importance of implementing EMI, as the researchers highlighted its positive aspects, including global academic exchange and connectedness, linguistic development, improving students' proficiency, and better job prospects.

Equally important, several challenges that hinder EMI implementation have been identified. Dearden (2014) listed these: a shortage of linguistically qualified lecturers; a lack of stated expectations of English language proficiency; few organizational or pedagogical guidelines, which might lead to ineffective EMI teaching and learning; and the absence of EMI content in initial lecturer education preparation training programs, as well as continuing professional development (in-service) courses.

Similar to Dearden (2014), Kriukow and Galloway (2018) highlighted the inadequate or low English-language proficiency among students and instructors in non-native speaking countries. Kriukow and Galloway (2018) explained that students may suffer from demotivation and/or low self-esteem, while their tutors may either fail to explain the course content efficiently or find difficulty in maintaining communication in the target language.

Although EMI has several positive aspects, counterarguments emphasize the challenges that hinder its implementation. It is noted that linguistic challenges, as demonstrated by the limited language proficiency of both tutors and students, are a common obstacle reported in previous literature. Additionally, other challenges include the lack of teaching resources and pedagogical guidelines for effectively implementing EMI.

After defining LP and related concepts, the next section traces the development of the field of LPP to identify the various topics discussed in this field. It also presents the major LP models.

1.2 Historical Development of Language Policy and Planning

Ricento (2000) proposed three phases of LPP development. The first phase, which began in the 1960s, focused on national language issues from a neutral perspective, including standardization and modernization. During this phase, language was regarded as a technical resource, characterized by descriptive explorations of LPP. An example of publications addressing national language issues is Fishman, Ferguson, and Das Gupta's *Language Problems of Developing Nations* (1968).

The second phase ranged from the early 1970s to the late 1980s. During this period, scholars vigorously criticized the descriptive models established in the earlier phase of LPP. This period is marked by an increased awareness among scholars, who called for more motivated and theoretically grounded LPP frameworks. The focus shifted from merely describing LPP to a deeper examination of the social, economic, and political effects of language contact. Rubin (1983) criticized the rational model of planning, arguing that language-status planning is a “wicked” problem.

The third phase began in the 1990s, calling for new theoretical and empirical directions. Critical approaches emerged during this period, with Cooper (1989) and Tollefson (1991) among the leading scholars of this critical phase. New themes were developed, including the role of ideology in LP, the connection between ideology and LP in education, and a focus on power and inequality (Tollefson, 1991).

1.3 Language Planning and Policy Models

Several approaches have been developed to investigate LPP, including Fishman's cyclical model (1979), Tollefson's Historical-Structural approach (1991), and Spolsky's triangular approach (2004). A brief overview of these models is presented below.

1.3.1 The Traditional Approach to LPP

The traditional approaches to LP were based on the positivist paradigm and its ideology of “one-language-one-nation.” LPP was viewed as a top-down process that addressed issues

related to national language planning. A notable model is Fishman's cyclical model (1979), which outlines six stages of status and corpus planning processes: 1) decision-making, 2) codification, 3) elaboration, 4) implementation, 5) evaluation, and 6) iteration. These processes are further divided into status planning, such as decision-making and implementation, and corpus planning, comprising codification and elaboration. Together, they represent the key phases of LP formulation.

However, traditional approaches have several limitations. Tollefson (1991) criticized them for viewing LP as a political process that prioritizes the dominant language to maintain power. This perspective is reflected in Fishman's (1979) cyclical model, which is based on centralized decision-making. Tollefson (2008) further argued that traditional approaches are built on an "optimistic belief" (p. 4), claiming that the aim of LPP is to help minorities gain access to the dominant language.

1.3.2 Tollefson's (1991) Historical-Structural Approach

Tollefson (1991) was inspired by the critical turn in the third phase of LP and developed the "Historical-Structural Approach." This approach emphasizes "the impact of coercive policies on language learning and language behavior" (Tollefson, 2013, p. 26). In his critical approach, Tollefson (2013) views language policies as "mechanisms for creating and sustaining systems of inequality that benefit wealthy and powerful individuals, groups, institutions, and nation-states, as well as for resisting systems of inequality" (p. 27). According to this model, LP is seen as a means to serve economic and political interests.

The primary objective of this approach is "to develop a theory of language planning that makes explicit the mechanisms by which planning processes interact with other historical-structural forces that form language communities and determine patterns of language structure and use" (Tollefson, 1991, p. 36). This model also examines the "historical antecedents" (May, 2006, p. 268) that influence LP.

At the same time, Tollefson's (1991) model has several limitations. Johnson (2009) criticized critical LP models for focusing on "the power invested in policy" while neglecting the role of individuals in decision-making. Tollefson (1991) acknowledged this limitation, arguing that his model failed to account for individuality in LP (pp. 35-36). The emphasis was placed on the macro-level, excluding individual participation in decision-making.

1.3.3 Spolsky's (2004) Triangular Model

Spolsky (2004) developed a model of LP, which consists of three interrelated components: 1) Language practices, 2) Language beliefs, and 3) Language management. These components were later labeled by Bonacina-Pugh (2012) as the “practiced, perceived, and declared” language policies.

Spolsky's assertion that LP is embedded in language practices represents a decisive development in the field. He emphasizes practice, arguing that “the real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than in its management” (p. 222). Furthermore, Spolsky (2007) contends that communities possess their “own policy, with some features controlled internally and others under the influence or control of external forces” (p. 2). Consequently, this new conceptualization of LP suggests that communities' language practices are governed by two sets of rules: Internal rules established by the community and external rules defined by legal texts.

For clarity, Spolsky's model (2004), which is adopted as the theoretical framework, will be introduced below. The next section will present the three components of this model in more detail, focusing on the key concepts for each and reviewing some representative studies.

1.4 Theoretical Framework

This dissertation employs Spolsky's (2004) model of LP as its theoretical framework. The three components, language practices, language beliefs, and language management, meet the research objectives of this research, which aims to investigate language practices in higher education by focusing on both informal and formal settings, as well as the perceptions of tutors, researchers, and students and the analysis of LP documents. This triangular model provides a valuable framework for understanding the relationships among these three components.

1.4.1 Language Practices

Language Practices is the first component of Spolsky's (2004) model. It is defined as “the sum of the sound, word, and grammatical choices that an individual speaker makes, sometimes consciously and sometimes less consciously, that make up the conventional unmarked pattern of a variety of a language” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 9). This definition is broad, referring to people's use of language varieties. Spolsky (2004) further explains that the

concept of language practices refers to individuals' language behaviours. Spolsky and Shohamy (2000) state that “practice refers to the deducible, implicit rules that seem to underlie the language use of a defined community” (p. 2). According to these researchers, practice refers to language use and the norms that underly it.

In this research, the concept of language practices refers to “what people actually do” (Spolsky, 2004, p. 222), the languages used by informants, including language choice and language switching. More specifically, the aims of this dissertation are to investigate “practiced language policy,” focusing on actual language use and to uncover “deducible and implicit rules,” and “nonobservance,” rules that “are not always observable, but [...] their nonobservance is noticeable” (Spolsky & Shohamy, 2000, p. 29).

Having presented the conceptualizations of language practices, it is important to define related concepts that will be used throughout this dissertation, such as language choice, language switching, borrowing, and translanguaging.

Language Choice

Language Choice¹ (LC) is defined as a code and “any kind of system that two or more people employ for communication” (Wardhaugh, 2010, p. 86). It refers to any system or language(s) used for communication purposes. According to Wei (1994), there are two categorizations of LC: The macro-societal level (the broader context of LC) and the micro-interactional level (individual linguistic behaviours). Wei (1994) further explains that the micro-interactional level concerns language switching and other phenomena such as code-mixing.

In this dissertation, LC is defined as a communicative system (Wardhaugh, 2010), referring to the various languages used in interactions in both formal settings, such as classrooms, and informal settings, including university corridors, libraries, and canteens. The aim is to identify the preferred language(s) used by tutors and students, examine language-use patterns, and explore the norms underlying switching between languages.

Language Switching

There are several definitions of Language Switching (LS). Gumperz (1982) defines LS as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two

¹The concepts of “Language Choice” (LC) and “Language Switching” (LS) will be used throughout this dissertation to refer to “Code Choice” and “Code Switching,” respectively, to avoid any confusion with the term “code” of the Constant Comparative Method.

different grammatical systems or subsystems” (p. 59). This definition emphasizes the two grammatical systems within one language, although most people use LS to refer to the mixed use of different languages.

Milroy and Muysken (1995) provide another definition, viewing LS as “the alternative use by bilinguals of two or more languages in the same conversation” (p.7). Similarly, Macswan (1999) describes LS as “a speech style in which fluent bilinguals move in and out of two (or conceivably more) languages” (p. 37). Based on these definitions, LS refers to the alternation between two or more languages.

Language Switching vs. Borrowing

When discussing LS, it is important to address the distinction between LS and borrowing, which has become the focus of recent controversy. Weinreich (1968, p. 11) draws a distinction between these two concepts. According to him, LS refers to the use of two or more languages in interactions, indicating a level of bilingualism. This sets LS apart from borrowing to some extent because borrowing does not necessarily require a bilingual context. Instead, borrowing involves the use of foreign words in monolingual speech. This distinction is probably what differentiates the two concepts. According to Pfaff (1979), LS requires the use of two languages, whereas borrowing does not.

In Poplack’s analysis (1980), switches that are not fully integrated phonologically, morphologically, and syntactically are LS. However, words that are integrated phonologically, morphologically, and syntactically are borrowings. Another key difference between the two concepts is that LS is informal and used in spoken contexts. However, borrowing occurs in formal language and is used in both written and spoken situations.

Other researchers (e.g., Backus, 1996; Thomason, 2001) argue that the distinction between borrowing and LS is difficult to define because they lie along a continuum. Park’s (2000, p. 50) study on Korean/Swedish LS concludes that the distinction between the two concepts is ‘waterproof,’ asserting that even proper nouns, which are considered borrowing, have the same morphosyntactic processes as LS. Myers-Scotton (1993a, p.182) also suggests that LS and borrowing may overlap, noting that a single word may begin as LS and then become borrowing due to the higher frequency of use.

Translanguaging

Translanguaging was first applied in the Welsh context as “a pedagogical practice that deliberately switches the language mode of input and output in bilingual classrooms” (Lewis et al., 2012, p. 643). García (2009) defines it as “multiple discursive practices in which bilinguals engage in order to make sense of their bilingual worlds” (p. 45).

After examining the origin and definition of translanguaging, it is important to distinguish between translanguaging and LS. Although some researchers (e.g., García, 2009) view LS as a part of translanguaging, García and Wei (2014) highlight the key differences between the two concepts:

Translanguaging differs from the notion of [language switching] in that it refers not simply to a shift or a shuttle between two languages, but to the speakers’ construction and use of original and complex interrelated discursive practices that cannot be easily assigned to one or another traditional definition of a language, but that make up the speakers’ complete language repertoire. (p. 22)

Based on the quote above, the key difference between the two concepts is that LS is a simple switch from one language to another, whereas translanguaging involves the construction of specific language practices. Translanguaging is not a simple alternation; rather, it is a complex phenomenon in which speakers share their language repertoire.

Language Switching Theories

LS has been studied from various perspectives, including sociolinguistics, grammar, and psycholinguistics (Panhwar & Buriro, 2020). Sociolinguistic theories focus on the social motivations that lead speakers to switch between languages. Grammatical theories examine the grammatical rules that are involved in the switching process. Psycholinguistic theories investigate the cognitive processes underlying LS.

Sociolinguistic Theories

Several sociolinguistic theories explore LS as a social language behaviour, including the Markedness theory (Myers-Scotton, 1983) and the Interaction theory (Auer, 1984). From a sociolinguistic perspective, LS refers to the social motivations and relationships among social factors, such as identity, background, gender, age, and socioeconomic status.

The Markedness theory was proposed by Myers-Scotton (1983) based on the assumption that the use of more than one language indicates that speakers share an understanding of the social meanings associated with each language. Myers-Scotton (1993b) clarifies: “the main idea behind the markedness model proposes that speakers have a sense of markedness regarding available linguistic codes for any interaction, but choose their codes based on the persona and/or relation with others” (p. 75). This quotation indicates that the Markedness model distinguishes between the unmarked code and the marked choice. The former refers to the main language used in a specific interaction, while the latter is the “Embedded Language.” The following example shows how the English prepositional phrase “in a state of shock” is inserted into an overall Spanish structure:

“Yo anduve in a state of shock pa dos dias”

“I walked in a state of shock for two days” (Pfaff, 1979).

Elaborating further, speakers use unmarked (expected) language, but in certain situations, they use marked (unexpected) language to signal a change. According to the Markedness theory, speakers have a “sense of Markedness” and select the code(s) that suit the situations or relationships in which they are involved. Blom and Gumperz (1972) provided an example of situational switching, describing the use of different language varieties in different contexts. They investigated LS between dialects in Hemnesberget, Northern Norway. Two dialects were examined: Bokmål, which is marked as standard, and Ranamål, which is regarded as the local dialect. The results demonstrated that Ranamål was frequently used in interactions between neighbours, whereas Bokmål was preferred in formal situations, such as lectures. Based on this example, Blom and Gumperz (1972) defined situational switching as a change in situations. They also argued that identity is the only explanation for using two distinct varieties, stating that “the dialect and the standard remain separate because of the cultural identities they communicate and the social values implied therein” (p. 417). Therefore, the two varieties are used in different contexts because they represent different cultural identities and social values.

Blom and Gumperz (1972) also illustrated a shift in LC from formal to informal in an interaction between a clerk and a resident at a community office in Norway. Both speakers used standard Bokmål when discussing official matters but switched to the local Ranamål dialect when talking about family issues. In this situation, the change in LC signals a shift in their roles and relationships. Blom and Gumperz (1972) refer to this practice as metaphorical

switching, which occurs when a topic changes. Consequently, Gumperz (1982) revised the concepts of metaphorical switching and situational switching, suggesting the term conversational LS to emphasize speakers' LCs in particular situations.

The Markedness theory was criticized by Auer (1998) for failing to consider speakers as the motivational force behind their use of LS. Myers-Scotton (2002) addressed this criticism, revised the model, and developed the "Rational Choice" (RC) model instead (Myers-Scotton & Bolonyai, 2001). This model is based on the economy theory and emphasizes the role of speakers as "subjective motivations and their objective opportunities in their language choice" (p. 5). The switcher is an agent who switches to mark or unmark languages (Myers-Scotton, 2002). She further claims that a "selection of choices is located with the individual, not outside forces" (Myers-Scotton, 2002, p. 207), indicating that the choice of a marked language is a means of constructing one's identity.

The Interaction Model (Auer, 1984) is another sociolinguistic theory based on conversation analysis. It views LS as a way of organizing turn-taking or conversational exchange. According to Auer (1984), LS results from the sequential development of conversation. It is used to improve turn selection (Cromdal, 2001), to accomplish repair (Auer, 1995), and to mark dispreferred responses (Bani-Shoraka, 2005). LS is also considered a resource for constructing different identities (Martin, 2003). Identities are constructed through interactions between speakers.

Ramsay-Brijball (2003) investigated Zulu-English LS in the interactions of Zulu L1 (First Language) students on the Westville campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, where English is one of the official languages. Ramsay-Brijball (2003) provided the following example of Zulu (a Southern Bantu language spoken in Southern Africa) and English LS to clarify meanings. The speaker used repetition and LS to convey the intended meaning by repeating it in another language:

A: "No, no umphumile. You are out. Hhe-e, o tswile."

"No, no you are out. You are out. No, you are out"

B: "No, I'm not."

A: "You are out, o a bona he o qadile hape. That why I don't want to play with you."

"Heyi wean o a bora. That is why ke sa battle go tsahmeka lewena."

"You are out, you see, you have started again. That is why i don't want to play with you. Hey you, you bore med. That is why i do not want to play with you."

From the conversation above, we should note that Speaker B does not understand Speaker A's message. As a result, Speaker A continues to repeat and clarify their meaning.

Auer's (1984) Interaction Model has been criticized for failing to address the social aspects of LS. Myers-Scotton and Bolonyai (2001) argued that this model emphasizes sequencing and ignores speakers' motivations and identities. At the same time, they also criticized Auer's (1984) model for relying on speakers' interactions without considering social factors. They further argued that focusing on the structure of the conversation ignores the impact of the social context.

Grammatical Theories

Several grammatical theories study LS. The Grammatically Constrained Theory explains that switching between languages is possible only at certain morpho-syntactic boundaries (Weinreich, 1968). According to Poplack and Meechan (1995), LS is the "juxtaposition of sentences or sentence fragments, each of which is internally consistent with the morphological and syntactic (and optionally, phonological) rules of its lexifier language" (p. 200). This means that the internal structure of a constituent is determined by the grammar of the lexifier language. Speakers use grammatical systems of two languages in their interactions. As a result, the alternation of two or more languages is controlled by the free morpheme constraint (Poplack, 1980), which refers to the inhibition of LS "between a bound morpheme and a lexical form unless the latter has been phonologically integrated into the language of the bound morpheme" (Sankoff & Poplack, 1981, p. 5). To illustrate this, Poplack (1980) provided the following example, where the Spanish bound morpheme "iendo" (-ing) is affixed to the English free morpheme "eat":

"eat-iendo"

"Eating' (Spanish/English CS, Poplack, 1980, p. 586)."

According to Poplack (1980), LS is prohibited unless the morpheme "iendo" is phonologically integrated into the language, which is English in this example. To further clarify where LS is prohibited and where it is permitted, Poplack (1980, p. 585) provided the following example, which is taken again from English/Spanish LS:

I told him that so that he would bring it fast
 (Yo) le dije eso pa' que (el) la trajera rapido

The vertical lines indicate permissible switches, whereas the crossed lines show examples where switches are not allowed. This illustration shows that LS is possible only if the phrase-structure rules of the two languages are identical.

Redouane (2005) conducted an analysis of grammatical constraints on LS between Moroccan Arabic and French. The findings demonstrated that switching between verbs and objects and between nouns and adjectives results in ungrammatical sentences in either Arabic or French, as illustrated in the following example:

“nqalt recette dyal lhalwa”

“I copied the recipe of a cake.”

In this example, switching is not possible when the word orders of the two languages differ. The constituent constraint is violated because Arabic declarative sentences follow VSO (Verb-Subject-Object) word order, whereas French requires SVO (Subject-Verb-Object). Therefore, using the word “recette” in the position of a “verb” violates the required word order in French.

Based on the theory of the Equivalence Constraint, “the order of sentence constituents immediately adjacent to and on both sides of the switch point must be grammatical with respect to both languages involved simultaneously” (Sankoff & Poplack, 1981, p. 5). Thus, free morphemes represent a constraint in LS (Sankoff & Poplack, 1981). Poplack et al. (1989, p.132) provided the following examples where LS is prohibited:

English: ADJ + N

Spanish: N + ADJ

LS: *Eng ADJ + Sp N

*Sp ADJ + Eng N

*Eng N + Sp ADJ

*Sp N + Eng ADJ

Psycholinguistic Theories

Psycholinguistic theories explore LS from psychological and neurological perspectives to explain how cognitive processes interfere with language switching. Bilgin (2016) argued that LS determines the psychological dimensions of personality, including a person’s self-

perception and self-image. Clyne (1991) suggested the “triggering hypothesis” to explain how speakers drop their L1 and switch to their L2 (Second Language) to continue conversations.

Another explanation is provided by Poplack (1980), who presented the LS mechanism, which can be either “smooth” or “flagged.” Smooth LS is fluent described by Poplack (1993) as “real” or “true” LS (p. 276). It is “the only mechanism which does not involve the insertion of materials from one language into the sentence of another” (Poplack, 1993, p. 282). The following example illustrates how word order is shared by Algerian Arabic and French:

“Ecoute, min-j-kun andek un petit problème maa, les journalistes,”
 “Listen, when you have a small problem with the journalists, call me.” (Mendas, 2013, p. 59)

Flagged LS, on the other hand, includes hesitation in the production of language. It is marked by pauses, repetitions, tags, interjections, and discourse markers. The following illustration is from Algerian Arabic/French LS (Mendas, 2013, p. 59):

“bach l-wahad j-dépos-i-h, kima j-gul-o-, une fois pour toutes.”
 “So that someone will file it, as they say, once and for all.”

In this example, the expression “kima j-gul-o” serves as a flag for the French phrase “une fois pour toutes” (“once and for all”).

The Matrix Language Model was developed in the 1990s. According to this model, “codeswitching takes place within a frame set by the matrix language” (Myers-Scotton, 1992, p. 21). In other words, the ‘matrix language’ (the main language) represents the dominant language frame into which code switches are inserted as embedded language items. This model provides an explanation for the socio-psychological motivations of LS:

[which] is a type of skilled performance with communicative intent. From the socio-psychological point of view, [LS] can be characterized as symptomatic either (a) of an unwillingness or an uncertainty on the speaker’s part regarding the commitment to indexing any single rights-and-obligations set between participants in a conversation, or (b) of a negotiation to change the rights-and-obligations set. (Myers-Scotton, 1993a, p. 6)

The quote above explains Myers-Scotton’s indexicality of a rights-and-obligations set. This means that speakers choose the codes they use in their interactions and they can change them depending on situational factors, such as the relationship between speakers, topics, and

settings. The example below, taken from Muysken's (2000) study, illustrates how the English word "degree" is inserted into a structure where German is the matrix language:

"Meinen **degree** habe ich in England gemacht."

"I did my degree in England."

The Accommodation Theory (Giles et al., 1987) examines LS to explain the cognitive motivations behind it. LS is viewed as a form of accommodation to minimize social differences. This implies that during interactions, speakers accommodate their speech by either matching or differentiating their language patterns. According to Giles et al. (1991), this theory emphasizes the social approval or disapproval of linguistic patterns. In the following example, the second speaker, Don Armando, uses LS to show his approval of Liliana's behaviour:

"Liliana: [...]Just how much money we can make is all I think of."

"Don Armando: Tienes una buena alma [...] I give you my permission [...]"

("Don Armando: You have a good soul [...] I give you my permission [...]")

We can observe that Don Armando initially replied in Spanish, then switched to English to follow Liliana's code. This was done to help the interlocutors accommodate one another (Giles et al., 1991).

1.4.2 Language Switching Theory Adopted in this Research

In this research, I adopt my own perspective on LS, which is partially based on the Markedness theory (Myers-Scotton, 1983). This theory assumes that speakers possess a "sense of markedness" and select the code(s) that suit the contexts of their interactions or the relationships they have with other speakers. However, I also view LS as a natural aspect of human behaviour. Speakers switch from one language to another to share the preferred language(s) that exist in their linguistic repertoire. Therefore, the motives behind LS are:

- Speakers' own preference
- The common language(s) the interlocutors speak
- The relationship between the speakers
- The context

The cited motives suggest that several factors contribute to language alternation. Speakers alternate from one language to another to use the language(s) they share. The relationship

between speakers can also influence the choice of language(s) used in interactions. Additionally, the context is another factor that does not refer to formal or informal contexts; rather, it refers to the required language(s) in a specific educational context, including the use of English for terminology or Arabic for explanatory purposes.

After introducing the first component of Spolsky's model (2004), language practices, and its related concepts, the next section presents the conceptualizations of the second component: Language beliefs.

1.4.3 Language Beliefs

The concept of "language beliefs" is the second component of Spolsky's (2004) framework of LP. Spolsky (2004, p.5) defines language beliefs as "beliefs on language or language use" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). Similarly, Garrett (2010) notes that this term is often associated with language attitudes, indicating that it refers to the perceptions of language varieties, uses, and language policies (p. 20). The language attitudes of individuals affected by a language policy can be a key factor in the success or failure of that policy (Baker, 1992, p. 9). In this dissertation, language beliefs refer to perceptions of people at both the local level (tutors, researchers, and students) and the central level (policymakers) regarding languages and their use and status, and language policies.

Having seen the concept of language beliefs, the conceptualizations of the third component of Spolsky's (2004) model, language management, are introduced below.

1.4.4 Language Management

Language management is equivalent to what is traditionally called "planning." It refers to "any specific efforts to modify or influence practice" (Spolsky, 2004, p. 5). It is also described as "explicit and observable efforts by someone or some group that has or claims to have authority over the participants in the domain to modify their practices and beliefs" (Spolsky, 2007, p. 4). These definitions highlight the close relationship between language management, practices, and beliefs, assuming that the former influences and alters people's language use and perceptions. Spolsky (2004) provides another definition, viewing language management as "formulation and proclamation of an explicit plan or policy, usually but not necessarily written in a formal document, about language use" (p.11).

In this dissertation, language management refers to the regulations and LP documents that explicitly specify policies on language use, the status of languages, and the language(s) of instruction, research, and publishing. It includes laws, official educational reports, and political speeches.

While discussing language management, it is important to present “agency” as a fundamental concept in this dissertation, which focuses on the practices and beliefs of both local and central agents.

1.4.5 Agency

Several researchers have defined agency in relation to LP. According to Martin (2004), agency refers to “the capability of persons to make choices and act on these choices” (p.136). This definition emphasizes the role of individuals in initiating change and creating language policies that address local demands and needs. It also highlights individuals’ capacity to act independently and make their own decisions. Another definition is provided by Fenton-Smith and Gurney (2016), who view agency as “the various levels and forms of power invested in the range of actors involved in policy and planning” (p. 74).

When defining agency, Johnson and Johnson (2015) explicitly emphasize the role played by agents in educational contexts, describing them as “language policy arbiters as individuals who have a disproportionate amount of impact on language policy and educational programs” (p. 222). The significance of tutors in educational settings and their influence on educational programs are also highlighted.

In accordance with the definitions mentioned above, agency in this research refers to “the role(s) of individuals and collectivities in the processes of language use, attitudes, and ultimately policies” (Ricento, 2000, p. 208). It involves the roles of all stakeholders, tutors, students, researchers, and policymakers, in sharing responsibilities to make decisions and implement them.

1.5 Previous Studies on Language Practices, Beliefs, and Regulations

A growing body of literature has investigated language practices, beliefs, and regulations. The following are some representative research findings. Martin (2005) conducted a study on classroom language practices in two rural schools in Malaysia, located in different areas of Sarawak. School A is a primary school, where Sa’ben is the main language of

communication. School B is a lower secondary school where Kelabit is widely used in communication. The medium of instruction in the observed lessons was English. The results showed that in the primary school lesson, tutors and pupils used both English and Malay in their interactions, with Malay serving as the language of mediation. In the secondary school, both English and Malay were used, and key lexical items were provided in Kelabit. Martin (2005) highlighted the tensions between classroom practices and LP, noting the use of languages other than the declared language of instruction.

In a similar vein, Bonacina-Pugh (2012) observed an induction classroom for twelve newly arrived immigrant children in France. The pupils' ages ranged from six to eleven. The pupils came from diverse backgrounds and spoke eight languages: French, English, Spanish, Peul, Japanese, Polish, Lithuanian, and Arabic. The medium of instruction in the classroom was French. The researcher collected a corpus of audio-recorded interactions and analyzed them using conversation analysis. The results revealed two interaction norms used by both the tutor and the pupils. The first norm involved using a shared preferred language(s) as the language of interaction. The second norm was the use of the language common to all speakers as the medium of interaction. Similar to Martin's (2005) findings, Bonacina-Pugh's (2012) research demonstrated the existence of a practiced language policy in which French was used alongside other languages.

Akhter (2019) conducted a qualitative study using linguistic analysis to investigate language use in Bangladeshi L2 classrooms. Data was collected from two departments at the University of Dhaka: One from the Faculty of Biological Sciences and another from the Faculty of Science. The informants were divided into two groups. Group A consisted of 90 sophomore students enrolled in a 2-credit foundation English language course called Functional and Communicative English. Group B comprised 94 first-year undergraduate students taking a 50-mark non-credit course called English Language. The researcher audio-recorded the informants as they performed various language-learning activities. The results indicated that the students used both Bangla and English in their interactions.

Orduna-Nocito and Sánchez-García (2022) examined the adoption of internationalization policies across 10 multilingual European universities. The study also aimed to investigate the perceptions of 28 lecturers regarding EMI teaching practices in a teacher professional development course they attended. The lecturers were required to write reflections on this training course. The thematic method was used to examine the data and

identify categories. Based on the results, six universities have explicit internationalization plans and LP documents, while the other four universities have a reference to LP only on their websites. The results also demonstrated that the lecturers' reflections revealed their awareness of the importance of English as a language of communication and research. The lecturers suggested pedagogical approaches to facilitate English language learning. These include promoting a student-centred approach to develop students' limited academic language proficiency. Moreover, several challenges were highlighted, including students' low English proficiency. The overall conclusion of Orduna-Nocito and Sánchez-García's (2022) research is that there is a misalignment between top-down decisions and bottom-up interests.

Based on the reviewed representative studies on LP, two points should be highlighted. The first is the crucial role of language practices in policy formulation. Language practices should serve as the foundation for policy development and implementation. The second point is the lack of research studies that investigate Spolsky's (2004) three aspects of LP together. The present research fills this gap by exploring language use, language beliefs, and language management.

Having presented the key definitions and the theoretical framework employed in this dissertation, the following section puts the spotlight on the LP background in Tunisia, focusing on the position of the three languages: Arabic, French, and English.

1.6 Linguistic Situation in Tunisia

The linguistic situation in Tunisia is marked by diversity and multiplicity (Daoud, 2011, p. 9) as Tunisia is considered a multilingual society par excellence, where different languages coexist (Bahloul, 2001). The first language of the country was "Lybic," spoken by the indigenous people, Berbers. With the founding of the Carthaginian Empire (814-146 BCE) and the arrival of the Phoenicians from Lebanon (Tyre), bilingualism developed, as demonstrated by the use of Lybic and Punic. The destruction of Carthage paved the way for Latin to become the official language.

The linguistic landscape changed with the spread of Islam, which brought Arabic to North Africa. Since the 11th century, Arabic has become the dominant and eventually the official language of Tunisia (Daoud, 2001). In addition to Arabic, various regional dialects are spoken in Tunisian cities.

In the 16th century, Tunisia was invaded by the Ottoman Empire, which occupied it until the 19th century. Consequently, the Turkish language predominated the linguistic scene during this period. Tunisia also experienced invasions by several European countries in the 19th century, including Italy, Malta, and France. In 1881, Tunisia was colonized by France, and the French language is now considered the second language of the country.

In HE, three languages are used as mediums of instruction, namely Arabic, French, and English. Additionally, other foreign languages, such as German, Italian, and Spanish, are offered as optional modules. Overall, the current linguistic situation in Tunisia highlights the existence of three main languages: Arabic, French, and English.

After presenting the linguistic history of Tunisia and the language situation in HE, the following section delves into introducing the LP background, focusing on Arabic, French, and English.

1.7 Language Policy Background in Tunisia

Language policies in Tunisia have been implemented across three domains, involving the promotion of Arabic, known as Arabization, the preservation of French as the language of modernization, and the promotion of English as the language of technology and academic research (Rahal, 2021, p. 174).

1.7.1 Arabization

Various decisions were made to protect the Arabic language. On June 25, 1958, former President Habib Bourguiba declared that Arabic should be the language of instruction unless circumstances necessitated the use of French (Daoud, 1991, p.15). A decade later, the Tunisian Minister of Education, Mohamed Mzali, adopted an Arabization policy to strengthen the status of Arabic.

In 1971, Arabic became the medium of instruction for the first year of primary education. More than two decades later, the second and third years of primary education were also arabized. 20 years later, in 1999, Prime Minister Hamed Karoui decided to implement Arabization in the field of administration. An educational reform was also made in 1992 to use Arabic for teaching scientific subjects, extending its use from the humanities to the sciences (Ben Ali, 1992). However, in 1997, although Arabic remained the language of instruction, some subjects, including Mathematics, Natural Sciences, and Physics, continued to be taught in French.

On July 23, 2002, an educational law was adopted to strengthen the teaching of Arabic in schools and to encourage the teaching of at least two foreign languages (*Education Act*, 2002, p. 22). Following the Tunisian revolution in 2011, Ennahda, a political party, emphasized promoting Arabic, particularly Modern Standard Arabic (MSA). During the transitional period (2012-2019), President Marzouki's political discourse also highlighted the importance of Arabic and called for its promotion.

1.7.2 The Preservation of French

Preserving the French language is another policy adopted by the Tunisian government. After Independence in 1956, French was introduced as a foreign language in the third year of primary school. In 1981, French became a second language in secondary education, where it remains the medium of instruction for scientific subjects such as Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics, Physics, and Technology. The dominance of French was attributed to the lack of qualified tutors to teach scientific subjects in Arabic, as well as the lack of textbooks (Aouina, 2013, p. 36). Consequently, French has gained a significant role as the second language of instruction. In HE, however, it is the dominant medium of instruction.

A recent reform introduced French in the second grade of primary education in the 2019-2020 school year. This can be considered a strong decision that shows the real position of French in Tunisia as a Francophone country and reflects the ongoing competition between French and English.

1.7.3 The Promotion of English

The promotion of the status of English has gone through various stages. After Independence in 1956, English was introduced as a subject in Tunisian secondary education. In 1980, the Tunisian government launched a project called "the Pioneer Secondary School," aiming to use EMI for all subjects. However, in 1988, the project was abandoned due to a political decision influenced by the strong relationship with France. The 1990s were also marked by several changes in Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), including the introduction in 1993 of new locally written and published textbook series aimed at implementing the communicative approach and the implementation of English as a compulsory subject at secondary and tertiary education levels.

The period from 1980 to 2000 was also characterized by educational exchanges for students majoring in the English language or British and American literature. Selected

students, who met the requirements, were sent to study in the UK during the 1980s. To further develop this cooperation, two agreements were signed in 1991. The first agreement was signed between the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Manouba, and both Central London Polytechnic and the University of Manchester, aiming to promote mobility programs. A second agreement was established between the University of Manouba and Birkbeck College, University of London, to facilitate the integration of Tunisian and British academic staff into each other's departments, respectively.

The objective of developing the status of foreign languages was officially introduced in the *Education Act* (2002), which emphasizes teaching foreign languages for various reasons. These include enhancing communication, enriching national culture, and promoting interaction with global cultures (*Article 51*, p. 22). Based on this decision, the Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) implemented reforms in the teaching of the English language at universities. As a result, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was introduced to help students broaden their research scope. Although the *Educational Law of 2008*, which remains in effect today, highlights the promotion of foreign languages, it does not address EMI use in HE.

The promotion of English is also demonstrated through several initiatives. These include the foundation of the 'Language Village Nabeul' (LVN), a summer school organized every year for Tunisian students of English to practice English in various communicative contexts. Students also receive several courses, including "communication skills" and "English pronunciation." Another initiative involves the creation of associations aimed at enhancing the English language teaching: The Tunisian Association of Teachers of English (TATE), the Association of Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (Tunisia TESOL), and the Tunisian Association of Young Researchers (TAYR). These associations collaborate with the British Council to organize professional events. Additionally, English has become a medium of instruction in three HE institutions, namely Tunis Business School, the Mediterranean School of Business, and the Faculty of Dentistry of Monastir.

The LP background indicates that Tunisia does not yet have an explicit LP. There appear to be conflicting narratives, as Arabic plays a very limited role in the Tunisian higher education system. French is the dominant language of instruction, while English is increasingly gaining ground and spreading widely (Daoud, 2011, p. 16). In this context, Moore (2007) argued that LP in Tunisia wields a greater influence at the social level than at the political level.

The previous two sections provided insights into the linguistic landscape and LP situation in Tunisia. Finally, previous studies conducted on language practices and perceptions of LP are reviewed below.

1.8 Previous Studies on Language Policies in Tunisia

1.8.1 Attitudes towards Language Choice in Higher Education

There are few studies conducted on Tunisians' perceptions of LC, particularly English. Lawson and Sachdev (2000), for example, examined the attitudes of 169 Tunisian university students towards LS. Their attitudes were assessed using a matched-guise technique and diaries. The findings revealed that French and MSA were rated lower by Tunisian university students than LS, which involves switching to Tunisian Arabic and English. Their analysis of students' diaries showed that the most frequently spoken languages in Tunisia were LS (42%), Tunisian Arabic (38%), and English (14%), while French (5%) and MSA (1%) were used less frequently.

Lawson and Sachdev (2000) found that English is one of the languages spoken in Tunisia. However, Daoud (2011) argued that LS to English remains at the one- or two-word level, stating that “teenagers and college students tend to sprinkle their talk with expressions like ‘sorry,’ ‘thanks,’ ‘no problem,’ and ‘no comment,’ but do not seem ready yet to go beyond the two-word stage” (p. 22). It appears that English in Tunisia is influenced by globalization and LS results from the use of English as a *lingua franca*.

Sayahi (2011) also conducted a study on the patterns of Tunisian Arabic/French LS. The researcher used semi-structured sociolinguistic interviews with 12 speakers to investigate the types and frequency of LS, as well as borrowing from French. The results demonstrated that education plays a significant role in distinguishing between higher-education groups and a high school education group. The university-educated group showed a much higher frequency of LS, reflecting a higher level of competence in French. The study also demonstrated that contact between Tunisian Arabic and French has led to extensive lexical transfer from French into Tunisian Arabic. Similar to Daoud's findings (2011), Sayahi (2011) also identified that the most frequently switched elements are single nouns and noun phrases, including terms such as “*déjà, donc, alors, les SMSs [...]*” (p. 131).

Another study carried out by Bach Baoueb and Toumi (2012) investigated LS in the interactions of Tunisian students from the Faculty of Economics and Management in Sfax,

Tunisia. The study examined students' classroom conversations and their out-of-classroom peer interactions. Classroom LS was found to be controlled, whereas out-of-classroom LS was uncontrolled. The results revealed two types of LS, namely discursive switches and lexical switches. Tunisian Arabic/French LS is extensively used by the informants, even though French is the imposed language intended to serve communicative functions. Additionally, the informants switch to French in uncontrolled situations to use technical terms.

The reviewed studies presented contradictory results. Lawson and Sachdev (2000) found that 14% of their informants switched from Arabic to English. In contrast, Sayahi (2011) and Bach Baoueb and Toumi (2012) demonstrated that Tunisian Arabic and French are the most frequently used codes of communication. These results highlight the rivalry between these languages in HE.

In the following section, the focus will be further narrowed by reviewing previous studies on Tunisians' attitudes towards language policies and discussing the status of English and the use of EMI.

1.8.2 Language Policies and the Status of English in Higher Education

A considerable amount of research has investigated Tunisians' attitudes towards language policies and the status of English. Stevens (1983) explored the perceptions of literate Tunisian bilinguals regarding Arabization and bilingualism (Arabic and French). The study was primarily based on direct and personal observation of written and spoken language behaviour in Tunisia. Data was collected during informal meetings to observe 2 dozen university students and tutors from various disciplines. Additionally, natural speech behaviours were recorded at weddings, each attended by about 500 people, as guests spoke to one another.

The results revealed various patterns of LS. In spoken contexts, bilinguals use (a) Tunisian Arabic in general situations; (b) French for technical terminology; and (c) Classical Arabic when communicating with Arabs from other countries who do not speak French. The results also showed that French is employed in the written language of bilinguals, while MSA is used only by monolinguals.

Aouina (2013) carried out a study on the role of globalization and the various linguistic attitudes towards the languages spoken in Tunisia. The informants of the study included 100 tutors and 200 students. The tutors' sample comprised instructors of Arabic,

English, French, Geography, History, Information Technology, and Philosophy, representing different geographical regions. The student sample was also drawn from various schools and cities, including students majoring in both Sciences and Arts. The study employed mixed methods, utilizing multiple data collection tools, including two questionnaires, students' essays, and interviews with senior inspectors.

A comparison was made between tutors' attitudes and students' attitudes towards languages. The findings demonstrated that tutors have a more positive orientation towards French than towards English, while students tend to have more positive attitudes towards English than towards French. The results indicated that the new generation is more aware of the global spread of English and its crucial role in today's world. As a result, their attitudes suggest the possibility of further promoting English in language policies.

Similarly, Jabeur (1999) investigated teenagers' attitudes from three perspectives: "affection, identity and status" (p. 192). The informants were 18-year-old students. Jabeur (1999) described his respondents as "a population segment which is highly permeable to social change and new cultural modes" (p. 191). Based on the results of the study, Arabic was rated as the primary language of identity; French was associated with high status; and English received the highest rating for affection.

In a similar research vein, Bejaoui (2018) studied attitudes towards English and its use in the Tunisian context. The sample included 205 respondents from three settings: The Medicine School of Tunis (FMT), the National School of Architecture and Urbanism (ENAU), and various professional workplaces. A questionnaire was used to collect data, and the impact of three variables, namely field of study, year of study or profession, and gender, was also explored. The study found that Tunisian students prefer English as the most commonly used foreign language and they wish that university courses will be taught in English.

Both Aouina's (2013) and Bejaoui's (2018) studies share similar results. They demonstrated that Tunisian students recognize the importance of English and emphasize the need to promote its status in HE. One surprising result from Aouina's (2013) study is that Tunisian tutors, including tutors of English, prefer French to English. This preference needs further investigation, as the researcher did not explain the reasons for it.

Another study was conducted by Boukadi (2013) on tutors' perceptions of the future of English language teaching and learning in Tunisia after the 2011 revolution. The study employed a mixed-methods approach. Data was collected through surveys and interviews. The informants were 125 tutors across three educational levels, namely primary, secondary, and higher education. All the informants were from the field of EFL teaching. The findings revealed a discrepancy between policymakers' practices and tutors' expectations for change. Furthermore, the study highlighted tutors' needs and desires for a better future. The research recommends supporting the national educational reform following the revolution in Tunisia to enhance English language teaching and address the challenges of globalization worldwide.

Boukadi's (2013) findings align with the scholarship of this dissertation. She highlighted LP issues in the Tunisian educational system, particularly the lack of clear strategies to involve all stakeholders in decision-making. Although Boukadi's (2013) study presented the perspectives of tutors across three educational levels, it did not include students' voices.

Moreover, Rahal (2024) studied Tunisians' perceptions of the implementation of a multilingual LP. Data was collected from 50 Tunisian tutors and students using a short survey. Participants' ages ranged from 21 to 45. The sample included 19 tutors, 10 researchers, and 21 students from various fields, such as Biology, Chemistry, Economics, Finance, Information Technology, Mathematics, and Physics. The results showed that the informants had a positive attitude towards the implementation of a multilingual LP that supports promoting the status of English, arguing that English is a prerequisite for academic research and job opportunities. These findings also call for a paradigm shift in LPP from a bilingual LP to a multilingual LP.

Although there is a positive attitude towards promoting the status of English in Tunisia, some researchers (e.g., Badwan, 2019; Rahal, 2024) highlighted the ambiguity of LP and regulations. As a result, there are no clear plans to promote English in HE. This opens up a discussion of EMI implementation.

1.8.3 English as a Medium of Instruction Issues

An additional line of research examines the implementation of the EMI policy in HE. However, very few studies explored the potential use of EMI within the Tunisian HE context. Lassadi (2015) advocated establishing a national LP for the Tunisian educational system. He argued that English should be used to teach scientific subjects in HE, as it also addresses the

employability challenges and serves as a key to improving Tunisia's socio-economic conditions. The researcher also recommended adopting a bottom-up LEP driven by tutors.

Badwan (2019) also conducted a study on the potential use of EMI in Tunisian HE. The major aims of this study were to explore the attitudes of Tunisian students and tutors towards English as the language of instruction and to assess the readiness of this new LP among university students, tutors, and educational stakeholders. A total of 391 informants participated in the survey. The results demonstrated positive attitudes towards English. Both tutors and students prefer adding English to their multilingual repertoire. English is positively associated with research, employment, mobility, technological advancements, global communication, and entertainment. The study emphasized the need for a dialogue between tutors and “people with power” to implement the proposed program.

Although Badwan's (2019) study indicates a positive attitude towards EMI, several challenges remain. These include tutors' lack of proficiency in teaching scientific subjects in English and the lack of teaching materials. Additionally, there are policy-related issues concerning EMI. Badwan (2019) claimed that there is no explicit strategy that considers the attitudes of educational stakeholders. Daoud (1996) also pointed out that the government and officials handle all implementations without involving the matter experts.

Another study conducted by Rahal (2023a) investigated the perceptions of 45 Tunisian university students and tutors regarding EMI policy. Open-ended questions from a perception questionnaire were used as the primary data collection tool. The findings demonstrated a positive attitude towards the use of EMI in Tunisian HE. The informants acknowledged their lack of proficiency in English and expressed their interest in improving their English competence. They also argued that English is the compulsory language for academic research.

1.9 Summary of the Literature Review and the Research Niche

To summarize, this chapter has laid the conceptual foundation for the subsequent chapters. It also introduced the theoretical framework adopted in this dissertation, Spolsky's triangular model (2004). This model allows for the investigation of LP from three different perspectives: Practices, perceptions, and regulations. Moreover, the chapter aimed to shed light on the linguistic situation and the LP background in Tunisia.

The discussions above help identify gaps and provide valuable insights for the present research. However, an examination of the main strands of LP literature on language practices

and beliefs reveals that several issues are addressed only peripherally. To the best of my knowledge, only few studies have investigated language policies, particularly language practices and perceptions in the Tunisian context. Therefore, this dissertation aims to fill this research niche by providing a comprehensive overview of the LP situation in Tunisian HE, involving practices, perceptions, and regulations. It is probably the first research to examine the mismatch between top-down decisions and bottom-up interests and to propose a model for finding a compromise between linguistic and political needs.

Chapter 2. Overall Introduction to Research Design and Methods

In the previous chapter, key concepts relevant to this research were clarified, and the theoretical framework and studies on language practices and policies in the Tunisian context were presented. This chapter introduces the research questions and provides an overview of quantitative and qualitative research and their purposes. It then summarizes the research design and justifies the use of triangulation. The chapter further introduces the data analysis method and discusses trustworthiness and the criteria for assessing it. Finally, ethical considerations are addressed.

2.1 Research Questions

The present research addresses the following research questions:

- 1) To what extent and in what contexts are Arabic, French, and English used in Tunisian higher education?
- 2) What are the functions of language switching?
- 3) What are the norms that govern language choice and language switching?
- 4) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the frequency and preference for using English and the reasons for its use in higher education?
- 5) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the promotion of English and its use as a medium of instruction in higher education?
- 6) What regulations should the Tunisian government and the Ministry of Higher Education implement to promote the status of English, according to the informants?

To address these research questions, this dissertation adopted a qualitative method that includes quantitative data. The qualitative data was collected through observations, interviews, open-ended questions, and desk research. The quantitative data was collected through a questionnaire (closed-ended questions). The combination of qualitative and quantitative methods is considered an effective way to profit from the advantages of each and avoid their limitations, as Dörnyei (2007) puts it: “one method can be utilized to overcome the weaknesses of another method used in the study” (p. 45). Moreover, in this research, I used a qualitative ethnographic approach to investigate the practices and perceptions of Tunisian

tutors and students regarding language use and language policies and to explain their behaviours.

Before presenting the research design, it is important to briefly highlight the differences between quantitative and qualitative research and their purposes. It is also important to understand their philosophical underpinnings.

2.2 Quantitative and Qualitative Research

2.2.1 Quantitative Research

The development of quantitative social research was inspired by advancements in the natural sciences during the 19th century. Quantitative researchers adopted the “scientific method” in their studies, which involves observing a phenomenon, generating a hypothesis, and then testing it. In the field of applied linguistics, the period between 1970 and 1985 was marked by an increased interest in quantitative research (Lazaraton, 2005). In the 1990s, there was a growing complexity in this research method, confirming Lazaraton’s (2005) prediction that there has been “a coming age” of quantitative research.

Quantitative research is rooted in positivism, which assumes that reality is singular (Needleman & Needleman, 1996). Thus, “[its] ontological assumption is that there is one reality, which exists and can be validated through the senses” (Brink & Wood, 2001, p. 22). This approach is deductive, emphasizing the development of hypotheses that can be tested empirically. Quantitative research “explains phenomena according to numerical data which are analyzed by means of mathematically based methods, especially statistics” (Yilmaz, 2013, p. 311). Thus, numerical data is a fundamental feature of this research method.

2.2.2 Qualitative Research

The origin of qualitative research can be traced back to the 1900s. It is rooted in the work of social anthropologists such as Malinowski (1922) and Mead (1935), as well as the sociologists of the Chicago School, Park and Burgess (1925). The early phase of qualitative research was characterized by the positivist scientific paradigm, where researchers were often referred to as “lone ethnographers.” This paradigm emphasizes the existence of a single reality. Following this traditional phase, the modernist and blurred genres phases emerged as a reaction to positivism and adopted postpositivist arguments, focusing on new interpretive

and qualitative perspectives. These phases were also marked by a shift from the lone-ethnographer model to collaborative research teams.

The Crisis of Representation phase emerged as a critical period aimed at challenging dominant power structures and voicing the needs of marginalized communities. Therefore, this period was characterized by the introduction of new research methods and approaches, such as autoethnography and critical race theory. During this period, a constructivist ontology was adopted, which assumes the existence of multiple realities. New criteria, including credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, replaced the positivist concepts of internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity (Given, 2008).

After the Crisis of Representation phase, post-experimental inquiry emerged to emphasize the use of creative techniques in qualitative research, such as poetry, drama, and multimedia approaches, to depict individuals' experiences. According to Aronson et al. (1990), this approach allows for the exploration of “multiple realities, multiple perspectives, and multiple voices” (p. 4).

Following the post-experimental phase, the methodologically contested present (2000-2004) emerged, which was marked by tensions between traditional objectivist approaches and interpretive and reflexive approaches (Given, 2008). The current phase (2004-present) is marked by an emphasis on collaborative research, with a particular focus on social justice and the ethical considerations of qualitative research (Given, 2008).

In contrast to quantitative inquiry, qualitative research is inductive, meaning that theory is derived from research results. Friedman (2012) highlights a primary objective of qualitative research, stating that “as qualitative analysis inevitably involves interpretation, the question arises as to how well the researcher's interpretations represent the data” (p. 194). Therefore, the aim is to build trustworthiness and credibility.

2.3 Summary of Research Design

Table 2.1 below summarizes the various data collection techniques used in this research, including observations, questionnaires, interviews, and desk research.

Table 2.1*Summary of Research Design*

Data Collection Methods	Informants/ Data	Data Validation Tools	Data Analysis Methods	Research Questions
Observations	50 observations including classrooms, corridors, libraries, and canteens.	- Member Checking	Qualitative content analysis of the observation charts using the Constant Comparative Method (CCM).	1) To what extent and in what contexts are Arabic, French, and English used in Tunisian higher education? 2) What are the functions of LS? 3) What are the norms that govern LC and LS?
Questionnaire	100 Tunisian university tutors, researchers, and students.	- Content Validity: Think-aloud protocol -Internal consistency: Cronbach's Alpha	-Closed-ended questions: Quantitative analysis. -Open-ended questions: Content analysis using the CCM.	4) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perception of the frequency and preference for using English and the reasons for its use in higher education? 5) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the promotion of English and its use as a Medium of Instruction in higher education? 6) What regulations should the Tunisian government and the Ministry of Higher Education implement to promote the status of English, according to the informants?
Interviews	10 Tunisian professors	- Expert judgment - Pilot interview - Member Checking	-Content analysis of the interviews using the CCM.	
Desk Research	Policy documents (educational laws, reports, speeches, etc.) and academic journals.	-Build-in a checking system: using a variety of sources, analyze, and compare them to find consistency	-Qualitative content analysis of LP documents using the CCM.	

Table 2.1 illustrates the relationship between data collection methods and the research questions. Observations were used to answer the first three research questions investigating LC, including LS in various contexts, namely classrooms, corridors, libraries, and canteens. The questionnaire and interviews aimed to answer the fourth, fifth, and sixth research questions. These tools were used to collect data on informants' perceptions of the status of English, the reasons for its use, and its use as a medium of instruction. Additionally, desk research was conducted to provide background information on the language situation, regulations, and policymakers' perceptions.

The table above also presents the informants of the research. They are mainly university tutors, researchers, and students from different Tunisian universities. The tutors are from various fields, including Economics, Humanities, Information Technology, and Sciences. The main reason for choosing this category is that they recognize the importance of English and require it for their academic research.

Furthermore, Table 2.1 provides an overview of the data validation tools. Testing the validity and reliability of data collection materials is important to ensure the quality of the research. As indicated in the table, Member Checking (MC) was employed to validate the observation charts. The think-aloud protocol was used to assess the content validity of the questionnaire, while Cronbach's Alpha was utilized to test the internal consistency of the questionnaire statements. To ensure the validity of the interviews, expert judgment, pilot interviews, and MC were applied. A checking system was established to validate other sources of information, such as LP documents, educational laws, reports, speeches, and academic journals, by identifying, analyzing, and comparing them for consistency.

2.4 Triangulation

The method of triangulation is used in this research “to check and establish validity [...] by analyzing a research question from multiple perspectives” (Guion et al., 2002, p. 1). According to Dörnyei (2007, p. 164), the main aim of this method is “to validate one's conclusion by presenting converging results obtained through different methods.” Denzin (1970, p. 472) identifies four types of triangulation:

1. Data triangulation is the use of multiple data sources in a study.
2. Investigator triangulation refers to the use of more than one researcher or evaluator to explore the data.
3. Theory triangulation is the use of multiple perspectives to interpret a single set of data.
4. Methodological triangulation is the application of multiple methods to study a single problem.

In this dissertation, three types of triangulation (data, investigator, and methodological) were used. Data was collected from a variety of sources, including primary and secondary LP documents and academic journals. Additionally, data was collected from diverse participants, including tutors, researchers, and students. Various data collection methods, such as

questionnaires, interviews, and observations, were used to examine language practices and policies in Tunisian HE.

2.5 Data Analysis Tool

The Constant Comparative Method (CCM) was used to analyze data from the open-ended questions, the transcribed interviews, the observation charts, and desk research documents. This method was first developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) and is based on a constant comparison of identified codes and themes. Hallberg (2006) explains that “every part of the data, i.e., emerging codes, categories, properties, and dimensions, as well as different parts of the data, are constantly compared with all other parts of the data to explore variations, similarities, and differences” (p. 143).

According to Maykut and Morehouse (1994, p.124), the CCM involves these stages: 1) inductive category coding and simultaneous comparison of units of meaning across categories; 2) refinement of categories; and 3) exploration of relationships and patterns across categories. The first stage involves reading data, breaking it into discrete parts, and coding these parts. The second stage focuses on drawing connections between codes and identifying relationships among open codes. After comparing the data and identifying similarities and differences, core themes should be selected.

In the present research, the aforementioned stages were followed by reading and re-reading the data from the four research tools (observations, questionnaires, interviews, and desk research) line by line to identify codes and themes. As a novice researcher, the coding process was challenging because it was conducted manually, without any coding software. The reason for this choice was the nature of the data, which is in four languages: Arabic, French, English, and language alternation.

In identifying categories, *in vivo* codes were applied using the same words and expressions from the informants' responses. Then, the identified codes were examined to find similarities and differences. Based on a constant comparison, core themes and sub-themes emerged, supported by quotes from the actual responses. The coding process is described in more detail with examples in each chapter.

Intra-coder reliability was used to assess the accuracy and consistency of the coding process. It is defined as consistency in an individual's coding over time (Kurasaki, 2000). In

this research, data coding was conducted in two rounds. The open-ended questions and interviews data were initially coded in March and April 2023, followed by a second round in October and November 2023. The desk research data, which was initially coded in June and July 2023, was revised in December 2023. Intra-coder reliability contributes to the identification of new themes. Moreover, I conducted a third round in October-November 2025; however, no new themes emerged.

2.6 Trustworthiness

Guba (1981) proposed four criteria for trustworthiness, namely credibility, dependability, transferability, and confirmability. Credibility refers to the verification of results and interpretations, which can be achieved through various methods, such as prolonged engagement, peer debriefing, triangulation, referential adequacy, and member checking. Dependability, as described by Gasson (2004, p. 94), includes ensuring that “the way in which a study is conducted should be consistent across time, researchers, and analysis techniques” (p. 94), emphasizing the importance of stability and consistency in research findings. According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), confirmability ensures that data and interpretations are derived from the research process by maintaining a record of all activities performed. Transferability is defined by Given (2008) as “a study’s worthiness [that] is determined by how well others can determine (i.e., through a paper trail) to which alternative contexts the findings might be applied” (p. 895), indicating that results should be transferable and replicable across other research settings.

This research aims to rigorously create trustworthiness to ensure that the results and interpretations are credible. Triangulation was employed to strengthen trustworthiness by using various sources and methods. Maxwell (2005) concurs, stating that triangulation “reduces the risk that your conclusions will reflect only the systematic biases or limitations of a specific collection method” (p. 93). MC was used to enable the informants to review and confirm the credibility of the data and interpretations derived from the observations and interviews.

Another way to demonstrate the credibility of the results is to determine whether data from the four research tools converge and lead to consistent results. It was found that the results draw similar conclusions. This consistency, which is reflected in the identification of similar themes and sub-themes, suggests that the research tools corroborate and validate the findings.

To ensure dependability and confirmability, an audit trail was created to document all phases of the research. The steps taken during the research process were reported, including the design and validation of the data collection tools and reflections on the weaknesses identified during the validation processes. Moreover, reflective thoughts were provided to show the influence of the researcher on data collection and analysis.

Transferability is another criterion of trustworthiness that supports the generalizability of results and research implications. This dissertation provides a “thick description” of the research context and adequate details on data collection and analysis procedures. Thus, the research findings could be applicable to other contexts, particularly in North African countries with similar linguistic situations and LP backgrounds.

2.7 Reflexivity

Reflexivity is one of the criteria of qualitative research. It is defined as “self-critical sympathetic introspection and the self-conscious analytical scrutiny of the self as researcher” (England, 1994, p. 244). In qualitative research, researchers function as research instruments, and their influence on the research process should be acknowledged. It is important to discuss how the researcher’s identity may affect the development of research tools and the procedures for data collection and analysis. Before addressing these points, a brief overview of my identity as a researcher and a teacher is provided below.

I have been engaged in research for the past decade. In 2014, I began reflecting on the challenges in the educational system of my country. I worked on pronunciation issues in the speech of Tunisian students, attributing them to ineffective teaching methods. This led me to question the reasons for the challenges in teaching English as a foreign language in Tunisia. I conducted several studies, including “Cultural Problems in Teaching and Learning of English as a Foreign Language in Tunisia” (Rahal, 2017). In addition to research, my experience as a teacher at a Tunisian university has also motivated me to conduct the present research. Through my interactions with professors and PhD students, I observed their struggles, particularly their difficulty in expressing their ideas in English. These experiences helped me develop a sense of responsibility, believing that researchers must have commitments.

To achieve reflexivity, I acknowledged my influence on the research process. The first two interviews I conducted were unsuccessful because the interviewed professors deviated

from the planned schedule. I felt unable to control the situation, and these professors had a considerable influence on my research, as they were “active in accepting, rejecting, or modifying the researcher’s identity claims” (Harrington, 2003, p. 617). This issue could be explained by my inability to manage unexpected behaviours. Another possible reason could be the social-professional distance gap I created. To overcome this issue, I conducted the interview with my former colleagues and involved other professors recommended by directors of institutions.

Another challenge concerns the questionnaire data, which was collected online. For ethical considerations, the participants’ names were not requested, which limits my ability to contact some respondents for clarification. I attempted to interpret their ideas, such as comparing the promotion of the status of English to “paradises of Phoenix.” However, I disregarded other ideas because I could not understand some metaphors and ambiguous ideas.

I also encountered difficulties in collecting the observations data. The directors of the institutions refused to authorize data collection, citing concerns that the data would be used at a foreign university. I tried to clarify the aims of my research and assured them that the data would be solely used for academic purposes. Additionally, I explained that I was conducting this research in a foreign country under a joint convention signed by Tunisia and Hungary.

2.8 Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues were taken into consideration in this research. The first ethical concern is to ensure that the aim of the study was explained to all informants. Burns (2015) asserts that “explanation and communication about the purpose of the research should be foregrounded” (p. 198). Before data collection, the informants were informed about the research objectives, assuring them that their information would be kept confidential and used only for the purposes of this research. Explanations were provided to the professors during the interviews, as well as to tutors and students during the classroom observations. The informants of the think-aloud sessions also received an explanation about the purpose of recording their thinking alouds. Moreover, the questionnaire introduction presents the aims of the research and the reasons for data collection (see Appendix A).

The second ethical concern is protecting informants’ identities. As Dörnyei (2007) emphasizes, “we must make sure -especially with recorded/transcribed data- that the respondents are not traceable or identifiable” (p. 68). To protect their identities,

confidentiality and anonymity were granted (Cohen et al., 2000). Pseudonyms were used to anonymize the interviewed professors and the observations' informants and any reference to their university/universities was omitted.

Furthermore, an informed consent form was obtained from the informants. They were fully informed about the nature of the research. Regarding the online questionnaire, they were asked to give their consent by selecting "a box" to show their agreement (see Appendix A). For the interviews, the professors provided verbal consent to record their responses, as shown in the introduction of the interview schedule (see Appendix G). Both tutors and students were asked to sign an informed consent form before the observation sessions.

This chapter provided a brief introduction to research design and methods. It started by presenting the research questions and outlining the differences between quantitative and qualitative research methods. Additionally, it summarized the research design adopted in this dissertation and introduced the data analysis tool. Then, the chapter discussed several topics related to triangulation, trustworthiness, and reflexivity, and concluded by pointing out ethical concerns.

The following chapters will present the four empirical studies and their results. I will start with the study on language practices (Chapter 3), followed by the two studies on language beliefs (Chapters 4 and 5), and then desk research (Chapter 6). I chose this structure for several reasons. First, it meets the objectives of the research, which aims to investigate language use in both formal and informal settings, explore tutors' and students' frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, and the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French, and to examine language policy documents. Second, it follows the adopted theoretical framework (see Chapter 1, section 1.4). Third, the desk research chapter is used to collaborate on and confirm the results of the other studies. It provides more data about the status of languages in education and academia. It also enables to confirm the mismatch between the declared policies and the practiced policies.

Chapter 3. Observation

The first study aimed to investigate language use in the Tunisian higher education context, focusing on two settings: an informal setting (university corridors, libraries, and canteens) and a formal setting (classrooms). It also aims to understand people's behaviours and identify the functions of LS. This chapter begins by presenting the research design, starting with the definition of the research tool, observation, and introducing the different types of observation and their characteristics. Next, it provides a detailed description of the two developed observation charts and the validation process. This is followed by a presentation of the selected interactions and an analysis of the results. The chapter concludes with some interesting findings that will be analyzed and discussed later, in Chapter Seven (see section 7.4 below).

3.1 Methodology

3.1.1 Observation: Definition and Rationale

Observation is an empirical research method used to obtain in-depth information about observed behaviours, actions, and phenomena. It has its roots in ethnography, which focuses on the naturalistic experiences of people. It is defined by Zedeck (2014) as “the careful, close examination of an object, process, or other phenomena for the purpose of collecting data about it or drawing conclusions” (p. 241). Similarly, Gorman and Clayton (2005) describe observational studies as those that “involve the systematic recording of observable phenomena or behaviours in a natural setting” (p. 40). Based on these definitions, observation is a research tool used to collect data on specific topics from natural settings

Observations aim to “observe participants in their natural setting, their everyday social setting and their everyday behavior in them” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 464). They are also used for “the purposeful examination of teaching and/or learning events through the systematic processes of data collection and analysis” (Bailey, 2001, p. 114). These aims are relevant to the scholarship of this dissertation, in which observations will be conducted in both informal and formal settings to collect data from a variety of contexts.

Informal settings include university corridors, libraries, and canteens, while formal settings are held in university classrooms during classes. The aim of the informal observation is to investigate the language(s) used by students and tutors in public places, focusing on

Language Choice (LC), including Language Switching (LS). Classroom observation is used to further investigate LC, including LS in English as a foreign language classes and other classes based on the speciality of the students, such as Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics, and Physics. This study aims to investigate the use of three languages: Arabic, French, and English. The observation also aims to identify the functions of LS and the norms that govern it.

3.1.2 Types of Observation

Ciesielska et al. (2018, p. 43) discuss the main types of observation, namely participant observation, direct observation, indirect observation, and non-participant observation. Participant observation is a research technique in which the observer takes an active role in the events and becomes a member of the community (Dörnyei, 2007). The observer strives towards “an immersion in the field study” (Ciesielska et al., 2018, p. 43). Becker and Geer (1970) describe participant observation as a situation “in which the observer participates in the daily life of the people under study [...] observing things that happen, listening to what is said, and questioning people, over some length of time” (p. 133). This indicates that the role of the researcher in this type of observation is to both observe and engage with the research informants to gain a deeper understanding of their behaviours and actions.

Direct observation means that the observer records events, as they occur in real time. It provides in-depth data on the observed group(s) from an outsider’s perspective. Indirect observation, on the other hand, is characterized by “collecting information in the form of videos or written descriptions of events.” This indicates that the observer relies on the observations of others or recordings of past events. According to Ciesielska et al. (2018), indirect observation refers to the use of “a one-sided mirror, a hidden camera or a voice recorder to record or observe events in which the researcher does not participate” (p. 46).

In contrast to participant observation, in non-participant observation, the researcher does not participate in the study and does not interact with the informants. The role of the observer is to observe without any involvement in the interactions. The observer takes the position of “an alien” or an outsider. Non-participant observation is “useful when observing a well-known reality, for example, a public place” (Ciesielska et al., 2018, p. 46).

In this research, non-participant observation was used as a research approach to observe informants in their natural settings and gain closer access to the field of research

while retaining the position of an outsider (Kostera, 2007). The researcher took an outsider view to investigate LC, including LS and note any critical points and comments.

3.1.3 Observation Features

Ciesielska et al. (2018, pp. 37-39) suggest a list of aspects that may be useful for developing observation charts. These aspects include: 1) management of time and space; 2) objects; 3) social actors; 4) interactions; 5) routines, rituals, and episodes; 6) time; 7) people; and 8) context. The management of time and space focuses on how time and space are organized and the types of activities that are promoted at different times and in different places. Objects refer primarily to physical objects, such as tools, machines, and signs, as well as how they are used and what they indicate or symbolize. Social actors are the individuals involved, their status, and the relationships between them. Interactions refer to both verbal and non-verbal behaviours and the topics discussed. Routines, rituals, and episodes are the behaviours and emotions of people. Time is the observation period, while individuals are the informants involved in interactions. The context describes the “backstage” of a community or institution (Ciesielska et al., 2018, p. 39).

In his discussion of classroom observation, Dörnyei (2007) presents two methods for recording events, namely event sampling and time sampling. Event sampling involves observing specific events that happen in a target setting, while time sampling entails observing participants at different time intervals. Both methods aim to determine the frequency with which an event or behaviour occurs.

Curdt-Christiansen (2020) also outlines several essential features of observation, including: 1) physical place; 2) social actors; 3) interactions; 4) sequences; and 5) time. The physical place refers to the setting where the observation takes place. Social actors are the individuals involved in the observation. Interactions include the interlocutors and the topics of interactions. Sequences refer to the routines, rituals, and episodes observed, such as the frequency of language use and the duration of activities. Time refers to the observation periods.

It is noteworthy that the developed lists of aspects for observing individuals' behaviours have limitations. For example, Ciesielska et al.'s (2018) list includes several confusing aspects, such as social actors and people, which may overlap and refer to people involved in interactions. Moreover, Dörnyei's (2007) methods for collecting data focus on

event and time sampling, neglecting other features such as social actors and the observation context. To investigate LC (including LS), two observation charts were developed based on Dörnyei's (2007) methods for recording events, Curdt-Christiansen's (2020) essential features of observation, and three additional items, namely examples of LS, their functions, and comments.

3.1.4 Limitations of Observation

Although observation is regarded as a valuable research tool for collecting detailed and “descriptive contextual information about the setting of the targeted phenomenon” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 185), it also receives several critical voices. One limitation of observation is researcher bias. DeWalt and DeWalt (1998) criticize novice observers, arguing that they are subjective and may fail to report the negative aspects of the cultural members. Another limitation is the inability to cover the implicit meanings behind people's behaviours. Ciesielska et al. (2018) named this “tacit knowledge.” It is difficult to make explicit some dimensions of tacit knowledge and explain the hidden message behind people's behaviours.

An issue that should be addressed during observations is what Labov (1972) calls “Observer's Paradox” (p. 209). This concept refers to the effect of the observer's presence on the observed context (Richards, 2003). It is also defined by Labov (1972): “to obtain the data most important for linguistic theory, we have to observe how people speak when they are not being observed” (p. 113). To overcome this issue, observations were conducted three or four times per week to build a rapport among tutors and students.

3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 Observation Charts

Systematic observation charts were developed to observe language use in various university settings, namely classrooms, corridors, libraries, and canteens. These observation charts aimed to address the following research questions:

- 1) To what extent and in what contexts are Arabic, French, and English used in Tunisian higher education?
- 2) What are the functions of language switching?
- 3) What are the norms that govern language choice and language switching?

Informal Setting

The informal observation chart consists of two main parts. The first part includes general data, such as the date, the name of the observer, the name of the institution, and the physical location. The second part contains several items following Dörnyei's (2007) methods for recording events, specifically the event sampling and Curdt-Christiansen's (2020) essential features of observation. These items include interactions, social actors (informants), and turn-taking, as illustrated in the observation chart (see Figure 3.1 below). The researcher added four items: Examples, topics of interaction, functions, and comments.

The physical setting is the location of the observation or research, including university corridors, libraries, and canteens. This informal setting is used to investigate natural interactions and collect examples of LS. The unit of observation is every single interaction, during which the researcher relies on time sampling. The researcher observes informants' behaviours and notes the occurrence of target behaviours in every interaction.

Figure 3.1

Preliminary Observation Chart 1 for Informal Settings

Date:

Name of the observer:

Name of the institution:

Physical place:

Interaction	Informants (ages, gender, roles)	Turns: speakers	Examples	Topics	Functions	Comments
1						
2						
3						

Figure 3.1 illustrates additional items of the developed chart. Participants refer to the social actors (who communicate with whom?) involved in the interactions, such as students/students, tutors/students, librarians/students, servers/students, and servers/ tutors. These social actors represent different social categories to indicate which language(s) they use, who uses LS, and

the functions of LS. The aim is also to collect biographical data on the informants, including their ages, genders, and roles.

As illustrated in the observation chart (see Figure 3.1 above), interactions focus on three items: turn-taking (who starts, who replies, and who finishes the interaction), the topics of the interactions, and LC. The informal observation focuses on pairs and small groups to investigate how interlocutors initiate conversations or respond to specific situations, which language or languages is/ are used, the reasons for their language choice, and what happens if they switch from one language to another.

The observation chart contains three additional items, namely examples of LS and their functions. It also has the item ‘comments,’ which is used to write extra data and remarks to modify and improve the chart.

This study aims to collect examples of LS and identify the functions. Scholars in the LS research field compiled lists of factors. Reyes (2004, p. 84), for example, listed these functions of LS: (1) representation of speech, (2) imitate quotation, (3) turn accommodation, (4) topic shift, (5) situation switch, (6) insistence, (7) emphasis, (8) clarification or persuasion, (9) person specification, (10) question shift, and (11) discourse maker.

Gumperz (1982, pp. 75-81) suggested another list consisting of 10 categories of LS, which are presented in the following points:

- Clarification: to explain a message or an idea.
- Emphasis: to highlight important ideas.
- Situation shift: when there is a change from one situation to another.
- Representation of speech: to represent a talk.
- Quotation: in the forms of direct quotations or as reported speech.
- Insistence: to show persistence in a specific idea to compel attention.
- Topic shift: LS appears due to changes in topics during interactions.
- Person specification: when the speaker directs the message to one of the addressees.
- Question shift: to indicate a switch in language when the speakers have questions.
- Discourse markers: in the form of discourse markers, which are words and expressions used to manage the flow of the interactions.

It appears that the factors listed above overlap, and some occur repeatedly. For the analysis of LS patterns, this research relies on Gumperz’s (1982) categorization because it seems to be the most elaborate list.

Formal Setting

The formal observation chart (see Figure 3.2 below) consists of two main parts. The first part contains general data, such as the date, the name of the observer, the name of the institution, the investigated group, and the type of classes. The second part comprises several items, including time, the observed unit, social actors, and linguistic features: The language(s) used by tutors, the language(s) used by students, examples, functions, and comments.

The first type of classes investigated is “cours intégré,” which combines both lectures (Cours) and tutorials (Travaux Dirigés: TD). The course consists of two parts: In the first part, the tutor introduces the lesson content and the target forms, rules, and vocabulary. The second part of the course includes tutorials which focus on practicing the target forms, rules, and vocabulary. The students have one English class per week; each class lasts 90 minutes. The second type of classes is only tutorials based on the students’s specialities, including Biology, Chemistry, Mathematics, and Physics. The unit of observation is the activity. Event sampling was used to determine how often a specified behaviour occurs.

This observation chart also relies on the time-sampling method to observe the behaviours of the informants, collecting data at a regular preset interval. Four to five minutes seems workable, giving the observer a minute or two minutes to observe and two to three minutes to fill in the observation chart. The target setting is classrooms, where interactions between tutors and students occur.

Additionally, the observation chart includes linguistic features such as examples of LS. The intention is to examine the language(s) used in classrooms and notice under which circumstances tutors and students use different languages or switch from one language to another.

Figure 3.2*Preliminary Observation Chart 2 for the Formal Setting***Date:****Name of the observer:****Name of the institution:****Group (speciality/ level):****Type of classes:**

Time	Unit: Activities	Social Actors (Informants)	Linguistic features		Examples	Functions	Comments
1 min							
2 min							
3 min							
4 min							

Similar to the informal observation chart, this chart includes the items “examples,” “functions,” and “comments.” As previously mentioned (see section 3.2.1 above), the research aims to identify examples of LS and their functions. Comments are used to evaluate the effectiveness of the observation chart during the piloting stage and subsequently modify and improve it. I took the position of an outsider to note any critical points and inquiries related to language use in classrooms and to provide a reflection for the post-observation discussion.

3.2.2 The Validation Process of the Observation Charts

The validation process for the observation charts in informal and formal settings took place at the beginning of September 2022 at one of the higher education institutions, where courses always start on September 03, 2022. I listened to students interactions in the university corridors and the canteen, and attended three courses in Chemistry and Process Engineering. I tried to complete the observation charts and notice any limitations. The results are presented in the next sub-sections.

Observation Chart for the Informal Settings

The piloting process demonstrates that the observation chart for the informal setting required a few modifications. The first part of the chart, which includes general data such as the date, the name of the observer, the name of the institution, and the physical location, was revised. The “name of the observer” was omitted because the researcher was the only observer. “The name of the institution” and the “physical place” appeared to be confusing. Therefore, an explanation was given: “the physical place” refers to the university corridors, libraries, and canteens. The rest of the items were kept.

The piloting process also suggested revising the second part of the observation chart. The second item, which concerns the informants and their backgrounds (Item 2), including age, gender and roles, was revised. The variable “age” was omitted because it was difficult to identify the age of the informants. The observation chart includes the item ‘examples’ (Item 4), which proved unclear. Thus, it was replaced by “examples of LS.”

Overall, the observation chart proved to be generally satisfactory during piloting. It covers all the visible features. It was easy to complete the chart. The item “comments” was particularly useful for identifying the chart’s weaknesses and improving it. The final observation chart consists of seven items, namely interaction as the unit of analysis, informants, turns, examples of LS, topics of the interactions, functions of LS, and comments, as shown in Figure 3.3:

Figure 3.3

Working Observation Chart 1 for Informal Settings

Date: 04 September 2022

Name of the institution: National School of Engineers

Physical place (corridors, libraries, and canteens): Corridors

Interaction	Informants (gender, roles)	Turns: speakers, LC, LS	Examples of LS	Topics	Functions of LS	Comments
1	Student 1 Student 2	LC : Arabic LS : French LC : French LS : Arabic	-‘foyé’ (dorm) -inscription (enrollment)	University life	Linking ideas	

Observation Chart for the Formal Setting

After piloting, the observation chart for the formal setting also required a few changes. The first part of the chart on general data was revised by omitting the item “name of the observer,” and the rest of the items remained the same. The item “types of classes” was clarified by adding “lectures or tutorials.”

The second part of the observation chart was also revised. The item “social actors” (informants) (Item 2) was omitted because this chart is designed for classroom observation, and the informants are tutors and students. Linguistic features (Item 3) were divided into two components, namely the language(s) used by tutors and the language(s) used by students. I decided to replace “language” with “language choice” because I am particularly interested in the rate of language use, i.e. to what extent Arabic, French and English are used by tutors and students. Additionally, it was noticeable that the item “functions” required clarification because it can refer to functions of LC or LS. Consequently, it was changed to “functions of LS.”

Figure 3.4*Working Observation Chart 2 for the Formal Setting***Date:** 08 September 2022**Name of the institution:** National School of Engineers**Group (speciality/ level):** Engineering, Chemistry

Type of classes (lecture/tutorial): Tutorial

Time	Unit of analysis: Activities	Linguistic features		Examples of LS	Functions of LS	Comments
		LC used by tutors	LC used by students			
1 min		French	Tunisian Arabic			
2 min		Tunisian Arabic + French	Tunisian Arabic + French	LS to Tunisian Arabic:	Students: Questions Tutor: Explanation	

Based on the discussion above, the final classroom observation chart comprises six features: Time, the unit of analysis (activities), linguistic features (LC used by both tutors and students), examples of LS, functions of LS, and comments.

3.3 Observation Data

Over a period of three months, from September 15, 2022, to December 15, 2022, 50 observations, including 30 informal observations and 20 classroom observations, were collected as a non-participant observer. In this period, I visited the institutions and the classrooms three days a week on Mondays, Tuesdays, and Saturdays. After comparing the content of the observation charts and identifying similarities and differences in the use of LS patterns, three examples from informal settings and six from formal settings were selected, as they exemplify different LS patterns employed for various purposes.

Before describing the selected interactions, it is worth presenting the various LS patterns found in these interactions and their frequency. In the informal settings, I found 5 examples of interactions in which the listener complies with the speaker's LC; the exclusive use of one LC accounts for 4 examples, and 22 interactions are marked by the interplay between Arabic, French, English, and other foreign languages. In the formal setting, four patterns were observed: A French monolingual medium (4 examples), an English monolingual medium (3 examples), a French-Arabic bilingual medium (5 examples), and a multilingual medium (8 examples).

Three interactions from the informal settings are then analyzed. Interaction 1 is a brief exchange between a student and a tutor in the university corridor. The student inquires about

the upcoming exam and the types of questions to be expected. Interaction 2 takes place at the university library between a student and a librarian concerning borrowing books. Interaction 3 is an exchange between two students at the university canteen, discussing the credit system and the modules they study.

The selected six classroom observations took place in different classes across various disciplines, namely language classes (English and French) and other classes, Economics, Biology, and Information Technology. Interactions 4 and 5 are taken from language classes (English and French). Interaction 5 is an introductory interaction from an English-language tutorial for second-year Bachelor's students, while Interaction 4 is from a French-language tutorial for first-year Bachelor's students.

Additionally, four classroom interactions (Interactions 6, 7, 8, and 9) are examined. Interaction 6 is from a tutorial in Economics, where the discussion focused on a text concerning the Economics of intellectual property. Interaction 7 is a lecture in Biology for third-year Bachelor's students that discusses the topic of genetic diseases. Interaction 9 is taken from a lesson on Information Technology, where students were engaged in correcting various activities. It is noteworthy that the language of instruction for these four courses is French.

3.4 Results and Analysis

3.4.1 The Coding Process of the Observation Data

The coding process for the observation data follows the stages of the CCM: Initial coding, code identification, and theme identification (see Chapter 2, section 2.5 for more details).

Initial Coding of the Observation Data

Table 3.1 presents an example of the initial coding applied to the observation data. This coding process includes reading the transcripts line by line and identifying words and phrases that represent ideas to be developed into themes. Below are two representative examples from informal settings. Interaction 2 is between a librarian and a student, while Interaction 3 takes place between two students at the university canteen.

Table 3.1*Initial Coding of the Observation Data*

Codes	Examples
Interaction 2: A French-Arabic Bilingual Interaction	
Arabic	01 Librarian²: <u>صباح الخير</u> "Good morning"
French	02 Student³ (female): Bonjour "Good morning"
Arabic	03 L: <u>تفضل</u> "Here you are."
French	04 S: le catalogue s'il vous plaît. "The catalog please."
Arabic	05 L: <u>العربي ولا الفرنسي</u> "The Arabic or The French"
Arabic	06 L: <u>تفضل</u> "Here it is."
Interaction 3: A Multilingual Interaction	
French +Arabic	01 S1: ⁴ <u>الprof على حكي</u> les credits <u>عندك فكرة عليهم</u> "The tutor talked about the credits, do you have an idea about them?"
French +Arabic	02 S2: Apparemment <u>كل</u> module <u>عندوا</u> nombre des credits. "Apparently each module has a number of credits."
French +Arabic	03 S1: Oui mais le problème <u>كيفاش نعرفوا</u> les credits <u>مناع كل مادة</u> "Yes but the problem how to know about the credits of each subject."
Spanish	04 S2: <i>Si</i> "Yes"

Table 3.1 above illustrates that each line of Interactions 2 and 3 is assigned one or two words. For example, Interaction 2, which is between S1 and S2, is characterized by the use of French

² Librarian (L henceforth).

³ Student (S henceforth).

⁴ The transcription convention: Arabic words and expressions are underlined. The Spanish word is in Italics. English words are capitalized.

and Arabic in Lines 01 and 02 and is labeled as “French + Arabic.” However, Line 04 is marked by the use of Spanish.

Code Identification from the Observation Data

After the initial coding, I tried to sort and organize the data into similar codes. As displayed in Table 3.2 below, the code “French” is used six times in the selected lines from Interaction 4.

Table 3.2

Code Identification from the Observation Data

Codes	Examples
Interaction 4: A French Monolingual Interaction	
French	06 Tutor 5: C’est une seance de pratique. On va faire des exercices pour comprendre les règles grammatical que nous avons vu la dernière fois. Commencez. “This session is for practice. We will do some exercises on the grammatical rules we saw them last time. Start.”
French	07 Students6: D’accord “Ok”
French	08 T: Parlez en Français s’ il vous plait. “Speak in French please”
French	09 T: Qui veut lire la première question? “Who wants to read the first question?”
French	10 S1: Moi madame “Me, madam.”
French	11 T: Oui “Yes”

At this stage, each identified unit is assigned a unique code. The relationships between these codes were identified and then categorized based on their similarities and differences.

5 Tutor (T henceforth)

6 Students (Ss henceforth)

Interaction 4 is marked by the exclusive use of French. Therefore, the code “French” is assigned to the language used by both the tutor and the students.

Theme Identification

The final stage of coding involves grouping similar coded data into themes. Core themes reflecting the informants’ behaviours were refined. As a result, three themes emerged from the informal observations, which were labeled: 1) the compliance with the LC of the interlocutor; 2) the firm use of language(s) (Arabic or French); and 3) the interplay between Arabic and French.

The results of the classroom observations present four themes: 1) a French monolingual medium, 2) an English monolingual medium, 3) a French-Arabic bilingual medium (the use of both French and Arabic only in students’ communication and the use of both French and Arabic in tutors’ and students’ communication), and 4) a multilingual medium. The main emergent themes are discussed in the following section.

3.4.2 Analysis of the Emergent Themes

Observation in Informal Settings

Language Choice Change: The Compliance with the Language Choice of the Interlocutor

Interaction 1 takes place between a student and a tutor in a university corridor. The topic of the interaction is the types of questions in the upcoming exam.

Interaction 1

01 S: صباح الخير:

“Good morning”

02 T: Bonjour

“Good morning”

03 S: Bonjour, Monsieur انحب نسال على examen

“Good morning, sir, I want to ask about the exam.”

04 T: Oui concernant quoi?

“Yes, regarding what?”

05 S: Les types de questions.

“The types of questions.”

It is clear that the student initiated the interaction in Arabic but switched to French to comply with the tutor's LC. The student appropriately switched to French, considering the context of the interaction. He tends to use French, but in Line 03, he used both Arabic and French. This switch to French illustrates two points. Firstly, it demonstrates that French is predominantly used in informal situations. Secondly, it reflects the speakers' linguistic backgrounds and their preferred LC.

Exclusive Use of one Language Choice

The second theme is the exclusive use of a single LC, which appeared in 4 out of 30 interactions. Interaction 2, between a librarian and a student, is a representative example. In this example, the student asked the librarian to give her the catalog to see the list of books. This interaction illustrates a different pattern, where the preference for one language is clearly shown:

Interaction 2

01 L: صباح الخير

“Good morning”

02 S: Bonjour

“Good morning”

03 L: تفضل

“Here you are.”

04 S: Le catalogue s'il vous plaît

“The catalog please”

05 L: العربي ولا الفرنسي

“The Arabic or the French”

06 S: Le Français

“The French”

07 L: تفضل

“Here it is.”

As it is observed, the librarian started the interaction in Arabic, and the student responded in French. The two speakers are firm in their commitment to speaking their preferred languages, which results in a lack of congruence. The librarian asserted his authority by his choice to remain in Arabic, while the student insisted on a divergent LC by remaining in French. This difference in LC may be due to gender, suggesting that women tend to choose the dominant

language more often than men. The student apparently sees French as the language of prestige.

Interplay between Arabic and French

Interaction 3 is a conversation between two students, discussing the credit system and the modules they were studying:

Interaction 3

01 S1: إلprof حكي على les credits عندك فكرة عليهم

“The tutor talked about the credits; do you have an idea about them?”

02 S2: Apparemment كل module عندوا nombre des crédits.

“Apparently each module has a number of credits.”

03 S1: Oui mais le problème كيفاش نعرفوا les credits متاع كل مادة

“Yes but the problem is how to know about the credits of each subject.”

04 S2: *Si*

“Yes”

Interaction 3 is marked by interplay between French and Arabic, with intrasentential observed. The speakers used grammatical structures from both languages: “oui mais le problème” (“yes but the problem”), and “nombre des crédits” (“a number of credits”). The speakers clearly assign more prestige and symbolic value to French. Spanish appeared in Line 04, demonstrating by the use of “si.” One possible explanation for the use of Spanish could be that the student studied Spanish as an optional language in secondary education. Therefore, language use in this interaction illustrates that the speakers share the languages in their linguistic repertoires.

Classroom Observation

Classroom observation data also provides evidence on LC and LS in tutor-student interactions. Four themes were identified, namely a French monolingual medium, an English monolingual medium, a French-Arabic bilingual medium, and a multilingual medium.

A French Monolingual Medium

An example of tutors’ almost exclusive use of the language of instruction is illustrated in Interaction 4. This example is taken from a tutorial in French for first-year Bachelor’s students:

Interaction 4

01 T: Bonjour tout le monde.

“Good morning, everyone.”

02 Ss: Bonjour madame.

“Good morning, madam.”

03 T: Gave a brief recap of what they studied in the previous session.

04 Ss: Oui [...] oui

“Yes [...] yes”

05 T: Distributed the papers.

06 Ss: Merci.

“Thank you.”

07 T: C’est une séance de pratique. On va faire des exercices pour comprendre les règles grammaticales que nous avons vues la dernière fois. Commencez.

“This session is for practice. We will do some exercises on the grammatical rules we saw in the last time. Start.”

08 Ss: D’accord

“Ok”

09 T: Parlez en Français s’il vous plaît.

“Speak in French, please.”

10 T: Qui veut lire la première question?

“Who wants to read the first question?”

11 S1: Moi, madame

“Me, madam”

12 T: Oui

“Yes”

13 S1: Subordination الجملة هي

“The sentence is a subordination.”

14 T: La phrase, la phrase, en Français s’il vous plaît.

“The sentence, the sentence, in French please.”

In Interaction 4, the tutor began with greetings in French. Then, she provided a brief summary of the grammar lesson taught in the previous session. The students listened with some responding with “oui” (“yes”), as shown in Line 04. Following this, the tutor distributed

handouts that included tasks for practicing the grammatical rules the students had studied in the previous session.

In Line 13, S1 encountered a difficulty in finding the French translation for the word “the sentence.” Arabic, therefore, appeared in the response of S1 “الجملة هي” (“the sentence is”), but the tutor prevented him from speaking in Arabic. This prevention is shown in the repetition of the expression “la phrase, la phrase” (“the sentence, the sentence”) in Line 14.

It should be noted that neither the tutor nor the students used any other language during the lesson. The students were prevented from using any other language: “en Français s’il vous plaît” (“in French please”); “parlez en Français” (“speak in French”). The tutor interrupted S1’s switch to Arabic by explicitly prohibiting him from speaking in Arabic and asking him to interact solely in French. The tutor maintains classroom control through her monolingual language practice, which aligns with the declared language policy.

An English Monolingual Medium

Interaction 5 is taken from a classroom discussion where English is the medium of instruction. The tutor started the lesson with a warm-up activity: A quiz to revise a grammar lesson on parts of speech.

Interaction 5

01 T: What are the two word classes we saw in the last session?

02 S1: Content words.

03 Sts: Function words.

04 T: Good. Give me examples of content words.

05 S2: Nouns.

06 Other Ss: Prepositions, verbs, adjectives.

07 T: Be careful. Prepositions do not belong to content words.

The tutor asked the students several questions. The students responded individually and collectively. The tutor praised those who gave correct answers (Line 04) and corrected incorrect answers (Line 07). The only language used in this interaction is English. Such a choice can be assumed to be used because English is the language of instruction. Interaction 5 shows a second practice of LC, specifically the use of English as a monolingual medium by both the tutor and the students.

*A French-Arabic Bilingual Medium**Use of both French and Arabic only in Students' Communication*

Unlike the classroom interactions (4 and 5) illustrated above, Interactions 6, 7, and 8 are marked by bilingualism, specifically the use of both French and Arabic. Interaction 6 is taken from a lesson in Economics for third-year Bachelor's students. The tutor started the lesson with greetings in French. Some students responded in French, while others used Arabic.

Interaction 6

01 T: Bonjour

“Good morning”

02 Ss: Bonjour, سلام

“Good morning, hello”

03 T: Qui veut lire?

“Who wants to read?”

04 S1: Raised her hand and started reading.

05 T: Quelle est l'idée principale de ce paragraphe?

“What is the main idea of this paragraph?”

06 S2: Economie

“Economics”

07 T: Donne-moi une idée complète.

“Give me a full idea.”

08 S2: Monsieur الpragraphe على تحكي l'économie de la propriété intellectuelle.

“Sir, the paragraph talks about the economics of intellectual property.”

09 T: Elle parle [...]

“It talks [...]”

Then, the tutor briefly summarized what they studied in the previous session and introduced the present lesson by asking the students to open their booklets to page 33. It is noted that all the questions of the tutor are in French. He refused to use Arabic, translating what S2 said, “تحكي على”, “elle parle” (it talks), from Arabic into French (Lines 08 and 09). As indicated in Lines 02 and 08, Arabic was used only in the students' communication and primarily for greetings and responses to the tutor's questions.

Use of both French and Arabic in Tutors' and Students' Communication

In contrast to the previously mentioned examples (Interactions 4, 5, and 6), Interactions 7 and 8 demonstrate flexibility in the tutors' and students' communication. Interaction 7 is taken from a lecture in Biology, where the language of instruction is French and the students are third-year Bachelor's students. As displayed in Interaction 7 below, the tutor started the lesson with greetings in Arabic before switching to French to introduce the title of the lesson and its objectives:

Interaction 7

01 T: صباح الخير

“Good morning”

02 Ss: صباح النور صباح الخير

“Good morning”

03 T: Le titre est les maladies héréditaires. On va définir la Disomies Uniparentales (DUP) et énumérer les mécanismes de la disomie uniparentale, expliquer les conséquences d'une DUP en pathologie. C'est clair? واضح

“The title is genetic diseases. We are going to define ‘la Disomies Uniparentales (DUP)’, enumerate the mechanisms of ‘la disomie uniparentale’, and explain the consequences of DUP on pathology. Is it clear? Is it clear?”

04 Ss: Oui monsieur واضح

“Yes Sir, clear.”

05 T: Quels sont les mécanismes que vous connaissez?

“What are the mechanisms that you know?”

06 S1: Complémentation gamétique

“Gametic complementation”

07 Ss: Correction d'une trisomie.

“Correction of a trisomy”

08 T: C'est bien. L'autre ?

“That is good. The other?”

09 S2: Correction d'une trisomie chez un zygote.

“Correction of a trisomy in a zygote.”

10 T: Oui. Donc. Complémentation gamétique est la fécondation d'un gamète nullisomique [...] pour le même chromosome.

“Yes. So. Gametic complementation is the fertilization of a nullisomic gamete [...] for the same chromosome.”

11 Ss 1 and 4: ما فهمتتش est ce que vous parlez du l'Isodisomie?

“We did not understand, do you speak about Isodisomy?”

12 T: Non, c'est Hétérodisomie

“No, it is Heterodisomy”

As illustrated in Interaction 7 above, the tutor's and students' language use is characterized by bilingualism, the use of French and Arabic. Notably, the tutor employed both languages in Line 03 to check the students' understanding: “c'est clair? واضح” (is it clear?); the students used Arabic to indicate a lack of understanding in Line 11, implying a request for an explanation: “ما فهمتتش” (I did not understand). Interaction 7 is conducted in both French and Arabic. Nevertheless, turn-taking goes on smoothly, suggesting that Arabic is considered normative in this context.

Interaction 8 is an example of an introductory Biology classroom exchange in which the tutor provided instructions to the students to conduct an experiment. She began in French and then switched to Arabic:

Interaction 8

01 T: Travaillez ensemble

“Work together”

02 Ss: نخدموا en groupe

“We work in groups”

03 T: Oui بعضهم مع ثلاثة طلبة نقروا كل ثلاثة طلبة مع بعضهم bien les questions.

“Yes, every three students together, read the questions.”

What is interesting about Interaction 8 is that the tutor gives the instructions in Arabic. LC could probably demonstrate that Arabic is useful for explaining the instructions and helping students understand the assigned task.

Interactions 7 and 8 represent a type of bilingual communication in which Arabic and French are used. Notably, there are no signalling devices to indicate that the use of one language or another is a problem. Gafaranga and Torras (2001) refer to this language practice

as the “halfway-between mode” (p. 207) of bilingual communication. The observed tutors and students alternate between both languages and within turns.

A Multilingual Medium: Use of French, Arabic and English in both Tutors' and Students' Communication

Interaction 9 is taken from a tutorial on Information Technology. This lesson includes various activities. Below are selected lines from an interaction between the tutor and the students as they work to complete the second activity:

Interaction 9

01 T: شئونة SERVER? شئونة un serveur ?

“What is a server?”

02 S1: SERVER وين فما les données في l'ordinateur

“A server is where we find the data in a computer.”

03 T: L'image قداش فيها من octet

“How many bytes are in an image?”

04 S2: ما فهمتتش

“I did not understand”

05 T: Partag هم l'ecran

“Share the screen”

06 S3: وين نخدموها؟

“Where do we do this?”

07 T: Sur l'ordinateur

“In the computer”

08 S4: 14 fois 1024.

“14 is multiplied by 1024”

09 T: تكتبوا unité de mesure

“Write the unit of measurement.”

10 S4: 50 octet fois 8 لقينا 1 BYTE

“50 byte is multiplied by 8. We found 1 byte.”

11 T: Remarque آخر

“The last remark.”

12 T: بين شئونة الفرق بين gigaoctet et GIGABYTE?

“What is the difference between gigaoctet et gigabyte?”

The tutor started the interaction with the question “what is a server?” What we can observe here is that she repeated the question twice. The first time is in Tunisian Arabic and English, and the second time is in Tunisian Arabic and French. Interestingly, it was the tutor who initiated the switch to English and Arabic in a French-medium classroom. The use of the English terms “server” (Lines 01 and 02) and “byte” (Lines 03 and 11) can be explained by the fact that English is the language of computer science. In the rest of the interaction, both the tutor and the students utilized Arabic and French. The students employed Arabic to pose questions (Line 06), while both the tutor and the students used Arabic for linking words and French for key terminology.

Interaction 9 demonstrates the presence of multilingual language practices in a French-medium classroom. Although French is the medium of instruction, Tunisian Arabic and English are frequently used. The use of both Arabic and English is regarded as a normative LC pattern, revealing an orientation towards a practiced language policy.

The focus of Chapter 3 was to investigate language use in both informal and formal settings. The results indicated that, in informal contexts, the language preferences of tutors, students, and librarians shape language use. The classroom observations also revealed distinct patterns of LS. In analyzing language use, it was found that the use of LS is imbued with meaning, including clarification, emphasis, and question shift (Gumperz, 1982).

The results highlighted several interesting points that will be investigated in the Discussion Chapter (Chapter 7). It is noticeable that there are examples of one-word LS. A question that should be raised here is: Can we classify this alternation as LS or borrowing? Moreover, the results reported that in some classroom observation examples, the tutors and students switched from French to Arabic where French was the medium of instruction. It is worth questioning whether tutors and students are following unspoken rules or non-verbally negotiated behaviours. If there is a systematic use of these unspoken rules, can we refer to this as a classroom policy?

The subsequent chapters, 4 and 5, will delve into language beliefs by investigating the perceptions of Tunisian tutors, researchers, and students regarding the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, language policy discourses, and the promotion of the status of English in HE.

Chapter 4. Questionnaires

While the previous chapter presented the results of the language practices study, this chapter aims to investigate Tunisian tutors' and students' perceptions of the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, and the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French in HE. The chapter consists of three main parts. The first part introduces the methodology, starting with the definition and the rationale for using a questionnaire. This is followed by the design of the questionnaire and data analysis tools. The second part presents the findings of the validation process, while the third part analyzes and interprets the results of the closed-ended questions and open-ended questions.

4.1 Methodology

4.1.1 Questionnaire: Definition and Rationale

A questionnaire is a quantitative and qualitative data-collection tool used to systematically gather relevant quantifiable information. Dörnyei (2007) asserts that “the essence of scientific research is trying to find answers to questions in a systematic and disciplined manner and it is therefore no wonder that the questionnaire has become one of the most popular research instruments in social sciences” (p. 101). Iwaniec (2020) also highlights the rationale for using questionnaires, emphasizing their versatility and the diversity of their use. He argues that questionnaires enable researchers to gather information on a range of topics, including attitudes, beliefs, motivation, and language awareness (p. 326). This aligns with the aims of this research, which seek to explore the perceptions of Tunisian tutors and students regarding the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, and the promotion of its status in HE.

A questionnaire differs from other data collection tools, such as interviews, in that it allows participants to answer the same set of questions, thereby reducing researchers' bias and increasing the reliability of the results (Bryman, 2008). It is considered a highly reliable research tool for collecting relevant information in a valid manner (Wilson & Sapsford, 2006, p. 102). Thus, questionnaires aim to measure what they are intended to measure (validity) and to ensure high correlation among statements (reliability).

Questionnaires and interviews also differ in the depth of data collected and the methods to handle them. Interviews provide researchers with a more controlled environment

for collecting specific information (Codó, 2009). Moreover, data from questionnaires can be handled both quantitatively (closed-ended questions) and qualitatively (open-ended questions), while interview data are generally analyzed qualitatively.

4.1.2 Limitations of Questionnaires

Although questionnaires are an efficient tool for data collection, they still have shortcomings. Gillham (2007, p. 8) identified several limitations, namely issues related to questionnaire design, wording, and the effect of respondents' behaviours. Poorly designed questions can affect the quality of questionnaires and lead to confusion and misunderstanding. Questionnaire wording might also be problematic for respondents. Dörnyei (2007) argues that the use of "strong" or "loaded" words can disappoint respondents in one way or another (p. 53). Garrett (2010) also notes that the use of multiple questions is likely to make the respondents feel confused (p. 44).

Questionnaires are subject to other limitations. Gillham (2007) argues that questionnaire data can be biased, citing respondents' lack of motivation. Participants may not be motivated to answer a questionnaire and therefore they will not provide detailed information. Gillham (2007) highlights the effect of what is referred to by Baker (1992, pp. 44-45) as "the social desirability bias." According to Perloff (1993), the social desirability bias can affect the validity and reliability of the questionnaire, arguing that "[the respondents] may avoid giving answers that would make them look bigots" (p. 44).

Iwaniec (2020, p. 326) further explains respondent bias by pointing to participants' "acquiescence bias" (i.e., they have a tendency to provide positive answers if they are unsure how to respond), "halo effect" (they overgeneralise answers in line with their overall impressions) and "self-deception" (i.e., providing answers that respondents would like to be true of them, even though they are not). He believes that respondents' behaviours may influence how they respond to questionnaires.

After introducing the definitions of a questionnaire, its rationale, and its limitations, the next section provides a detailed description of the questionnaire used in this study, including its design and validation processes.

4.1.3 Development of the Questionnaire

Questionnaire Design

This study focuses on tutors' and students' perceptions of the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, and the promotion of the status of English in Tunisian HE. The ideas for writing statements came from the researcher's personal experience, knowledge, and previous studies (e.g., Aouina, 2013; Boukadi, 2013). The procedure of developing the questionnaire is based on Dörnyei's (2007) stages, which include these main parts: 1) Title, 2) General Introduction, 3) Specific instructions, 4) Questionnaire items, and 5) Thanking.

The questionnaire was written in English. Then, it was translated into MSA, the native language of the informants. The purpose of this linguistic choice is to enable all respondents to understand all the statements and questions. The aim is also to reach a broad spectrum of informants, including tutors, students, and researchers from various fields.

Developing the questionnaire for this study took a lot of time, and I ended up with multiple drafts. The procedure involved two main stages: The development of the English version of the questionnaire and its translation into MSA. The development of the English version went through various stages. The first stage included setting clear aims for developing the questionnaire. The researcher began by reading the literature on questionnaire design and related studies on people's perceptions of English and LPP. Then, the researcher developed ideas, which were turned into statements and questions.

In the second stage, the constructs to be measured were defined and the relevant statements representing them were identified. The first version of the questionnaire had personal information, such as name, sex, age, and knowledge of English, one construct in the closed-ended questions, which included statements about frequency and preference for using English and ways to promote its status, and three open-ended questions about informants' views on using English as a language of instruction. The constructs of the closed-ended questions were not clearly specified at this stage.

The second version of the questionnaire was developed, and the closed-ended questions were divided into three constructs, namely "frequency and preference for using English," "the reasons for its use," and "the promotion of the status of English in Tunisian higher education." The part on background information was also revised, and for ethical

considerations, the variable “name” was omitted. More variables were added: Level of education, profession, and knowledge of French. There was a problem with the open-ended questions because two of them were leading questions. They appeared to guide respondents towards answering in specific ways. These are examples of the questions: “Are you for or against promoting English in Tunisian higher education? Why? If you are for, how can we promote English in Tunisian higher education?” These questions were revised, and more probing questions that seek detailed answers were developed.

In the third version of the questionnaire, four statements were added to the first construct (statements d, h, j, and m) to include the use of English in entertainment (listening to music and watching films), and five statements to the second construct (statements a, c, e, f, and n) to include more statements to study, work, and communication. Additionally, three statements were added to the third construct to point to other ways to promote the status of English, which are as follows:

- Universities should encourage the organization of English clubs for students.
- The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should encourage more national cooperation with the British Council in Tunisia.
- The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should encourage more national cooperation with Amideast Tunisia.

To gauge informants’ perceptions, two rating scales were suggested at the beginning. The first scale, which ranges from “never true” to “always true,” was employed in the first two constructs, “frequency and preference for using English” and “the reasons for its use,” to measure how true the statements are for the informants. The Likert scale was used in the third construct, “the promotion of English in Tunisian higher education,” ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.” Based on the supervisors’ feedback, the researcher used the Likert scale for the three constructs.

At the wording level, transparent, simple, and understandable words were used to ensure that respondents understood the statements similarly. I followed Dörnyei’s (2007) “rules about the item wording”, which states that “we should try to speak the ‘common language’ -the best items are the ones that sound like being taken from an actual interview” (p. 108). Additionally, some footnotes were added to avoid ambiguity and to define unknown words for some people, such as “Arabization,” “the British Council,” “the Amideast,” and abbreviations, including “TOEFL and IELTS.”

Complex structures were avoided in which each statement discusses one single idea. Double-barreled questions were also avoided in which each question is used to measure a single idea. For example, the first open-ended question is about the ways to promote English. The second question concerns using English as the language of instruction, and the third question is about the expected results of using EMI.

As for the order of the statements, the items progress logically from the specific to the general. For example, in the second construct, which is about the reasons for using English, the statements are categorized according to their topics: Education (statements a, b, and c), work (statements d, e, f, and g), academic purposes (conferences, publication: statements h, I, and j), and communication (statements k, l, m, and n). Therefore, the statements are closely connected, suggesting a coherent structure. They also correlate with the aims of the research.

Feedback and comments from the supervisors were iteratively incorporated into the revision of the English version of the questionnaire. The drafts of the questionnaire were checked by the supervisors, who provided comments on the wording, the organization of the statements, and the correlation between the statements and constructs, on the one hand, and the aims of the research, on the other hand. Consequently, new ideas were developed, and changes were implemented.

The questionnaire was translated into Arabic, and the translated version was checked by a professor of Arabic linguistics. Several issues, including syntax and grammar, were revealed and revised.

It is worth emphasizing that in developing the questionnaire, the researcher considered several factors regarding the wording and the structure of the statements. These points are in line with Dörnyei and Csizér's (2012) five helpful strategies:

- 1) Length: items should be written in as a concise manner as possible.
- 2) Language: the language used should be simple and natural.
- 3) Clarity: an item should be devoid of ambiguity.
- 4) Construction: negative constructions (e.g., "I don't do X"; "I never feel like Y") are to be avoided.
- 5) Focus: double-barreled questions (e.g., "Do you like eggs and ham?") should also be avoided.

Rating Scale

As shown in Figure 4.1, the instructions for answering the questionnaire are displayed. An example was provided to help respondents answer in the expected way. The Likert scale is used to measure the degree of agreement and disagreement, which ranges from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree.”

Figure 4.1*Rating Scale*

Please read each statement carefully; and then circle the number that best represents the level of your agreement to the statements.

EXAMPLE:

-I think that learning English is useful. -If you strongly agree that learning English is useful, circle 4.	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly agree 4
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The Likert scale was chosen because it offers several advantages, as outlined by Kothari (2004, p. 86): 1) it is reliable since respondents answer each statement included in the instrument; 2) it allows for the study of how responses differ between individuals and between stimuli; and 3) it is frequently used by students of opinion research. It is clear that this rating scale is often used in perception studies, and it demonstrates high reliability.

Oppenheim (1992, p. 200) highlights a limitation of the Likert scale, arguing that the middle option “neutral” can be confusing and may affect the interpretation of responses because it is unclear whether respondents are completely neutral or slightly positive or negative. To address this issue, a four-point Likert scale was used to elicit more specific responses. A response option, known as a “forced choice design,” was employed, and the neutral option was removed.

4.1.4 The Validation Process of the Questionnaire

The Arabic version of the questionnaire was piloted with three informants, who participated in the think-aloud session. The think-aloud protocol was used to test the content validity of the questionnaire, identify its weaknesses, and improve its content. Thus, the results of the think-alouds revealed several issues in translation (see section 4.1.5 below for more details).

Additionally, the statistical test “Cronbach’s Alpha” was used to test the internal consistency of the questionnaire statements, assessing both the correlation between the constructs and the statements as well as the correlation among the statements within the same construct (see section 4.1.5 below for further details).

Think-aloud Protocol

The think-aloud protocol is a method used to assess the content validity of questionnaires. Thinking aloud refers to verbalizing participants’ thoughts while completing a questionnaire to identify its weaknesses and consequently improve its content (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 13). In conducting the think-aloud sessions, Bowles’ (2010, p. 121) steps were followed: 1) explaining the concept of “thinking aloud,” 2) specifying the language participants are allowed to use, 3) conducting a warm-up activity, 4) providing participants the opportunity to ask questions, and 5) recording the think-aloud responses.

As mentioned above (see section 4.1.4), the think-aloud sessions were conducted with three informants: a tutor of English, a tutor of Arabic, and a master’s student in Biology. These informants were selected to collect perceptions from individuals representing different fields. The sessions were conducted online via ZOOM, with utterances audio-recorded to minimize intimidation (Nunan, 1992).

Cronbach’s Alpha

Cronbach’s Alpha, also known as the “coefficient Alpha,” is a widely used method for measuring the internal consistency of questionnaire statements. According to Garson (2016), the interpretation of Cronbach’s Alpha involves the percentage of variance and the correlation of the observed scale with all possible other scales (p. 43). It is important to note that Cronbach’s Alpha ranges from 0 to 1. George and Mallery (2003) provide the following guidelines for interpretation: if the value of Alpha is >0.9 = Excellent, >0.8 = Good, >0.7 = Acceptable, >0.6 = Questionable, >0.5 = Poor (as cited in Gliem & Gliem, 2003, p. 87). Nunnally (1967) argues that the coefficient Alpha is the best measure of reliability because most major sources of error are due to the sampling of tool contents.

4.1.5 Results and Analysis of the Validation Process

Analysis of the Think-aloud Protocol Results

The recorded think-aloud sessions were analyzed, and all informants' comments were incorporated to improve the content of the questionnaire. A limitation should be noted; however, that is, whilst the think-aloud method identified issues with several questionnaire statements, the informants did not engage with the task in the same way as they would have. They provided comments only after completing the task, which may be attributed to their unfamiliarity with this method. Additionally, this could be explained by the influence of the researcher, who was also unfamiliar with the method, and she did not regularly prompt the informants to verbalize their thoughts.

Based on the results, specific issues were identified through the think-aloud protocol. Two statements from the first construct proved to be problematic because they appeared to have a similar structure. In this construct, usefulness, frequency, and preference were measured. This creates confusion and misunderstanding because the statements look similar, according to the informants. These are the two problematic statements: أحب كثيرا الإستماع إلى أفضل الاستماع (‘‘I frequently listen to music in English’’ (Use of Eng. h)) and إلى الأغاني الانجليزية (‘‘I prefer listening to music in English’’ (Use of Eng. o)). Therefore, the researcher reconsidered the wording and structure of the statement (Use of Eng. h) and changed it to: ’’ أستمع كثيرا إلى أغان باللغة الانجليزية.‘‘ (‘‘I prefer listening to music in English’’ (Use of Eng. o)).

Another issue related to vocabulary choice was identified. Two informants suggested improving the wording of the questionnaire and recommended synonyms. For instance, they proposed replacing the Arabic word ’’المتكلمين’’ (speakers) with ’’الناطقين’’ in the following example:

ينبغي على وزارة التّعليم العالي التّونسية تشجيع برامج تبادل المدرّسين والطّلبة (ارسال مدرّسين وطلبة للاستفادة من خبرة المتكلمين الأصليين للغة الانجليزية).

-‘‘The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should encourage tutors’ and students’ exchange programs’’ (Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr b).

The next statement includes the two terms “مدونات ومنتديات” which appeared to be confusing: “أشارك باستمرار في مناقشات افتراضية (مدونات ومنتديات) باستعمال اللغة الانجليزية. (‘I frequently participate in online discussions (in weblogs, forums, etc.)’). Thus, the two terms were replaced by “منتدى” (forums).

One of the informants pointed out an issue with the first open-ended question. According to her, the question addresses two ideas: Informants’ attitudes towards promoting the status of English and ways to promote its status. She suggested clarifying this. The researcher considered this comment and divided the question into two to avoid a double-barreled question. The questions were revised as follows: 1) What do you think about developing the status of English in Tunisian higher education? why? 1.a) According to you, how can we develop the status of English in Tunisian higher education?

The recordings were carefully examined, revealing hesitation in answering some questions and repetition of a number of statements. Participant pauses and repetitions may provide valuable insights. In this context, Cullum (1998) identified several nonverbal cues that researchers should consider while analyzing the think-alouds, including pauses, smiles, misreadings, and periods of silence. Notably, the informants hesitated when reading these two items: “أدرس الانجليزية كمادة” (b. I study English at university as a subject) and “أدرّس الانجليزية في الجامعة” (f. I teach English at university). The two verbs أدرس (study) and أدرّس (teach) are confusing, likely due to participants’ lack of concentration. The second verb أدرّس includes a stressed /r/, which makes the difference.

After revising the questionnaire based on the think-aloud protocol results, I distributed it and collected 50 responses from 19 tutors, 10 researchers, and 21 students across various fields, including Biology, Chemistry, Economics, Mathematics, and Physics. Their age ranged from 21 to 45 years. Then, the Cronbach’s Alpha values for the three constructs were calculated, as presented in the following section.

*Analysis of the Cronbach's Alpha Results**The Results of the First Construct: "Frequency and Preference for Using English"*

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the entire set of items⁷ is 0.913, indicating high internal consistency. This result demonstrates strong internal consistency among the 15 items and confirms that the construct of the questionnaire is reliable (see Appendix D, Table 1).

In light of the results, the item-total correlations range from .30 to .70, which is considered acceptable, according to Carmines and Zeller (1974, p. 89). They argue that it is acceptable for at least 50% of the retained items to have total scores within the range of .30 to .70. Thus, most of the items correlate with one another. As far as the column "Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted" is concerned, the values range from .903 to .910 (see Appendix D, Table 2). All items should be retained because they contribute to the reliability of the first construct. Moreover, deleting any item will not significantly change the overall value of Alpha.

The Results of the Second Construct: "Reasons for Using English"

The Alpha value for the second construct, "reasons for using English," is .902, indicating high internal consistency (see Appendix D, Table 3). This result demonstrates that the 14 items measure the same underlying construct.

The results of the item-total correlations indicate that the corrected item-total scores range from .304 to .817, demonstrating a good correlation among most items. There is only one exception, with a value below .30, indicating a low item for the item-total correlation of item "I study English at university as a subject (Reason b)" within this construct. The results also show that most items appear to be worthy of retention, as their removal would decrease the Cronbach's Alpha value. However, the four exceptions to this are items "Reasons a, b, d, and f," which would increase the Alpha value to $\alpha = 0.907, 0.910, 0.906, \text{ and } 0.905$, respectively, if deleted (see Appendix D, Table 4).

The Results of the Third Construct: 'The Promotion of English in Tunisian Higher Education'

The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient for the 14 items (0.778) indicates a relatively high level of internal consistency. Therefore, the scale measuring the third construct is reliable (see Appendix D, Table 5).

⁷ The term 'item(s)' is used to refer to statement(s) when reporting the results of the Cronbach's Alpha test.

The findings of the corrected item-total correlations indicate that the item “University courses and exams should be conducted in Arabic (Promotion of Eng. a)” received a negative value ‘-.039’. Similarly, the item “French should remain the language of instruction for university courses and exams (Promotion of Eng. b)” also received a low value ‘.053’ (see Appendix D, Table 6). These values suggest that these items do not correlate with the others. The two excluded items refer to the use of Arabic and French as languages of instruction.

The results of the corrected item-total correlations also show that most items are worth retaining, as removing any item from the construct decreases Cronbach’s Alpha. Only two items, if deleted, would increase Cronbach’s Alpha value, while the rest would result in lower values. For example, deleting the statements “University courses and exams should be taught in Arabic (Promotion of Eng. a)” and “French should remain the language of instruction for university courses and exams (Promotion of Eng. b)” would increase the Cronbach’s Alpha score to $\alpha = .807$ and $.806$, respectively (see Appendix D, Table 6).

It is worth noting that in this construct, there were two statements related to Arabic, two related to French, and ten related to English. This imbalance could be one of the reasons for the negative result. To address this, the title of the third construct was changed to “the promotion of English vs. Arabic and French in higher education.” Eight statements with corresponding English pairs were added to this construct (e.g., statements h, i, j, k, q, r, t, and u) to consider not only English but also Arabic and French. The aim is provide a clear view of how Tunisians perceive the status of English and other languages (see Table 4.1 below). Therefore, impartiality is established on the fact that the content should be free from bias.

Table 4.1*The Added Items to Arabic and French that have their English Pairs*

Arabic	French	English
-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in Arabic for university tutors to promote Arabization.	-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university tutors to promote French.	-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in English for university tutors to promote English.
-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in Arabic for university students to promote Arabization.	-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university students to promote French.	-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in English for university students to promote English.
-The Tunisian government should promote the status of Arabic in higher education.	-The Tunisian government should encourage the promotion of French in higher education.	-The Tunisian government should encourage the promotion of English in higher education.
-The Tunisian government should encourage the educational/academic cooperation with other Arabic countries.	-The Tunisian government should promote the educational/academic cooperation with France.	-The Tunisian government should promote the educational/academic cooperation with the UK, the USA, and Canada.

After revising the questionnaire, 100 responses were collected. Cronbach's Alpha values were recalculated, and the results are presented in the following section.

Recalculating Cronbach's Alpha and the Results

The Results of the First Construct: "Frequency and Preference for Using English"

The Cronbach's Alpha value for all items in the first construct is high: 0.905. This result indicates that the items have high internal consistency and they measure the same construct (see Appendix D, Table 7).

The item-total correlation results show that the values range from 0.360 to 0.802 (see Appendix D, Table 8). These findings indicate high internal consistency among the items, confirming the reliability of the questionnaire. All items should be retained because they contribute to the reliability of this construct.

The Results of the Second Construct: “Reasons for Using English”

Similar to the results of the first construct, Cronbach’s Alpha for the second construct is 0.929, indicating adequate internal consistency. Additionally, the results show that the construct “reasons for using English” has high internal consistency, with item correlations ranging from 0.096 to 0.868. This result suggests that the items are well correlated and should be retained (see Appendix D, Tables 9 & 10).

The Results of the Third Construct: “Promotion of the Status of English vs. Arabic and French in Tunisian Higher Education”

The result of the reliability measure is 0.885, which is acceptable and indicates a strong correlation among the items (see Appendix D, Table 11). Moreover, the total-item correlation results for the third construct demonstrate a good correlation between the items (see Appendix D, Table 12). The results do not include any negative values, indicating that all items were internally consistent and reliable for assessing informants’ perceptions of the promotion of English, Arabic, and French in Tunisian HE. The items belong to the same construct, and they should be retained. It is worth noting that the alternative solution appears feasible, as adding more items related to Arabic and French would balance this construct.

4.1.6 The Final Structure of the Questionnaire

The final structure of the questionnaire consists of three main parts: Background information, closed-ended questions, and open-ended questions (see Appendix B). The questionnaire begins with ten questions about respondents’ general background. The second part is divided into three constructs: The first construct contains fifteen statements about the frequency and preference for using English. The second construct has fourteen statements regarding the reasons for using English. The third construct has twenty-two statements about the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French in Tunisian HE. The last part of the questionnaire has four open-ended questions about the use of EMI and the expected results of implementing EMI. The following section provides a detailed introduction to the final version of the questionnaire.

Part 1: Background Information

This part collects demographic information, namely gender, age, level of education, profession, and knowledge of French and English. These sociolinguistic factors help

understand respondents' backgrounds and language abilities. The purpose of gathering this information is to provide the researcher with a clear profile of the participants and to determine whether a respondent belongs to the target informants, such as university tutors, students, and researchers. Additionally, this information helps interpret the collected data, leading to a more accurate analysis. Furthermore, the researcher notes that these biographical variables are commonly recorded in perception studies to examine their correlations with response variables.

Part 2: Closed-ended Questions

Closed-ended questions are “those that the participants respond to by choosing one of the answers provided” (Iwaniec, 2020, p. 329). The purpose of using this type of question is to ensure that respondents interpret the statements and questions consistently.

The first construct is about informants' perceptions of “frequency and preference for using English,” 15 statements that assess usefulness, frequency, and preference. The wording reflects the purposes for using English in Tunisia. English is taught as a compulsory subject in schools and universities and serves as a communication tool, particularly on social networks and through email. The following are examples of these statements:

- I think that learning English is **useful**.
- I **frequently** speak English with my friends and colleagues.
- I **prefer** speaking English to French.

The second construct focuses on informants' perceptions of “the reasons for using English.” As illustrated in the following examples, these reasons include education, work, research, and communication:

- I **learn** English to obtain a university degree in English.
- I learn English to get **job** opportunities abroad.
- I write my **academic** articles in English.
- I use English on **social networks**.

The third construct addresses the “promotion of English, Arabic, and French in Tunisian higher education.” It includes informants' views on the roles of the university, the MHE, and the Tunisian government:

- **University** courses and exams should be conducted in Arabic.
- The Tunisian **Ministry** of Higher Education should organize training in English for university tutors.
- The Tunisian **government** should promote educational/academic cooperation with the UK, the USA, and Canada.

In this part of the questionnaire, the statements move from the specific to the general. They focus on ways to promote English in HE. The first four statements are about the use of Arabic, French, and English as languages of instruction (statements a, b, and c). Statements e, f, and g are about the organization of university clubs aimed at encouraging the promotion of these three languages. Statements h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, and p are about the role of the MHE. Statements q, r, s, t, u, and v discuss the role of the Tunisian government: The political decisions that should be made by the Tunisian government to enhance the position of the three languages.

Part 3: Open-ended Questions

Open-ended questions are designed to allow “respondents to voice their opinions, convey the message that their contribution is truly valued” (Iwaniec, 2020, p. 331). This type of question aims to collect detailed data about the informants’ perceptions, provide “greater freedom of expression,” and allow nonanticipated views (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2009, p. 36). The following open-ended questions were developed:

- 1) What do you think of developing the status of English in Tunisian higher education?
- 2) In your view, how can the status of English in Tunisian higher education be promoted?
- 3) What do you think of using English as the medium of instruction at Tunisian universities?
- 4) In your opinion, what are the expected results of using English to teach courses at Tunisian universities?

In this research, four open-ended questions aim to investigate the nature of Tunisians’ attitudes towards promoting English: Do they have positive or negative attitudes towards developing a new language policy that gives greater importance to English? These questions are designed to elicit a wide range of responses, as the informants will respond in their own words.

4.1.7 Data Analysis Tools

Quantitative Analysis

To analyze the data obtained from the closed-ended questions of the questionnaire, the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used. It is considered “the most commonly used [tool] in applied linguistic and educational research” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 198). SPSS was employed to perform both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. Descriptive statistics involves mean, percentage, and standard deviation. Inferential statistics is used to examine the correlation between the statement variables and sociolinguistic variables (gender, age, and profession) using the non-parametric Spearman correlation test.

Qualitative Analysis

The CCM is used to analyze data from the open-ended questions (see Chapter 2, section 2.5 for more details).

4.2 Results and Analysis

Before embarking on the statistical analysis of the data, it is important to recall the aim of the questionnaire. This perception questionnaire aimed to collect data on the perceptions of Tunisian university tutors, researchers, and students of the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, and the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French in HE. The next section presents the results of the three constructs of the closed-ended questions.

4.2.1 Profile of the Respondents

The sample includes 100 respondents: 21 males and 79 females. Their ages range from 19 to 58. The respondents, who answered the questionnaire, are 24 tutors, 55 students, and 21 researchers. They are from various Tunisian universities and represent diverse research fields, including Arabic, Biology, Chemistry, Economics, English, French, Information Technology, and Mathematics. All the questionnaire respondents understand and speak French, but their English proficiency varies: 34 informants can understand English but cannot speak it, while the rest are divided between 27 informants who can understand, speak, and use English for professional purposes, and 39 informants who can use English in everyday conversations.

4.2.2 Results of the Closed-ended Questions

Frequency and Preference for Using English

The results show that the mean scores for the 15 statements in the first construct of the questionnaire on “the frequency and preference for using English” range from 2.55 to 3.65, indicating differences in responses across the three measurements (see Appendix E, Table 1). Notably, the mean scores for the usefulness measurement were rated higher than the others, frequency, and preference. It could be assumed that the respondents have different views underlying their perceptions.

Furthermore, the results reveal that the mean scores for the first five statements on the usefulness measurement are similar, ranging from 3.14 to 3.65, indicating no difference. It appears that the first statement “I think that learning English is useful” (Use of Eng. a) has the highest rate score, which may reflect a positive attitude towards English. However, the statement “It is useful if English becomes the most frequently used foreign language in Tunisia” (Use of Eng. c) has the lowest rate score (see Appendix E, Table 1). This suggests that the status of English in Tunisia remains uncertain, highlighting the lack of a clear strategy for its promotion.

It is also noted that the mean scores for the five statements on the frequency measurement range from 2.55 to 3.14. The statement “I frequently listen to music in English” (Use of Eng. h) received the highest rating as compared to the others. This finding suggests that listening to music in English is one of the most frequently used activities. Similarly, the mean scores for the five statements on the preference measurement range from 2.69 to 3.24. Although the difference is not large, it remains significant (see Appendix E, Table 1). The data indicates that watching movies in English (Use of Eng. d) is the most preferred activity, while reading books and articles in English (Use of Eng. b) is the least favored.

It is worth noting that activities such as listening to music, watching films, and reading books are rated highly, suggesting that these sources can significantly increase exposure to English and contribute to improving proficiency in this language. They appear to be practical ways for practicing English.

Additionally, the standard deviation values provide further insights. The statement “watching movies in English is useful” (Use of Eng. d) has the lowest standard deviation value, .5588, indicating that the responses are clustered around the mean score and the

respondents generally agree with the statement. In contrast, the statements “I frequently participate in online discussions (in weblogs, forums, etc.)” (Use of Eng. j) and “I prefer speaking English rather than French” (Use of Eng. k) received high standard deviation values of 1.01 and 1.10, respectively (see Appendix E, Table 1). This suggests that individual responses to these statements reflect differences in perception.

Having presented the overall mean scores and standard deviation values for the statements of the first construct of the questionnaire, the following section provides the results for each statement. It is worthwhile to examine these results in greater detail. The findings will be presented in the order in which the statements appeared in the questionnaire.

Table 4.2 presents the statistical results for the first five statements on the usefulness measurement:

Table 4.2

Results of the Statements on Usefulness

Usefulness					
	Use of Eng. a	Use of Eng. B	Use of Eng. c	Use of Eng. d	Use of Eng. e
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	1.0	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.4
2	0.4	0.6	0.12	0.3	0.10
3	0.24	0.39	0.35	0.41	0.44
4	0.71	0.55	0.44	0.56	0.42

As shown in the table above, the responses to the statement “I think that learning English is useful” (Use of Eng. a) indicate a favorable attitude. Most of the respondents agreed, with 24% agreeing and 71% strongly agreeing. However, nearly 5% disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement. Overall, the data reflects a generally positive attitude towards the usefulness of learning English. This could probably indicate that the respondents are aware of the importance of learning English for various reasons, which will be explored in the results of the second construct of the questionnaire.

As Table 4.2 clearly demonstrates, 39% of the respondents agreed, and 55% strongly agreed with the statement “reading books and articles in English is useful” (Use of Eng. b), whereas only 6% of the respondents disagreed. This indicates that the majority believe that

reading is useful in developing proficiency in English. Notably, the “strongly disagree” option was not selected and is not therefore included in the table.

Similarly, the results indicate that almost all the informants positively responded to the statement, “It is useful if English becomes the most frequently used foreign language in Tunisia” (Use of Eng. c). Notably, 35% agreed with the statement, and 44% strongly agreed. Although there is a general agreement, 9% strongly disagreed and 12% disagreed. These results reveal a positive attitude towards the increasing prominence of English in Tunisia and an interest in its broader use.

As illustrated in Table 4.2, nearly all respondents expressed a positive attitude towards the statement “watching movies in English is useful” (Use of Eng. d): 56% of them strongly agreed, and 41% agreed with the statement, while only 3% disagreed. This suggests that the respondents recognize the role of watching movies as an effective way to improve their proficiency in English and enhance their language skills.

In response to the statement, “writing emails and messages in English is useful” (Use of Eng. e), apparently the majority appears to agree, with 44% agreeing and 42% strongly agreeing. However, the remaining 14% of the sample disagreed with the statement (4% strongly disagree and 10% disagree). This result indicates that while most respondents view English as a tool for facilitating communication, a small percentage may not perceive its usefulness.

The results of the statements on the frequency measurement are presented in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3

Results of the Statements on Frequency

		Frequency			
	Use of Eng. f	Use of Eng. g	Use of Eng. h	Use of Eng. i	Use of Eng. j
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	8.0	11.0	8.0	14.0	17.0
2	21.0	34.0	15.0	13.0	33.0
3	51.0	41.0	32.0	43.0	28.0
4	20.0	14.0	45.0	30.0	22.0

Based on the results presented in Table 4.3, a large proportion of the sample considered speaking English with friends and colleagues to be a common practice (Use of Eng. f). There appears to be a common agreement among the respondents, with 51% strongly agreeing and 20% agreeing.

As shown in the table above, 14% of the respondents strongly agreed and 41% agreed with the statement, “I frequently read newspapers, magazines, and books in English” (Use of Eng. g), reflecting a considerable level of agreement. However, 34% of the respondents disagreed, and 11% strongly disagreed, suggesting that a significant portion of the sample does not frequently read newspapers, magazines, or books in English.

Similarly, the majority responded positively to the statement, “I frequently listen to music in English” (Use of Eng. h). Notably, 32% strongly agreed, and 45% agreed that they frequently listen to music in English. Nonetheless, 8% of the respondents strongly disagreed, and 15% disagreed with the statement, highlighting differences in the frequency of listening to English music.

The use of English on social networks was rated highly by most of the respondents: 30% strongly agreed with the statement, and 43% agreed, while 13% disagreed, and 14% strongly disagreed. These results indicate that most of the respondents have a positive perception of using English on social platforms.

Regarding the statement about participating in online discussions, the responses were evenly split: 50% agreed (22% strongly agree and 28% agree), while the other 50% disagreed (17% strongly disagree and 33% disagree). This equal distribution suggests that the use of English in online forums depends on individuals’ proficiency in the language and their ability to communicate effectively. Therefore, English is portrayed as an important language for practical purposes, including communication.

Table 4.4 summarizes the statistical results for the five statements on the preference measurement:

Table 4.4*Results of the Statements on Preference*

Rating Scale	Preference				
	Use of Eng. k Percent	Use of Eng. l Percent	Use of Eng. m Percent	Use of Eng. n Percent	Use of Eng. o Percent
1	17.0	9.0	7.0	7.0	10.0
2	27.0	35.0	5.0	20.0	9.0
3	22.0	34.0	45.0	41.0	36.0
4	34.0	22.0	43.0	32.0	45.0

As shown in Table 4.4, most respondents preferred “speaking English rather than French” (Use of Eng. k): 34% strongly agreed, and 22% agreed. However, 44% expressed disagreement. This disagreement may be explained by a lack of proficiency in English, which prevents the respondents from using the language.

In comparison with the results of the previous statement (Use of Eng. k), responses to the statement “I prefer reading books and articles in English” (Use of Eng. l) reveal a slightly different result: 34% strongly agree, and 22% agree. Similar to the previous statement, the lack of proficiency may explain the respondents’ disagreement. Moreover, the table above shows that roughly 85% of the respondents prefer watching movies in English (Use of Eng. m), while only 12% of the sample disagreed with this statement.

Considering the results presented above, it seems that an overwhelming majority of the respondents agreed with the statement, “I prefer writing messages and comments in English” (Use of Eng. n), with 30% strongly agreeing, and 41% agreeing. Moreover, the results show that most of the respondents were positive about listening to music in English, with 45% strongly agreeing and 36% agreeing. Only 19% of the respondents disagreed with the statement (10% strongly disagreed and 9% disagreed).

Reasons for Using English

The results of the respondents’ perceptions regarding the reasons for using English, including education, work, research, and communication, show that the mean scores range from 2,66 to 3,07, indicating a variation in the responses. Statements related to education and work

received a high rate, such as “I learn English to obtain high scores in English examinations, such as TOEFL and IELTS” (Reason c), “I learn English to get job opportunities abroad” (Reason e). The lowest mean score is attributed to the statement “I use English in presenting at conferences” (Reason j). The rest of the statements related to research (Reasons h, I, and j) and communication (Reasons k, l, m, and n), received roughly similar mean scores, except for the statement “I use English on social networks” (Reason m), which received a high mean score of 3,04 (see Appendix E, Table 2).

We can also observe that the standard deviation values for all statements are low. The statement “I learn English to get job opportunities abroad” (Reason e) received the lowest value, .8013 (see Appendix E, Table 2). This result indicates a correlation between individual responses and mean scores, suggesting that most respondents agreed with the statements.

After introducing the overall results of the second construct, an analysis of the statements is provided below, following the same order as they appear in the questionnaire: Statements on education (a, b, and c), statements on work (d, e, f, and g), statements on research (h, I, and j) and statements on communication (k, l, m, and n).

Table 4.5 presents the percentages for the three statements on education:

Table 4.5

Results of the Statements on Education

Education			
	Reason a	Reason b	Reason c
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	9.0	7.0	4.0
2	32.0	9.0	22.0
3	32.0	55.0	37.0
4	27.0	29.0	37.0

Based on the results, the most frequently mentioned reason is “I study English at university as a subject” (Reason b), which was rated high (55% agree and 29% strongly agree). The next highest rate is allotted to the statement “I learn English to obtain high scores in English examinations, such as TOEFL and IELTS” (Reason c) with 37% agreeing and 37% strongly

agreeing. However, the lowest rate is for using English to obtain a university degree, indicating that not all the respondents are students.

The percentages of statements regarding the use of English at work are presented in the following table:

Table 4.6
Results of the Statements on Work

Work				
	Reason d	Reason e	Reason f	Reason g
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	5.0	3.0	9.0	9.0
2	20.0	11.0	19.0	23.0
3	41.0	31.0	37.0	39.0
4	34.0	55.0	35.0	29.0

The results presented in Table 4.6 show that all statements related to work are considered important by the respondents. They generally responded favorably to the statements: “I learn English to get a better job in Tunisia” (Reason d), with 43% strongly agreeing and 45% agreeing; “I learn English to get job opportunities abroad” (Reason e), with 31% agree and 55% strongly agree, “I use English in my work” (Reason g), with 29% agreeing and 39% strongly agreeing. This suggests that the promotion of English is driven by the need for high proficiency in the language to access job opportunities. English language skills are thus immensely important for the job market.

Table 4.7 presents the respondents’ perceptions of the use of English for research purposes:

Table 4.7*Results of the Statements on Research*

		Research			
		Reason h		Reason i	Reason j
Rating Scale	Percent			Percent	Percent
1	9.0			10.0	10.0
2	35.0			34.0	38.0
3	34.0			32.0	28.0
4	22.0			24.0	24.0

The respondents rated the statements “I write my academic/scientific articles in English” (Reason h) and “I give presentations/lectures in English” (Reason i) the highest. The equal agreement with the statement Reason h (34% strongly agreed and 22% agreed) and with the statement Reason i (32% strongly agree and 24% agree) indicate that the major reason for promoting the position of English is to improve the language skills of tutors, researchers, and students, particularly for academic purposes.

It is also notable that the statements “I use English in presenting at conferences” (Reason j) and “I write my academic/ scientific articles in English” (Reason h) received the lowest rates. This suggests a problem faced by tutors, researchers, and students, as demonstrated by their lack of proficiency in English due to the absence of a clear strategy to promote the status of this language. It can be concluded that linguistic challenges represent a critical obstacle that prevents researchers and tutors from publishing and delivering presentations in English at conferences. Thus, the respondents’ perceptions highlight key issues: one concerns the insufficient academic English skills, and the other implicitly points to the gap between micro-level needs and macro-level policies.

Table 4.8 presents the results of the respondents’ perceptions of the use of English in communication:

Table 4.8*Results of the Statements on Communication*

Communication				
	Reason k	Reason l	Reason m	Reason n
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	8.0	7.0	6.0	9.0
2	21.0	24.0	17.0	26.0
3	38.0	42.0	44.0	41.0
4	33.0	27.0	33.0	24.0

As Table 4.8 illustrates, most respondents agreed positively with all statements on the use of English for communication purposes. Notably, the statement ‘I use English on social networks’ (Reason m) received the highest rate of agreement, with 44% agreeing, and 33% strongly agreeing. However, the statement ‘I use English in everyday communication’ (Reason n) had the lowest rate (41% agree and 24% strongly agree). One possible explanation for this finding is the widespread use of English among the younger generation, who communicates in English on social media platforms. It is important to consider the disagreement results, which indicate that insufficient proficiency level in English poses a barrier to communication for some respondents. Another possible explanation is the preference for Arabic in informal online discussions and everyday communication.

The next section presents the respondents’ perceptions of the roles of universities, the MHE, and the Tunisian government in promoting the status of the three languages: Arabic, French, and English.

The Promotion of English vs. Arabic and French in Tunisian Higher Education

The overall results for the third construct, which addresses the promotion of English, Arabic, and French, show that the mean scores for the statements range from 2.44 to 3.45, indicating variability in responses (see Appendix E, Table 3). Notably, the statements about the roles of both the Tunisian ministry and the government received higher mean scores than the other statements. This suggests that change may require directives from top-down decision-makers.

It is worth noting that most statements about Arabic and French received lower scores than those concerning English. For example, the first two statements “university courses and exams should be conducted in Arabic” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. a) and “French should remain the language of instruction for university courses and exams” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. b) received a rating of 2.44, whereas the statement about using English as the language of courses and exams was rated 3.34 (see Appendix E, Table 3).

Similar to the results of the second construct, the standard deviation values for the statements of the third construct are low, ranging from .5752 to .9477 (see Appendix E, Table 3). This suggests that the responses are closely clustered around the mean scores. We can note that the statement “The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should encourage tutors’ and students’ exchange programs” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. p) has the lowest value, indicating strong consensus among respondents. This also implies that the respondents agree on the importance of mobility in promoting proficiency in the three languages.

Having seen the overall mean scores and standard deviation values for the statements of the third construct on “the promotion of the status of English vs. Arabic and French,” the next sub-section presents an analysis of each statement.

Table 4.9 lists the percentages for the statements addressing the attitudes towards the languages of instruction in Tunisian HE:

Table 4.9

Results of the Statements on the Languages of Instruction

Languages of instruction: Arabic, French, English				
	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr a	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr b	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr c	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr d
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	17.0	13.0	5.0	3.0
2	35.0	48.0	7.0	5.0
3	35.0	21.0	37.0	45.0
4	13.0	18.0	51.0	47.0

The results show that 61% of the respondents disagreed with the statement, “University courses and exams should be conducted in Arabic” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. a) and 52% disagreed with the statement, “French should remain the language of instruction for

university courses and exams” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. b). It is clear that most of the respondents favor the use of English as the language of instruction. The fourth statement, “University courses should be taught in English rather than French” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. d), elicits a clear response, with 92% agreeing that courses should be taught in English instead of French. This result is surprising, as it indicates a notable shift away from the dominance of French towards the promotion of English. It reflects the voices of local agents (tutors, researchers, and students) who have a pressing need to enhance their English language proficiency.

Table 4.10 presents the percentages for the statements on the role of clubs in promoting the status of Arabic, French, and English:

Table 4.10

Results of the Statements on the Role of Clubs

		Clubs		
		Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr e	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr f	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr g
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	6.0	11.0	5.0	
2	23.0	16.0	7.0	
3	45.0	45.0	37.0	
4	26.0	28.0	51.0	

The results demonstrate that the respondents mostly perceive organizing clubs to promote the status of English positively, with 37% agreeing and 51% strongly agreeing. Additionally, 12% disagreed with the statement. It is also notable that roughly 71% of the respondents prefer Arabic, while 73% prefer French. Interestingly, it is important to note that these percentages are nearly similar, which likely reflects the importance of the three languages in the linguistic situation of Tunisia. Another possible explanation relates to language-related tensions in higher education, where three perspectives coexist: The protection of Arabic, the preservation of French, and the promotion of English.

The results of the perceptions on the role of training in enhancing the status of the three languages are displayed in Table 4.11:

Table 4.11*Results of the Statements on the Role of Organizing Training*

Training						
Rating Scale	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr h Percent	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr i Percent	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr j Percent	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr k Percent	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr l Percent	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr m Percent
1	7.0	8.0	7.0	7.0	3.0	1.0
2	29.0	16.0	25.0	25.0	5.0	3.0
3	37.0	49.0	42.0	40.0	45.0	50.0
4	27.0	27.0	26.0	28.0	47.0	46.0

The results shown in Table 4.11 suggest that the respondents have a similar attitude towards organizing training sessions in Arabic (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. h and i) and French (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. j and k) for both tutors and students. 64% of the respondents agreed with organizing training in Arabic, and 68% agreed with organizing training in French. Organizing training in English for both tutors and students also received high percentages, 92% and 96%, respectively. Similar to the previous findings on creating university clubs to develop proficiency in Arabic, French, and English, the respondents demonstrate a positive attitude towards the role of training in enhancing their proficiency in these three languages. This is quite understandable given the rivalry between Arabic and French, on the one hand, and French and English, on the other hand. Interestingly, this rivalry is reflected in the responses, which are divided into three voices.

The respondents' perceptions of developing cooperation to promote the status of the three languages are presented in Table 4.12:

Table 4.12*Results of the Statements on Encouraging International Cooperation*

Cooperation			
	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr n	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr o	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr p
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	1.0	2.0	0.0
2	7.0	5.0	4.0
3	51.0	51.0	47.0
4	41.0	42.0	49.0

As shown in Table 4.12, the three statements about the role of the Tunisian MHE in encouraging cooperation to promote the status of Arabic, French, and English received high rates of agreement 92%, 93% and 96%, respectively. These results indicate that the respondents support the promotion of these languages. It is evident that they favor the coexistence of the three languages, which can be used simultaneously. This finding may suggest that multilingualism is a goal to be pursued.

Table 4.13 presents the results of the statements on the role of the Tunisian government in promoting the status of Arabic, French, and English:

Table 4.13*Results of the Statements on the Role of the Government to Promote the Status of Languages*

The role of the government						
	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr q	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr r	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr s	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr t	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr u	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr v
Rating Scale	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent	Percent
1	4.0	9.0	3.0	2.0	7.0	1.0
2	10.0	19.0	4.0	12.0	17.0	6.0
3	43.0	38.0	49.0	47.0	49.0	44.0
4	43.0	34.0	44.0	39.0	27.0	49.0

As indicated in Table 4.13, most respondents agreed with the statement regarding the promotion of English, with 49% agreeing and 44% strongly agreeing. The promotion of Arabic was also rated high, with 43% agreeing and 43% strongly agreeing. Surprisingly, the promotion of French received a lower level of agreement, with 38% agreeing and 34% strongly agreeing, compared to both English and Arabic. This suggests that the respondents favor the promotion of English and the protection of Arabic. They recognize the importance of these two languages: English is considered essential for the development of education and academic research, while Arabic symbolizes national identity. It is important to note, however, that this result contradicts the previous statement, which reflects a positive attitude towards encouraging cooperation with France to promote the French language.

In addition to conducting descriptive statistics to analyze the data from the closed-ended questions, the following sub-section presents the results of inferential statistics. These results show the correlation between statement variables and sociolinguistic variables, gender, age, and profession, using the non-parametric Spearman correlation test.

Correlation Analysis

To understand the relationships among variables, the non-parametric Spearman correlation test was used. Some hypotheses were developed. It was expected that there would be a correlation between gender and the statement variables, hypothesizing that female respondents are generally more positive towards promoting the status of languages, particularly English, than males. Additionally, it was expected that age would significantly correlate with the statement variables, as older people (tutors and researchers) are more aware of the importance of English than students, given the need for this language in their research. Furthermore, it was hypothesized that profession could correlate with the statement variables, especially those related to the use of English in academic research since these people require proficiency in English to write academic articles and present their research at conferences.

It is worth noting that, surprisingly, the relationship between the variable “gender” and all statement variables of the three constructs of the questionnaire revealed no significant correlation. This finding contradicts the hypothesis, which claimed that Tunisian female university tutors, researchers, and students would have a positive attitude towards the promotion of English than males. This suggests that females and males have similar responses.

The Spearman correlation test was also computed to assess the correlation between the variable “age” and the statement variables, expecting that older respondents would have more positive attitudes towards the promotion of the status of English and its use as the language of instruction. Based on the results, only one correlation was found between the variable age and the statement variables: “I frequently listen to music in English” (Use of Eng. h), “I prefer listening to music in English” (Use of Eng. o), “I learn English to obtain a university degree” (Reason a), “I use English in writing emails” (Reason k), “I use English in social networks” (Reason m), and “The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university tutors” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. j).

Moreover, the Spearman correlation test was used to assess the correlation between the profession variable and the statement variables. This analysis was conducted intentionally to determine which higher education category is more supportive of promoting English. The results reveal a significant correlation between the variable profession and the statement variable “I teach English at university” (Reason f). These findings are presented in the following sub-section.

Results of the Correlation between the Variable Age and the Statement Variables

Frequency and Preference for Using English

Table 4.14 displays the results of the Spearman correlation test between the variable “age” and the statement variables (Use of Eng. h) and (Use of Eng. o):

Table 4.14

Results of the Spearman Correlation Test for the Variable Age and the Statement Variables (Use of Eng. h) and (Use of Eng. o)

Statement variable	Age	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
-I frequently listen to music in English' (Use of Eng. h)	-.211	.036
-I prefer listening to music in English' (Use of Eng. o)	-.203	.042

The negative values presented in Table 4.14 indicate a negative relationship between the variable age and the statement variables “I frequently listen to music in English” (Use of Eng. h) and “I prefer listening to music in English” (Use of Eng. o). This reveals an inverse relationship between the variables, meaning that when one variable increases, the other variable decreases and vice versa.

As presented in Table 4.14, the Pearson correlation coefficient shows a statistically significant correlation between the variable age and the statement variable “I frequently listen to music in English” (Use of Eng. h) since the p-value .36 is less than the significance level $<.05$. The results also reveal that the variable age significantly correlates with the statement variable “I prefer listening to music in English” (Use of Eng. o), $r (-.203) = .42, p < .05$.

These results suggest that the null hypothesis is incorrect and should be rejected, and we should accept the alternative hypothesis. It is important to examine the findings from these two statement variables regarding the respondents’ perceptions of listening to music. The descriptive results presented above (see section 4.2.2, Tables 4.3 and 4.4) show that the two statement variables received high agreement rates of 77% and 81% agreeing, respectively. Interestingly, most of the respondents positively agreed that listening to music in English is a frequently practiced activity. This result was unexpected, as the researcher thought that only young people (students) would prefer listening to music.

Reasons for Using English

The results of the Spearman correlation test between the variable age and the statement variables “I learn English to obtain a university degree” (Reason a), “I use English in writing emails” (Reason k), and “I use English in social networks” (Reason m) are presented in Table 4.15:

Table 4.15

Results of the Spearman Correlation Test for the Variable Age and the Three Statement Variables (a, k, m) of the construct “Reasons for Using English”

Statement variable	Age	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
-‘I learn English to obtain a university degree’	-.208	.038
-‘I use English in writing emails’	-.208	.037
-‘I use English in social networks’	-.245	.014

The result shows a negative relationship between the variable “age,” and the statement variables “I learn English to obtain a university degree” (Reason a), “I use English in writing emails’ (Reason k) and “I use English in social networks” (Reason m). A negative

relationship means that the variables change/move in opposite directions. This suggests that as the variable “age” decreases, the statement variables increase, and vice versa.

Moreover, the results presented in Table 4.15 reveal a significant correlation between the variable age and the statement variable “I learn English to obtain a university degree” (Reason a) since the p-value 0.38 is less than the significance level $<.05$. The Pearson correlation coefficient analysis also indicates a correlation between the variables “age” and “I use English in writing emails” (Reason k): p-value 0.37 $<.05$. Additionally, a significant correlation was found between the variables “age” and “I use English on social networks” (Reason m), as the p-value 0.14 is less than the significance level $<.05$.

It is worth noting that it was expected that additional reasons, such as seeking job opportunities abroad, writing academic/scientific articles, and writing emails, would correlate with the age variable. The hypothesis was that both tutors and researchers (older people) use English for research purposes more than students. However, the findings demonstrate a correlation only between the variable age and the three statement variables (Reasons of Eng. a, k, and m), and therefore the null hypothesis can be rejected.

Promotion of English vs. Arabic and French in Tunisian Higher Education

The results of the correlation test between the variable age and the statement variable “The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university tutors” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. j) are presented in Table 4.16:

Table 4.16

Results of the Spearman Correlation test for the Variable Age and the Statement Variable on Organizing Training in French for Tutors

Statement variable	Age	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
-The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university tutors.	-.204	.014

As illustrated in the table above, there is a negative relationship between the two variables “age” and “The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university tutors” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. j). This finding indicates that the variables change in opposite directions. If we look at the descriptive statistics results (see

section 4.2.2 above), 68% of the respondents, including tutors, researchers, and students, agreed with this statement. One possible explanation is that age did not affect the responses.

As presented in Table 4.16, the Spearman correlation results indicate that there is a significant correlation between the variable age and the statement variable “The Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education should organize training in French for university tutors” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. j), (-.204) since the p-value ($0.14 < .05$) is smaller than the significance level of $< .05$. The results suggest that the respondents across age groups have similar views.

Results of the Correlation between the Variable Profession and the Statement Variables

Reasons for Using English

Table 4.17 presents the results of the Spearman correlation test between the variable “profession” and the statement variable “I teach English at university” (Reason f):

Table 4.17

Result of the Spearman Correlation Test for the Variable Profession and the Statement Variable “I teach English at university”

Statement variable	Profession	
	Correlation Coefficient	Sig. (2-tailed)
-‘I teach English at university’	-.203	.042

Similar to the results presented above for the variable “age,” we also observe a negative relationship between the variable “profession” and the item variable “I teach English at university” (Reason f) $r (-.203)$. This indicates an inverse relationship between the variables, suggesting that not all the respondents are tutors of English.

The Pearson correlation coefficient analysis shows a p-value of 0.42, which is smaller than the significance level of $< .05$, indicating a significant relationship between these variables. Interestingly, this finding contradicts my hypothesis, which claimed that other factors, such as data searching, communication, and job opportunities, might correlate with the variable profession. It was expected that students, for example, use English on social networks more than tutors and researchers.

5.2.3 Results of the Open-ended Questions

Initial Coding of the Open-ended Questions Data

The initial step is to code the data by breaking down the quotations into smaller segments. Table 4.18 illustrates an example of line-by-line coding of the open-ended questions data. Several words that may represent potential codes are highlighted.

Table 4.18

Initial Coding of the Open-ended Questions Data

Codes	Examples
-I do not like English -The Arabic language must be strengthened	1) “I do not like English . The position of the Arabic language must be strengthened in all fields to preserve identity” (Resp't 65, p.1, my English translation).
-Worship the French language	2) “Not very good. We still worship the French language ” (Resp't 42, p. 1, my English translation).
-Improve the status of English -Clubs -Using English to teach	3) “In my opinion, we can improve the status of English by organizing effective clubs and encouraging students to use this language, besides using English to teach some subjects, mainly scientific subjects” (Resp't 37, p. 2, my English translation).

As presented in Table 4.18, several ideas are highlighted that address various topics. The first quote is an argument against promoting the status of English. The second quote implies the dominant role of French, while the third quote suggests ways to promote English, such as organizing clubs and using English as the language of instruction. These highlighted ideas will be developed into codes and categorized into specific groups.

Code Identification from the Open-ended Questions Data

As illustrated in Table 4.19, this stage involves identifying codes from the coding of data obtained from the open-ended questions:

Table 4.19*Code Identification from the Open-ended Questions Data*

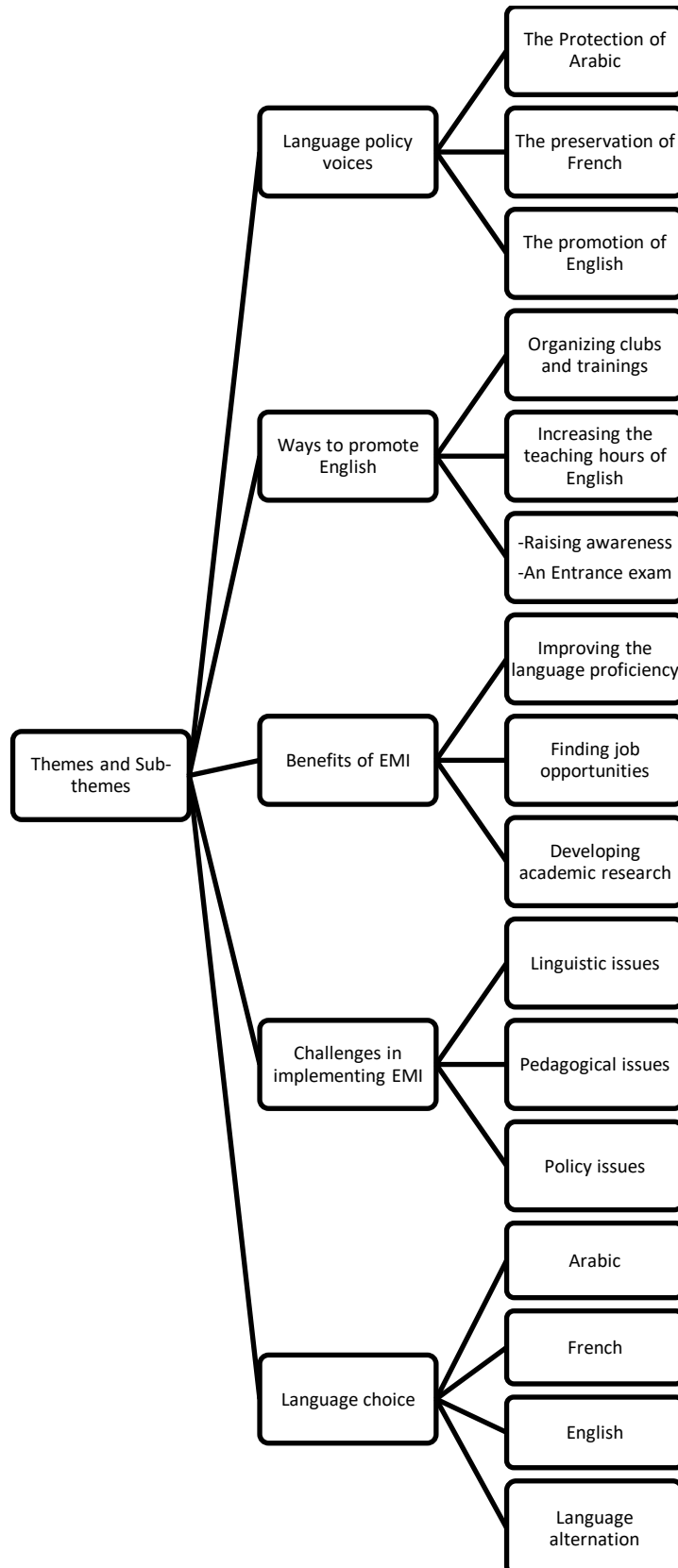
Codes	Examples
-Develop scientific research	“I am for this decision to develop scientific research in Tunisia and find job opportunities abroad” (Resp't 32, p. 5, English original).
-Writing scientific articles, participating at conferences, joining international research projects	“For me, the English language is becoming more and more important in the Tunisian education system, more specifically in higher education. It is very useful to have a good level of English to easily read and write scientific articles , participate in conferences or take part in international research projects ” (Resp't 43, p. 5, English original).
-Research opportunities	“The results will be very beneficial, there will be more study and research opportunities , more work opportunities, more open horizons” (Resp't 13, p. 5, my English translation) ⁸ .

The codes identified from the quotes are then grouped into themes and sub-themes. The data displayed in Table 4.19 shows that these codes are related to each other and they belong to a same sub-theme, “developing academic research.”

Theme Identification from the Open-ended Questions Data

Based on the coding process of the open-ended questions data, several themes and sub-themes were identified, as illustrated in Figure 4.2:

⁸ The original quotes of the open-ended questions data are in Appendix F.

Figure 4.2*Identified Themes and Sub-themes from the Open-ended Questions Data*

As Figure 4.2 indicates, there are five themes: 1) LP voices, 2) ways to promote English, 3) the benefits of using EMI, 4) challenges in implementing EMI, and 5) language choice. Each theme has several sub-themes.

Perceptions of Developing the Status of English in Tunisian Higher Education

As shown in Figure 4.2 above, three main sub-themes are identified under the theme of “language policy voices”: The protection of Arabic, the preservation of French, and the promotion of English.

Analysis of the Themes and Sub-themes

The Protection of Arabic

36 out of 100 respondents support protecting the Arabic language as a symbol of Tunisian national identity. This view is illustrated by the following two representative quotes, which show the use of negation “I do not like English. The position of the Arabic language must be strengthened in all fields to preserve identity” (Resp't 65, p.1, my English translation), “I do not think that the English language is important because the mother tongue is Arabic” (Resp't 45, p.1, my English translation). The frequent use of the Arabic particle “laa” (no) in these quotes, which negates an imperfective indicative (used with the present tense), is employed to avoid the risk of devaluing Arabic. The respondents viewed English as a threat to Arabic, as exemplified by this quote: “In my opinion, English cannot be adopted as a language of instruction because our mother tongue must be preserved and not neglected” (Resp't 47, p.1, my English translation). The results indicate that the respondents oppose promoting the position of English.

The Preservation of French

23 out of 100 respondents emphasize the importance of French in HE. Respondent 87 stated in the following quote that the Tunisian government disfavors the promotion of English, arguing that it has a strong commitment to preserving the French language and maintaining its dominant status: “Despite the development of the status of English among the students circles and even normal people, it is not welcome by the Tunisian government which remains committed to the French language as the language of science in Tunisia” (Resp't 87, p. 1, English original). The quote uses the expression “normal people” to perhaps refer to people who are not students, including parents, showing the widespread use of English. We can also observe that the promotion of English is a fact, but it faces obstacles. Thus, the quote reflects

that French is deeply rooted in the Tunisian HE context as a second language, implicitly highlighting the mismatch between students' needs for English and the government's policies.

Interestingly, respondent 42 used the religious metaphor “worship” to depict the dominant status of French: “Not very good. We still worship the French language” (Resp't 42, p.1, my English translation). This suggests that French holds a sacred status in Tunisia and should remain the dominant language. Additionally, the quote is marked by the use of the inclusive pronoun “we,” which introduces some ambiguity. It is unclear to whom the respondent is referring, possibly the Tunisian government, as mentioned in the previous quote, or policymakers, and others who have the power to make changes.

The Promotion of English

A third voice acknowledges the promotion of English. 41 respondents recognized the importance of improving English proficiency, emphasizing its role in academic research as an internationalization strategy. English is viewed as a booster for participation in a globalized world, as illustrated by the following quotes: “It’s a good idea to improve the quality of education in Tunisia” (Resp't 3, p. 2, English original); “The development of the English language in Tunisian higher education seems to be very beneficial as it enables openness to the various sciences and literature written in English” (Resp't 9, p. 2, English original).

Perhaps for many, the status of the English language has not developed in Tunisian higher education, but what I see is the opposite. English dominates the field of research. All research fellowship opportunities require mastery of this language in reading, writing and speaking. (Resp't 22, p. 2, English original)

This voice is clearly identified by the frequent use of evaluative adjectives and verbs, such as “useful, good, improve, positive, beneficial, and opportunities.” This suggests that the initiative to enhance the status of English is due to globalization and internationalization. The respondents grounded their argument on the idea that promoting the status of English is important for the Tunisian educational system, thereby improving the quality of teaching. Additionally, English is essential for graduates to find opportunities abroad.

For some respondents, the promotion of English represents a source of hope, as illustrated by the following quotes: “I hope this is so that we can improve our level in this language and benefit from it” (Resp't 19, p. 2, my English translation); “I hope so because English is the language of the world and it must be mastered” (Resp't 23, p. 2, my English

translation); “I hope so to enhance our abilities in this language” (Resp't 28, p. 2, my English translation). To express hope, respondents 19, 23, and 28 used two verbs of wishes, *أمل* and *أتمنى*, in the present tense to state fulfilled wishes. This highlights their positive interest in developing their English language proficiency.

It is worth noting that the three LP voices reflect the tension among the three languages, Arabic, French, and English, in HE. These languages appear to be competing for a dominant position. The perception of English as a threat to French may partly explain the absence of a discourse promoting its status. These perspectives also highlight the complexity of the language situation in Tunisia.

Ways to Promote the Status of the English Language

The respondents proposed several practical ways to promote the status of English, which are discussed below.

Organization of Training and University Clubs

The data reveals that the most recurring sub-themes involve encouraging the organization of training sessions and university clubs, as illustrated by this representative quote: “In my opinion, we can improve the status of English by organizing effective clubs and encouraging students to use this language, besides using English to teach some subjects, mainly scientific subjects” (Resp't 37, p. 2, my English translation). The use of the inclusive pronoun “we” indicates that promoting the status of English is a shared responsibility. The respondents believe that clubs and training sessions provide effective opportunities to practice English and help students develop their proficiency.

Increasing English Teaching Hours

Another coded sub-theme is the increase in English teaching hours. In the following quotes, the respondents recurrently used the auxiliary modals (les auxiliaires modaux) “faut” (falloir) and “doit” (devoir), which are “must” in English: “They must increase the teaching hours devoted to English” (Resp't 76, p. 3, my English translation); “We must start by increasing the time devoted to English sessions” (Resp't 98, p. 3, my English translation). Both auxiliary modals show obligation, but they differ in the degree of obligation. “Faut” (falloir) conveys formal order (la prescription), whereas “doit” (devoir) expresses probability and means “supposed to.” It seems that there are different levels of modality used to express the

respondents' opinions on the degree of obligation. It becomes necessary to revise the teaching time devoted to English and intensify the presence of English in the curricula.

Based on the following quote, several measures can be taken to promote the status of English. These include increasing English teaching hours and raising students' awareness of the importance of reading English books and articles.

It is important to place the English language in a privileged place, orienting good students towards this language, organizing English test sessions and encouraging students to participate in these sessions, organizing competitions, encouraging students to read articles and scientific books in English. (Resp't 39, p. 3, English original)

Interestingly, respondent 39 shed light on an important point regarding the requirements for students to be accepted to study English at universities, suggesting the organization of an entrance exam. This decision should be taken by the Tunisian MHE to improve the proficiency level of graduates from English departments.

Benefits of EMI

The results of the study demonstrate that 45 respondents generally showed a positive attitude towards the use of EMI in Tunisian HE. Several sub-themes emerged under this category, including improving students' language proficiency, finding job opportunities, and developing academic research.

Improving the proficiency level of students in English is one of the most heavily coded sub-themes in the analysis of the informants' responses, as illustrated by this quote: "I am for the use of the English language at Tunisian universities as an official subject to improve the level of students" (Resp't 33, p. 5, my English translation). Most respondents agreed that promoting the position of English could enhance students' English language competence, including their communication skills, as reflected in this quote: "People would understand and be able to communicate more effectively with this language and be more open on other cultures such as the British, American and Canadian" (Resp't 46, p. 5, English original). The use of positive terms, such as "improve," and "open" supports the strategic objectives of the EMI policy.

Another sub-theme, evident in most responses, is *finding job opportunities*. According to respondent 44, proficiency in English can help Tunisian graduates find better job

opportunities and advance their career: “that will help people not only with the language itself but also with finding a job. Improving our English can help us find job opportunities abroad” (Resp't 44, p. 5, my English translation).

The following quote presents another positive argument for promoting the status of English, as the respondent compares the result to “the paradises of Phoenix.” It is a myth about the Phoenix bird, which symbolizes hope, rebirth, and immortality. This positive metaphor implies that enhancing the status of English is a key solution to various issues, such as unemployment. English is viewed as a tool that enables to pursue further studies abroad because most of entrance exams are conducted in this language.

I think if Tunisia takes this decision into consideration, we will be walking towards never ending paradises of Phoenix. Even before entering to universities abroad, they ask you to pass an entry exam which includes surely English, Maths in English and Cultural questions in English. I hope Tunisia will opt for this decision not only for us but for the next unborn generations. (Resp't 35, p. 6, English original)

It appears that developing English-language education in Tunisian HE institutions provides students with high-quality education and enhances their competitiveness in the international market. Consequently, this can lead to the recognition of the Tunisian universities at the international level, which is another notable benefit. The responses indicate that English holds a clear instrumental value for graduates in their intended careers. This also reflects a growing awareness of the importance of English in the job market.

Findings from the responses also reveal that *developing academic research* is another prominent sub-theme among the informants. One illustrative quote from the responses states that “the use of the English language as a language of instruction can contribute to the development of scientific research because it is the necessary language for publications, conferences” (Resp't 32, p. 5, English original). Based on this response, English is associated with academic success as demonstrated by the use of positive wording “contribute,” “development,” and “necessary.” It seems clear that proficiency in English is a prerequisite for good academic and career prospects. Implementing English as the language of instruction is viewed as a means to internationalize HE and prepare students for participation in the global academic community. Therefore, EMI is a positive step towards the internationalization of Tunisian HE.

Challenges in Implementing EMI

Although EMI is perceived positively, a counterintuitive finding reveals several challenges that may hinder its implementation. Three main sub-themes emerged under the theme of “challenges”: linguistic issues, pedagogical challenges, and policy-related issues.

Linguistic Issues

The main issue identified from the responses of 78 informants is the lack of proficiency in English. This is clearly illustrated by the selected quote, which highlights a “linguistic challenge” demonstrated by the limited language skills of both tutors and students: “I think the first challenge is the linguistic challenge, which is the lack of proficiency of both tutors and learners in the English language” (Resp't 93, p. 7, my English translation). The emphasis on linguistic issues is conveyed through the repeated use of the word “challenge.” There is a need for tutors to enhance their language competence. Another notable challenge is students’ limited English proficiency, who may struggle to understand basic concepts when learning content subjects in English.

Pedagogical Issues

A sub-theme identified by 23 informants is “pedagogical issues,” particularly the lack of qualified tutors. Respondent 24 stated, “There will be pedagogic problems which will affect the way of transferring knowledge, but with well-trained tutors, it will be positive results, especially in the academic field because all scientific publications are in English” (p.7, English original). This quote highlights the effect of pedagogical challenges on students’ performance and comprehension. These challenges include the absence of tutors, who have the skills to support students and researchers in developing academic writing and publishing abilities.

An additional sub-theme raised by 18 informants is the lack of English-language teaching resources. Respondent 29 depicted the situation of teaching English in Tunisia as “disastrous,” attributing this to several factors: “the situation is disastrous for the English language in higher education, and there will be no development since the curricula and subjects are taught in French” (p. 7, English original). The respondent argued that teaching resources are in French, making it impossible to change the language of instruction in HE. The lack of adequate resources also negatively affects students’ learning outcomes and, consequently, leads to linguistic challenges.

Language Policy Issues

64 respondents identified an additional issue concerning the dominance of the French language. The following quote is marked by the frequent use of negation, exemplified by the phrases: “It is not possible” and “no way.” This highlights the challenges of implementing the EMI policy because the educational system is based on the French system, as reported in this quote: “It is not possible to use English as a language of instruction because all teaching materials are in French, even the teaching system is French” (Resp't 59, p. 7, my English translation).

Respondent 35 also highlighted the dominant status of French, the second language of the country, and the real political commitment to preserving it: “French is the second language, and the government and the ministry are still sticking to it” (Resp't 35, p. 7, English original). This situation can be seen as a language policy issue, reflecting the Francophone ideology that actively works to preserve French and prevents the promotion of English, which is perceived as a threat to its status.

Language Choice

We can deduce from the open-ended questions data the various uses of language choice. The most prominent linguistic code is Arabic, as it is the language of the questionnaire; however, there are many instances of French and English as well. Interestingly, some respondents answered one question in Arabic and then switched to English or French for the subsequent questions. For example, respondent 2 used Arabic to answer the first question and French to answer the second question.

1) Despite the development of the status of the English language among students and even colloquial circles, and students' preference for using the latter as a second language, it is not welcomed by the Tunisian government, which remains committed to French as the language of science in Tunisia (Resp't 2, p. 5, my English translation)

2) Training/ increasing the teaching hours devoted to English (Resp't 2, p. 2, my English translation).

It is possible to conclude that this choice reflects a specific preference for different languages. The situation may also be interpreted as a tension between these languages. This

interpretation resonates with the findings of Theme 1, which reveal the presence of three LP voices.

An analysis of the original version of the following quote (see Appendix F) shows a balanced emphasis on French and Arabic, neglecting the importance of English: “The English language is not as important as French and Arabic” (Resp't 12, p. 1, my English translation). This hierarchical linguistic structure, which positions one language over another, gives a privileged position to French as the preferred language.

This chapter presented the methodology and results of the perception questionnaire. The findings revealed several interesting points, including the tension among the three languages, Arabic, French, and English, and the mismatch between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs. Moreover, the informants suggested ways to promote the status of English, which can be classified into two groups, namely short-term solutions (organizing clubs and training sessions and increasing English teaching hours) and long-term solutions (using English as the language of instruction). These points will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Chapter 5. Interviews

The previous chapter reported the results of the perception questionnaire. This chapter continues with Tunisian professors' attitudes towards language use, the status of Arabic, French, and English, the LP discourse, and the promotion of the status of the three languages. It introduces the methodology, which includes the definition of an interview, the rationale for using it, and its limitations. It provides a description of the development of the interview schedule and the validation process. What follows are the results of the language use and the perception parts of the interview. The chapter ends with some concluding comments.

5.1 Methodology

5.1.1 Interview: Definition and Rationale

An interview is a qualitative research tool used for studies investigating individuals' experiences, beliefs, perceptions, or constructions of a particular phenomenon (Braun & Clarke, 2013). McNamara (1999, p. 1) clearly states that: "interviews are particularly useful for getting the story behind a participant's experiences." This indicates that this qualitative method goes beyond merely describing the observed behaviours and phenomena and provides an in-depth understanding of implicit meanings.

Following McNamara's (1999) argument, in this research, the interview is used as a follow-up to other research tools, namely the observations and the questionnaires, to collect in-depth information about the investigated topics. In other words, data from the interview is used for triangulation purposes (Heller, 1999, as cited in Codó, 2009, p. 162).

In this dissertation, an interview schedule that comprises a list of questions was applied to collect data on informants' behaviours and perceptions regarding language use and the status of Arabic, French, and English in a systematic manner and to ensure consistency in responses. More specifically, face-to-face interviews were used to explain the purpose of the study, clarify questions, address misunderstandings, and ask follow-up questions. Face-to-face interviews also enable us to pay more attention to non-verbal behaviours.

5.1.2 Limitations

Interviews have several limitations. Codó (2009) highlights the issue of the "truth," suggesting that informants' responses may differ from their actual opinions. He further explains that "untrue" responses may affect the results and lead to inaccurate conclusions.

Codó (2009) also notes that interview data is not representative as compared to quantitative research because of small sample sizes.

Roulston et al. (2003, p. 643) point to another limitation related to the effect of inexperienced interviewers in dealing with unexpected participant behaviours and in constructing and delivering questions. Latvala et al. (2000) shed light on the limitation of reporting behaviours due to the inability of novice researchers to detect certain behaviours. Therefore, respondents may portray an ideal way of behaving that differs from their day-to-day lives (p. 1258).

5.1.3 Development of the Interview Schedule

The development of the interview schedule follows the methodology outlined by Maykut and Morehouse (1994), as listed in the following points:

- 1) Main inquiry of the interview
- 2) Brainstorming
- 3) Analyzing the brainstorm for similarities/ putting ideas into groups
- 4) Decide which categories of enquiry to include in the interview
- 5) Decide whether to develop an interview guide or an interview schedule
- 6) Prepare the draft of the interview guide or schedule

The researcher started with the main inquiry of the interview by developing a set of ideas, questions, and topics. The choice of topics and questions is based on my personal knowledge and previous studies (Boukadi, 2013; Aouina, 2013). Subsequently, these ideas were grouped into categories, and open-ended questions were developed for each category. For example, part A of the perception section of the interview (see Appendix G) focuses on tutors' attitudes towards Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and the current debate. This part has three questions about the changes in TEFL in Tunisian HE, expected future changes that can happen in the future, and the current debate over language policies in Tunisia, including the promotion of Arabic, French, and English.

In developing the interview schedule, McNamara's (1999) recommendations were followed, which include these elements: (a) wording should be open-ended (respondents should be able to choose their own terms when answering questions); (b) questions should be as neutral as possible (avoid wording that might influence answers, e.g., evocative,

judgmental wording); (c) questions should be asked one at a time; and (d) questions should be worded clearly (this includes knowing any terms particular to the program or the respondents' culture).

Therefore, questions are categorized thematically. The interview schedule begins with an introductory question to gather background information. Subsequently, content questions are designed to explore informants' behaviours and perceptions. The interview concludes with closing questions. In formulating the questions, complex terminology and expressions were avoided to ensure clarity.

Most of the interview questions are Wh-questions aimed to elicit the interviewees' personal perceptions. For example, questions such as "what further changes in TEFL policy do you expect?" and "according to you, what would be the changes that need to be made by the Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education regarding English language policy?" seek their suggestions.

The language of the interview is MSA, the native language of the informants, to ensure clarity and minimize any potential language problem. Although it was initially planned to use MSA, the interviewed professors preferred to respond in Tunisian Arabic because it is more practical.

5.1.4 The Validation Process of the Interview Schedule

Expert Judgment

The validation process for the interview involved expert judgment. The supervisors reviewed and evaluated the interview content. Based on their recommendations, additional questions were added to the first part on language use to ascertain which languages Tunisian professors use in various contexts. These include: "Which language(s) do you usually use at your office? and why?", "which language(s) do you usually use at the university corridors? and why?", "which language(s) do you usually use in writing your emails? and why?"

Other questions were also added to the second part of the interview on perceptions to avoid bias and ensure that the interview considers not only English but also Arabic and French. These adjustments aimed to obtain a panoramic view of how Tunisian university professors perceive the status of English and the other languages:

-What do you think of arranging training sessions for both tutors and students to promote the Arabic language at universities?

-What do you think of arranging training sessions for both tutors and students to promote the French language at universities?

-According to you, what would be the changes that need to be made by the Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education regarding the promotion of the status of Arabic?

-According to you, what would be the changes that need to be made by the Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education regarding the promotion of the status of French?

Questions that appeared too general were reformulated to be specific. For example, the question “what do you think of the current language policies in Tunisia?” was reworded as “what do you think of the political discourse today about language policies?” Leading questions were also reworded. The question “what do you think of the changes in TEFL that have taken place in Tunisian higher education?” was reformulated into specific questions, such as “what do you think of teaching English for specific purposes at universities to develop students’ proficiency in English?” and “what further changes in TEFL policy do you expect?”

Piloting the Interview Schedule

The Arabic version of the interview schedule was piloted with three professors of the target population and some changes were implemented accordingly. The pilot study identified issues with specific terms. In particular, the terms “teaching” and “lecturing” were used in the questions “what language(s) do you usually use in teaching in general?” and “what language(s) do you usually use in lecturing?” appeared to be ambiguous due to their similar phrasing in Arabic. Consequently, the wording was revised to clarify the difference between these terms; “تدريس” was used to denote “teaching” and “يحاضر” was employed for “lecturing.”

The question “which current debate about language policy are you in favor of? and why? (Arabization, the preservation of French, and the promotion of the status of English)” was omitted because the professors commented that it was asked in the second section of the perception part: “what do you think of encouraging the policy of Arabization to protect national identity?”, what do you think of encouraging the policy of the preservation of French? and “what do you think of encouraging the policy of the promotion of English?”

5.1.5 The Final Structure of the Interview Schedule

The interview schedule comprises two main sections: The introduction and the interview questions. The introduction includes the purpose of the study, a statement of confidentiality, and a request for permission to audiotape informants' responses. The interview questions are further divided into three parts: Background questions, questions about informants' language use behaviours, and questions about their perceptions of the LP discourse, the status of Arabic, French, and English, and the promotion of the status of English in HE.

The background questions aim to collect biographical information, including the informants' gender, specialty, years of experience, and teaching level. This information helps in recruiting the target informants, primary university professors from various Tunisian universities. These professors are also from various fields, including Economics, Humanities, Information Technology, and Sciences. The main reason for selecting this group is their awareness of the importance of English, as they need it for academic research.

The part on behaviours focuses on language use. In this part, a particular attention is given to LC and LS. It inquires about the language(s) used by tutors in their teaching: "what language(s) do you usually use in teaching?", language(s) used in explaining and answering students' questions: "what language(s) do you usually use in clarifying explaining students' inquiries?" and the language(s) used by students in asking questions or asking for explanation: "which language(s) do the students choose in asking for clarification? and why?" These questions are derived from Bartha's (1999) questionnaire on LC.

The perception part of the interview is divided into three sub-sections. The first sub-section focuses on professors' perceptions of teaching English for specific purposes. The second sub-section examines the discourse of Tunisian policymakers. The third sub-section asks about practical strategies for promoting the status of Arabic, French, and English in HE, including training programs and clubs.

The final part of the interview includes evaluation questions to improve the interview schedule and add more questions. These include prompts, such as "Is there anything you would like to add?" "Is there anything else you think would be helpful to improve the interview?" It is worth emphasizing that these closing questions provide the interviewed professors with an opportunity to highlight any missing ideas.

5.1.6 Data Collection Process

The interviews were conducted in three rounds. In the first round, two interviews were conducted; however, this round was unsuccessful. The interviewed professors dominated the discussion, provided irrelevant data, and deviated from the planned interview schedule. This could be explained by the researcher's lack of experience in conducting interviews and handling unexpected behaviours. Consequently, these two interviews were disregarded.

In the second round, seven interviews were conducted. Four professors were former colleagues of the researcher, while the other three were recommended by the directors of their institutions. These interviews were collected in the professors' offices in November 2022. The third round consisted of three additional online interviews conducted in February 2023. Eight interviews provided abundant data for analysis. However, two interviews were somewhat less insightful because the interviewed professors had meetings.

All interviews were audio-recorded, running approximately from 15 minutes to 1 hour each. The transcripts were returned to the interviewed professors for verification and accuracy. The following section presents the results of the Member Checking (MC) process.

5.1.7 Results of Member Checking

In addition to using expert judgment and piloting (see section 5.1.4 above) to ensure the content validity of the interview, MC was used to validate the responses of the interviewed professors. MC, known as a "respondent validation tool," provides an opportunity for the professors to review and comment on their transcribed interviews (Anderson, 2010). Lincoln and Guba (1985) view this method as "the most critical technique for establishing credibility" (p. 314).

Participant validation helps to clarify ambiguity, develop ideas, and generate new insights. The MC results revealed several weaknesses in the initial responses. For example, the professors mentioned using Arabic in their offices and university corridors, which caused confusion about which form of Arabic they meant. Based on MC, it was clarified that they were referring to Tunisian Arabic, not MSA.

MC also contributes to the development of short answers. For example, one professor provided a brief response when asked about the replacement of French with English in HE and the potential for training programs to promote proficiency in English: What do you think

of replacing French with English in higher education? What do you think of organizing training programs for both tutors and students to promote English at universities? During the MC process, he elaborated on his view, emphasizing that English is the language of academic research and that tutors need to acquire proficiency in it. He also suggested encouraging mobility with native English-speaking countries to allow tutors and students to practice English.

One interviewed professor noticed that he had not provided a straightforward response to the following question, and kept talking in general: What do you think of encouraging the policy of promoting English? He developed his response and argued that “we need to promote the status of English and all foreign languages. We need to be open, but we must produce in our own language, Standard Arabic” (Amin, Int. 2, p. 1).

Participant validation also enabled the exploration of several issues raised during the interview and the generation of new ideas. One issue identified is the lack of proficiency in MSA. Four professors argued that replacing French with Arabic is impractical due to the limited proficiency of both tutors and students in MSA. They also mentioned the difficulty of translating scientific terminology into Arabic as another reason. This issue also stirred up discussions about using Arabic for academic writing, suggesting the development of Arabic to improve tutors’ and students’ proficiency in the language.

5.2 Results and Analysis of the Interview Data

This section presents the results of the interviews, starting with the profile of the interviewed professors. Subsequently, the results of the first part of the interview on language use will be presented. Finally, the findings on the perception part will be discussed.

5.2.1 Profile of the Interviewed Professors

Table 5.1 displays a detailed profile of the professors, including their areas of specialization, years of experience, and teaching levels:

Table 5.1*Profile of the Interviewed Professors*

Interviewees' Pseudonyms	Gender	Speciality	Years of Teaching Experience	Level(s) of Teaching
Ichraf	Female	Information Technology	7	1st and 2 nd year Bachelor's students
Amin	Male	Economics	13	3rd year Bachelor's students
Wael	Male	Sociology	5	1st and 2 nd year Bachelor's students
Sami	Male	Neuroscience	4	1st year Bachelor's students
Najla	Female	French	15	Bachelor and Master's students
Naima	Female	Engineering	10	1st and 2 nd years Engineering studies
Wahid	Male	Finance and Marketing	6	3rd year Bachelor's students
Nassim	Male	Chemistry	12	2nd and 3rd year Bachelor's and Master's students
Salwa	Female	English	17	1st and 2 nd year Bachelor's students
Karim	Male	Biology	8	1st year Bachelor's and Master's students

In this qualitative investigation, ten interviewees (six males and four females) were selected using the snowball technique, which involves recruiting participants through the social networks of one or more informants (Milroy & Gordon, 2003, p. 32). The recruitment process was facilitated by the directors of two institutions and my colleagues. Each professor was interviewed individually. It is noteworthy that, in addition to conducting interviews, the researcher also observed the classrooms of three professors, Ichraf, Amin, and Wahid.

As indicated in Table 5.1 above, the interviewed professors are from different disciplines, including languages (English and French) and sciences (Biology, Chemistry, Economics, Information Technology, and Neuroscience). Their teaching spans various levels, from first-year Bachelor's studies to Master's studies.

-Ichraf is an assistant professor in Information Technology with seven years of teaching experience. She teaches first- and second-year undergraduate students in Natural Sciences, as well as first-year students in Economics and Administration in Artificial Intelligence.

-Amin is an associate professor in Economics with thirteen years of teaching experience. He teaches third-year undergraduate students of Economics. He has been supervising Master's students since 2013. Additionally, he has supervised three PhD students from other universities.

-Wael is an assistant professor in Sociology with five years of teaching experience. He teaches first- and second-year students of Biology, Sports, and Humanities.

-Sami is an assistant professor in Neuroscience. He teaches first-year students of Biology and Sports. He has been teaching for four years.

-Najla is an assistant professor of French with fifteen years of experience in HE. She teaches both Bachelor's and Master's students of French language, literature, and civilization. She is an associate researcher at a Canadian university.

-Naima is an assistant professor specializing in engineering studies. She has been teaching for ten years first and second-year students of Engineering. She also taught and supervised Energy students.

-Wahid is an assistant professor in Finance and Marketing with six years of teaching experience. He teaches third-year Bachelor's students of Economics and Management. He supervises Master's students.

-Nasim is an associate professor in Chemistry. He has been teaching for twelve years. He teaches second and third-year Bachelor's students of Chemistry and Master's students of Organic Chemistry.

-Salwa is an assistant professor in English with seventeen years of teaching experience. She teaches first and second-year Bachelor's students of English.

-Karim is an assistant professor in Biology with eight years of teaching experience. He teaches Bachelor's and Master's students in Molecular and Cellular Biology.

5.2.2 The Coding Process of the Language Use Part of the Interview

Initial Coding of the Interview Data

Each interview was coded individually, and multiple codes that have similar meanings were counted for the final themes. The initial coding phase begins with identifying codes and formulating definitions for each code. After examining the quotations, each was assigned a

code representing its main theme. The codes and their corresponding examples are listed in Table 5.2 below:

Table 5.2

Initial Coding of the Interview Data on Language Use

Codes	Examples
Arabic	“I have to talk to them in Arabic . They find it difficult to understand terms” (Naima, Interview ⁹ 6, p. 1) ¹⁰ .
The Arabic language	“We have to use the Arabic language because the level of communication among students is poor. It is difficult for them to understand linguistic terms” (Karim, Int. 10, p. 1).
Tunisian Arabic	“Due to the difficulty in communicating in French, my students use Tunisian Arabic to ask questions” (Najla, Int. 5, p. 1).
The use of both Arabic and French	“They [students] use both Arabic and French in asking questions and asking for explanation” (Wael, Int. 3, p. 1).
The exclusive use of English	“I only use English [in the classroom and outside]” (Salwa, Int. 9, p.1).

The initial coding process facilitates the identification of various themes. The table above illustrates some of the initial codes that emerged from the initial coding stage, including the exclusive use of Arabic, the exclusive use of English, and the use of both Arabic and French. These codes contribute to the theme of “language use.”

Code Identification from the Interview Data

Following the identification of initial codes, the second step is to categorize them into specific themes. The question worth raising at this stage is “Does this go here or there?” This question is significant for ensuring thematic organization.

⁹ Interview (Int. henceforth).

¹⁰ The original quotes of the interview data are in Appendix G. Only the English translation is included in the text.

Table 5.3*Code Identification from the Interview Data on Language Use*

Codes	Examples
French	“I ask them [students] to write and reply [to my emails] in French ” (Najla, Int.5, p. 1).
French	“They must write emails in French ” (Naima, Int. 6, p.1).
French	“I ask them to write their emails in French ” (Sami, Int. 4, p.1).
French	“I do not reply to emails in another language, only in French ” (Naima, Int. 6, p.1).

Similar mutually exclusive codes are grouped together, as shown in the example above. All quotations related to “the exclusive use of French” are categorized under a single theme. As a result, this coding stage facilitates assigning a uniform label to quotes that align with a particular theme. The iterative process between data and codes was concluded once a sufficient number of themes and their associated codes had been defined.

Theme Identification from the Interview Data on Language Use

The visual representation of the identified themes is displayed in Figure 5.1:

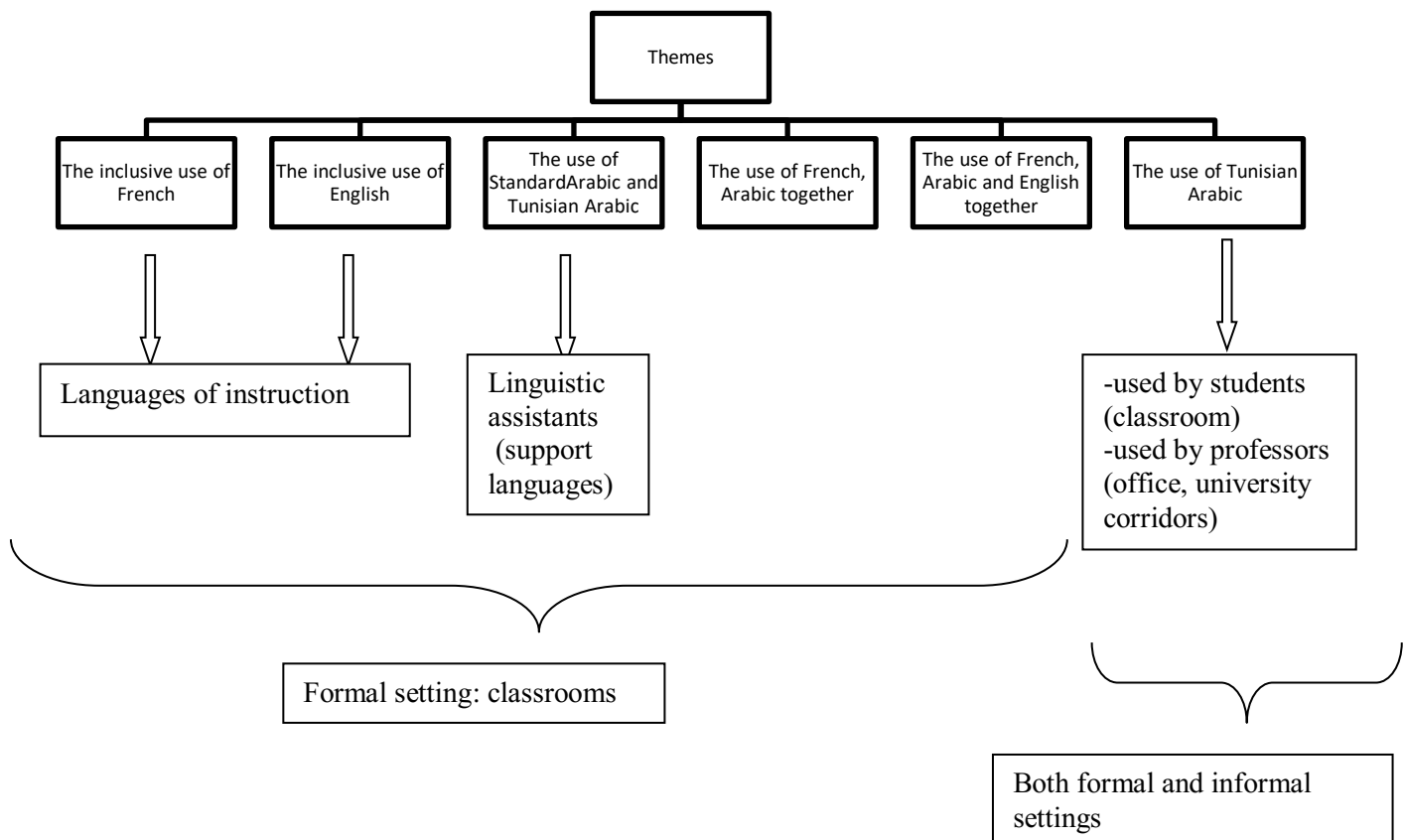
Figure 5.1*Identified Themes from the Interview Data on Language Use*

Figure 5.1 illustrates the languages of instruction, showing that both French and English are used in classrooms, while MSA and Tunisian Arabic primarily serve as support languages for explanations. The figure shows that French and Arabic are sometimes used together, as well as instances where French, Arabic, and English are combined. This suggests a complementary relationship among the three languages.

Additionally, Figure 5.1 above reveals the relationship between formality and language use. It appears that the interviewed professors' use of LC varies slightly depending on the context, informal and formal. They use French, English, and MSA in teaching. They use French and English in emails. Tunisian Arabic is used by some professors in their offices and in university corridors, while others prefer French. Tunisian Arabic is mostly used by students in classrooms and in informal settings.

5.2.3 Analysis of the Language Use Part

The Exclusive Use of French

Two professors exclusively use French for teaching, lecturing, answering students' questions, and explaining their inquiries. They asserted that French is the language of instruction and that they use only this language in their classes. The following are two representative quotes from the interviews. The professors frequently employed the negation "I don't," indicating that they avoid the use of any other language: "I don't accept any other language. I want my students to communicate in the language of instruction" (Najla, Int. 5, p. 1); "I don't answer questions in Arabic" (Naima, Int. 6, p.1).

These two professors oblige their students to respond to their emails in French. The use of the modal "must" shows the obligation they impose on the students: "I ask them to write and reply in French" (Najla, Int. 5, p. 1); "They must write their emails in French" (Naima, Int. 6, p. 1). Interestingly, Najla (Int. 5) reported that her students find it easier to reply to her emails in French, explaining that writing in a foreign language is less challenging for students than speaking it.

It appears that both Najla and Naima oblige their students to use French when writing and replying to their emails. In the classroom, Najla also insists that her students speak and ask questions in French. Similarly, Naima does not use any language other than French. However, a slight difference can be observed in Naima's classroom, where students occasionally use Tunisian Arabic. The professors justified their LC by arguing that the use of the language of instruction facilitates practice. They believe that avoiding the use of the native language is the most effective method for helping students acquire the language of instruction.

The Exclusive Use of English

The data shows a recurring theme of the exclusive English usage. One interviewee, a professor of English, consistently uses English in both formal and informal settings. Salwa employs English in teaching, clarifying concepts, and responding to students' inquiries: "I only use English" (Salwa, Int. 9, p.1). English is the only normative and legitimate language in Salwa's classroom.

There are two explanations for this exclusive use of English. Firstly, English serves as the medium of instruction. Secondly, according to the interviewed professor, the aim is to

provide students with practice in the language. It can be argued that Salwa's insistence on the exclusive use of English implies her recognition of the importance of this language and her commitment to enhancing students' proficiency in English.

The Use of Tunisian Arabic

In addition to the use of French or English, the predominant language among students during classes is Tunisian Arabic, particularly for posing questions and seeking clarification: "Due to the difficulty in communicating in English, my students sometimes use Tunisian Arabic to ask questions" (Salwa, Int. 9, p.1). As indicated by this quote, Tunisian Arabic is used due to a lack of proficiency in English and the inability of students to communicate with this language.

Two professors noted that their students occasionally make inquiries in French. Thus, LC appears to depend on the students' proficiency level: "Sometimes they ask in French, and they use Tunisian Arabic everywhere" (Sami, Int. 4, p. 1); "They use both Tunisian Arabic and French in asking questions and asking for explanation" (Wael, Int. 3, p. 1). The data also indicates that Tunisian Arabic is predominantly used by students in informal settings (the university corridors).

Multilingual Practices

Another emergent theme is the complementary use of French and Arabic. Interestingly, the results show that these two languages have interrelated roles. Nine interviewed professors use French as the language of instruction, but they switch to Tunisian Arabic for explanation. Wahid stated: "We must use the Arabic language because the level of communication among students is poor. It is difficult for them to understand linguistic terms" (Int. 7, p. 1). Similarly, Ichraf noted, "I must talk to them in Arabic. They find it difficult to understand key terms in French" (Int. 1, p. 1). These quotes emphasize the necessity of Arabic for explanation and comprehension purposes, highlighting its positive role as a linguistic assistant through the use of the positive adjectives "help, understand, and good."

It is worth noting that the reliance on Arabic as a support language may be due to students' limited proficiency in French. This factor creates an obstacle that obliges professors to switch to Arabic to clarify meaning, answer students' questions, or address their inquiries.

What is important to note is that one professor uses all three languages, French, Arabic, and English, predominantly in teaching. The medium of instruction is French, but

explanations are generally given in Arabic, and key concepts are provided in English. This multilingual practice shows linguistic flexibility. The interviewed professor argued that Arabic is used for explanation purposes, and English is used because concepts in Information Technology are expressed in English.

In contrast to the perspectives on the exclusive use of French or English, there is also an attitude legitimizing the use of students' L1, reflecting a flexibility that supports understanding. Although French is the medium of instruction, the professors resort to Arabic for explanation purposes. The switch to other languages reveals that the professors resist the imposition of macro-level policy and instead adopt classroom policies based on their students' needs. Thus, this practice suggests a mismatch between institutional policy expectations and classroom reality.

5.2.4 The Coding Process of the Perception Part of the Interview

Initial Coding of the Interview Data on Perception

The initial stage in the coding process involves a line-by-line reading of the transcripts to identify relevant codes. Subsequently, the data is coded by reducing the quotes into smaller chunks, as presented in Table 5.4 below:

Table 5.4

Initial Coding of the Interview Data on the Perception Part

Codes	Examples
The development of Arabic	“It [developing the Arabic language] must be one of the priorities of the country” (Amin, Int.2, p. 2).
Arabic: must not be the dominant medium of instruction	“ The Arabic language should be used in primary education. It mustn't be the dominant language at higher education” (Wahid, Int. 7, p. 2).

Table 5.4 (continued).

Codes	Examples
French is the language of instruction	“ French is the language of instruction at our universities” (Najla, Int. 5, p. 2).
Promote the status of English	“I hope to promote the status of English because we are in need of it” (Wahid, Int.7, p. 2).
English	“I prefer conferences and workshops to be in English ” (Wahid, Int. 7, pp. 2-3).
The development of the status of English The use of Arabic sometimes	“I am with the development of the status of English and the use of Arabic sometimes ” (Ichraf, Int. 1, pp. 1-2).

At the initial coding process, a code name that evokes a meaning was assigned to each quotation. For example, the first quote, which highlights the priority of developing Arabic, was coded as “the development of Arabic.” The table also presents various codes identified from the quotes: “the development of the Arabic language,” “the use of French as a medium of instruction,” and “the promotion of the status of English.”

Code Identification from the Interview Data on Perception

The second step in the coding process is code identification, which involves comparing and organizing the initial in-vivo codes into higher-level categories. As displayed in Table 5.5, the exact wording of the professors was used.

Table 5.5

Code Identification from the Interview Data on the Perception Part

Codes	Examples
The political speech is not clear.	“The political speech in Tunisia is not clear ” (Wahid, Int.7, p. 3).
No clear discourse	“ No clear discourse on language policy in Tunisia. All are talking about the development of the status of languages but the reality is different. French is the dominant language” (Salwa, Int.9, p. 3).

Table 5.5 (continued).

Codes	Examples
The topic of language policy is not raised.	-“ I do not think that this topic [language policy] is raised in Tunisia” (Karim, Int. 10, p. 3). -“Based on my own knowledge, the topic of language policy is not raised ” (Amin, Int. 2, p. 3).
The problem of language policy must be raised.	-“In my opinion, language policy in Tunisia is a problem that must be raised ” (Ichraf, Int. 1, p. 3).

At this coding stage, the codes were checked against other codes, then against themes and sub-themes. After that, a comparison between themes was performed to identify and develop relationships among themes and sub-themes derived from the open coding stage. The table above presents an example of code identification in which the quotes discuss the same theme, “the absence of a clear LP discourse.” Multiple examples occur close to each other, highlighting connections between codes.

Theme Identification from the Interview Data on Perception

This stage includes iteratively comparing quotes identified with the same code to ensure they represent the same theme, and moving incrementally to a higher level by recognizing the categories within which the codes may fall.

Table 5.6

Theme Identification from the Interview Data on Perception

Codes	Examples
Lack of proficiency of tutors in Arabic	-“Replacing French with Arabic raises another issue. Are tutors proficient in Arabic to teach scientific subjects, for example?” (Salwa, Int. 9, p. 2).
Lack proficiency in Arabic	-“We lack of proficiency in Arabic . It is difficult to be the language of instruction at universities for all subjects, especially scientific subjects” (Salwa, Int. 9, p. 2).

Table 5.6 (continued).

Codes	Examples
Lack of proficiency of students in French	“We must point to the lack of proficiency of students in French . We must look for the reasons behind this” (Najla, Int. 5, p. 2).
Lack proficiency in English	“We cannot do that [promoting the status of English]. We do not have qualified tutors and proficient students ” (Amin, Int. 2, p. 2).

The example displayed in Table 5.6 above shows that “the lack of proficiency of tutors and students in Arabic” is one of the sub-themes integrated into the theme of “language-related challenges.” This broad theme also involves “students’ lack of proficiency in French and English,” as well as “the absence of qualified tutors.”

Table 5.7 presents the identified themes and sub-themes:

Table 5.7

Themes and Sub-themes from the Interview Data on Perception

Themes	Sub-themes
Absence of any discourse on language policy	
Language policy voices	Development of the Arabic language Promotion of the status of English
Language-related challenges	Lack of proficiency in Arabic Lack of proficiency in French Lack of proficiency in English
English as a Medium of Instruction	
Code choice	Standard Arabic Tunisian Arabic and French Tunisian Arabic and English

Five themes were identified from the data of the interviews, namely “the absence of any discourse on language,” “language policy voices,” “language-related challenges,” “English as a language of instruction,” and “language choice.” As indicated in Table 5.7 above, LP voices

include the development of Arabic and the promotion of English. Linguistic challenges involve the lack of proficiency in Arabic, French, and English. Alternation between languages is another theme in the data.

5.2.5 Analysis of the Perception Part

Absence of Discourse on Language Policy

The results indicate a common agreement among the interviewed professors on the lack of political discourses on LP. The quotes below reveal the absence of a clear statement on the status of languages.

- 1) In my opinion, the issue of language policy is not raised. I know that Arabic is our native language, but the status of the other languages is unclear. It is true that French is the second language, given that Tunisia is a Francophone country, but we do not have a clear text. (Wael, Int. 3, p. 3)
- 2) “No clear discourse on language policy in Tunisia. All are talking about the development of the status of languages, but the reality is different. French is the dominant language” (Salwa, Int. 9, p. 3).
- 3) “As I know, there are no official documents on language policy” (Karim, Int. 10, p.3).
- 4) “I do not think that there is a law from the MHE clarifying this issue. The ministry’s role is just administrative, such as controlling the work of universities, their needs (materials and tutors)” (Naima, Int. 6, p. 3).

It is interesting to note how the same concept of “language policy” is defined differently. The interviewed professors connected LP to the status of languages (Karim, Int. 3; Salwa, Int. 9), legal documents (Karim, Int. 10, p. 3), and the regulations made by the MHE (Naima, Int. 6, p. 3). The different conceptualizations may reflect the noticeable absence of an overt LP discourse.

In the first quote, Wael related LP to the status of the languages Arabic and French. Arabic is the native language, and French is a second language. Wael highlighted an important point regarding the status of French, noting that it is not the official second language of the country due to the lack of official policy documents. It is unclear what legal status has been bestowed on French. The other three quotes also reveal very useful points about language policies, stressing the absence of legal documents.

An interesting point is raised by Naima, who views that the role of the MHE is administrative, explaining that the ministry does not issue educational laws; rather, its role is to control the work of universities, and discuss their needs in terms of resources (materials) and teaching staff. All the interviewed professors also claimed that this topic is not a priority for the ministry, in particular, and the Tunisian government in general. LP is thus never explicitly discussed. The exclusion of LP matters is quite surprising and raises questions about the reasons behind this lack of attention.

Language Policy Voices

Two voices were identified from the interview data: The development of Arabic and the promotion of English. These voices are discussed in the next sub-sections.

Development of the Arabic Language

The first identified voice calls for the protection and development of the Arabic language. This voice is associated with the use of the modal “must” showing obligation, as illustrated in the following quotes: “I am for the policy of developing the Arabic language. It is the native language. We must be proficient in Arabic. We need it in translation from English to Arabic or from Arabic to English” (Amin, Int. 1, p. 2); “It must be one of the priorities of the country” (Amin, Int. 1, p. 2); “We must develop the status of the Arabic language because our students are not good at Modern Standard Arabic, in writing and speaking. The Tunisian Student does not know the rules of Arabic” (Nassim, Int. 8, p. 2).

The first quote emphasizes the importance of developing proficiency in Arabic as it is needed in the field of translation. Amin (Int. 1, p. 2) argued that being proficient in Arabic is an obligation because it is the native language. Another reason is provided by Nassim in the third quote, who pointed to students’ lack of knowledge of Arabic rules and their inability to communicate and write in MSA.

One way to promote the status of Arabic is provided by Amin, who insisted on producing in our native language. He acknowledged the importance of using Arabic in academic research and writing academic publications in Arabic.

Promotion of English

The promotion of English is the second identified voice. As presented in this quote, English is a necessary language for academic research and technology: “English is the language of

technology and academic research. We need to put a clear strategy to promote its status in the Tunisian higher education context. We need to issue clear laws because language policies are not clear” (Salwa, Int.9, p. 2).

The promotion of the status of English is frequently highlighted in the interviews. Based on the quote above, English is essential for developing competence in digital literacy and blended learning, as it is the language of technology. Salwa (Int. 9, p. 2) suggested “putting a clear strategy” and “issuing clear laws” to develop its status.

As indicated in the quote, English is not promoted due to the absence of a clear LP. The quote therefore reflects LP issues, highlighting the gap between the needs of local stakeholders (tutors and students) and the decisions of central stakeholders (policymakers). It can be argued that the absence of clear policies and the lack of attention to LP issues have left the fate of English in the unknown, showing that central agents work in favor of the dominant language, French.

In addition to developing academic research, all the interviewed professors strongly emphasized the importance of English for better career prospects. This view is based on the idea that English proficiency can help graduates find job opportunities. Karim, for example, stated that “this is good for both tutors and students to be able to find job opportunities abroad” (Int. 10, pp.3-4). Interestingly, Karim maintained that proficiency in English could also bring more job opportunities for tutors.

English as a Medium of Instruction

While discussing their preferred medium of instruction, seven professors preferred English. Wahid’s (Int. 7, p. 3) firm declaration that the medium of instruction in HE must be English shows the need for this language, as mentioned above, for developing academic research and career prospects. Karim, similarly to Wahid, believed in the importance of English, stating: “I hope to promote the status of English because we are in need of it” (Int. 10, p. 3). Karim associated the promotion of the position of English with the verb “hope,” which may imply a wish accompanied by expectation.

In contrast to the aforementioned opinions, Amin argued that we cannot change the language of instruction, highlighting the dominance of French and supporting the need to protect the Arabic language. Najla also emphasized the dominance of French in HE.

This inconsistency shows French's practical and ideological dominance. The situation is primarily linked to the historical position of the French language, which is further reinforced by the top-down authority. In addition to the dominance of French, which prevents the promotion of the status of English, policymakers do not consider professors' needs, resulting in the absence of a supportive policy to promote the status of English and use it as the language of instruction.

Language-related Challenges

“Language-related issues” is another recurring theme that emerged from the interview data. This theme focuses particularly on the lack of proficiency in the three languages, Arabic, French, and English.

Lack of Proficiency in Arabic

All the interviewed professors highlighted the lack of proficiency in Arabic and qualified tutors to teach Arabic. Salwa questioned the use of Arabic as a language of instruction, stating: “replacing French with Arabic raises another issue. Are tutors proficient in Arabic to teach scientific subjects, for example?” (Int. 9, p. 2). She further gave a real example from the Department of Science of Education, where professors of Chemistry, Natural Science, and Physics are obliged to use Arabic in training future primary school tutors. They have difficulty in finding equivalent scientific terminology in Arabic due to a lack of content-specific technical knowledge.

The decision to use Arabic as the language of instruction implies that the authority expects professors to be able to teach in Arabic, but the reality is different. This situation led to a shift from Arabic to French, revealing a mismatch between the macro language policy and the grassroots practice. In fact, imposing top-down decisions without considering “on the ground” needs and practices conveys the arbitrariness of LP.

This sub-theme raises concerns about the reasons for the lack of proficiency in Arabic. The cause, according to the interviewed professors, is rooted in primary education, where there are weaknesses in the curricula, and in secondary education, where French is the dominant language of instruction. The lack of proficiency in Arabic has therefore drawn attention to issues of misalignment across all educational levels: Primary education, secondary education, and higher education.

Lack of Proficiency in French

All professors reported frequent references to challenges related to a limited or a lack of proficiency in French. Najla, for example, asserted that “we must point to the lack of proficiency of students in French. We must look for the reasons behind this” (Int. 5, p. 2). Notably, the use of the inclusive pronoun “we” may imply that this issue is common among students. Students’ insufficient linguistic knowledge of French is recognized as a significant factor, hindering successful interactions between tutors and students. Salwa illuminated the reason for the lack of proficiency in French, pointing to issues in primary education where pupils do not acquire a solid background in French.

Lack of Proficiency in English

Another sub-theme that emerged from the analysis is the challenges of implementing EMI. The interviewed professors pointed to language-related challenges, namely the lack of proficiency in English and the absence of qualified tutors.

Amin disfavours the use of English as a language of teaching, highlighting the lack of proficiency of students in this language: “We cannot do that [promoting the status of English]. We do not have qualified tutors and proficient students” (Int. 2, p. 2). The quote also points to the lack of qualified tutors. Sami raised another concern about the lack of competencies in content knowledge. This is similar to the issue with Arabic, showing that tutors have difficulty in teaching content subjects in English due to the lack of proficiency in this language.

Language Choice

Language choice is an interesting theme evident in the interview data. Amin used MSA exclusively. The rest of the interviewed professors used the three languages: Tunisian Arabic, French, and English. The language choice is Tunisian Arabic, but they switched to both French and English. Salwa is the only professor who switched to English, and the other professors used French. French seems to be the dominant LC in the interviews. Language use could therefore reflect the specialty of the professors, the language of instruction, and speakers’ preference.

This chapter provided a discussion of key aspects of interviews, presenting definitions, the rationale, and limitations. It then introduced the developed interview schedule and the

validation process. This is followed by a presentation of the coding process and the analysis of the results of the two parts of the interview on language use and language perceptions.

Like the previous Chapter 4, the results reported the emergence of several themes. Although there are some common themes, new themes emerged, such as LP issues and the lack of proficiency in Arabic and French. Interestingly, it should be noted that the voice of the preservation of French is nearly absent. Additionally, the results provided three perspectives on language-related issues and ultimately showed the dissonances between top-down policies and bottom-up needs. These issues will be discussed in Chapter 7.

Chapter 6. Desk Research

Having seen studies on language practices and beliefs, this chapter presents the fourth study of this dissertation: Desk research. The aim of this study is to examine language policy documents and academic journals. The chapter begins by introducing desk research and its rationale, then presents the primary and secondary materials. Finally, the chapter presents the results, including both the data coding process and the analysis of emergent themes.

6.1 Methodology

6.1.1 Desk Research: Definition and Rationale

Desk research, also called secondary research, involves using data from the field of research. This method includes a variety of sources, such as archives, libraries, and reports. In this dissertation, desk research is defined as a “documentary analysis” used to review existing legal and political documents related to the area of research. These documents involve educational laws, reports, and political speeches. The aim is to provide more information on language policies in Tunisia, the status of English in HE, and policymakers’ attitudes towards the language situation in HE. The use of this method is also intended to support the other data collection materials, namely the observation, the questionnaire, and interviews, and to corroborate their results.

Merriam (1988) points to several benefits of using desk research, stating that “documents of all types can help the researcher uncover meaning, develop understanding, and discover insights relevant to the research problem” (p. 118). Such documents can provide additional details and confirm information from other sources, thereby enhancing the reliability and trustworthiness of the data.

6.1.2 Desk Research Materials

Two types of materials were used in this study: Primary materials and secondary materials. Primary materials include legal documents, such as educational laws and published reports from the Tunisian MHE. Secondary materials include speeches and interviews with policymakers, as well as academic journals. The materials employed in this research are presented below.

Primary Materials

The primary materials comprise legal LP documents that describe the status of languages. The first text is an extract from the sixth article of the *Tunisian Constitution (2022)*. The second text is an educational law outlining the languages used in higher education, namely Arabic and foreign languages.

The sixth article of the *Tunisian Constitution (2022)* states that “Tunisia is part of the Arab nation and the official language is Arabic” (p. 11).

Law number 2008-19 of 25 February 2008, related to higher education¹¹. The law is written in French. The following is the text of the law:

“Consolidate the use of the Arabic language and the mastery of foreign languages in order to interact with universal progress and the development of intellectual exchanges” (*Article 2*, p. 844, my English translation).¹²

The third primary desk research material is a report from the Tunisian MHE (2017) entitled *Overview of the Higher Education System: Tunisia*. The report was written in English. The following extracts were selected from the report:

1) Arabic is the official language; Tunisian Arabic is the national, vernacular variety of Arabic used by the public. French also plays a major role in the Tunisian society, despite having no official status. It is widely used in education, in the press and in business. Shop signs, menus and road signs in Tunisia are generally written in both Arabic and French. (p. 5)

2) “The languages of instruction are French and Arabic, but the institution may organize some courses in English or another foreign language. In fact, most programmes include an English module as a second foreign language” (p.12).

3) Following the Tunisian curriculum, foreign languages (French and English) are taught at an early stage of the primary level. Other foreign languages (German,

¹¹ The original name of the law is in French: Loi n° 2008-19 du 25 février 2008, relative à l’enseignement supérieur.

¹² The original text of the law: “Consolider l’utilisation de la langue Arabe et la maîtrise des langues étrangères en vue d’interagir avec le progrès universel et le développement des échanges intellectuels” (*Article 2*, p. 844, French original).

Italian or Spanish) are taught at the secondary school as optional third foreign languages. The Tunisian educational system puts much emphasis on learning foreign languages. Each of the Tunisian universities has at least one institute specialized in foreign languages studies. Different national programmes and regional actions, involving HEI specialised in languages, are intended to offer courses for the public. These involve LLL activities and evening courses meant to teach and improve foreign languages for pupils, students, employers, young and old people, etc. For instance, Bourguiba School (IBLV: Institut Bourguiba des langues vivantes), is a public institute which belongs to the University of Tunis El Manar and has a network of 24 regional centres ensuring different levels of foreign language teaching (essentially English). (p. 25)

Multiple reports published by the Tunisian MHE were reviewed, and the 2017 report was selected for its explicit reference to the languages used in HE. The first extract above mentions three languages: Arabic, the official language; Tunisian Arabic, which refers to regional dialects; and French, despite lacking official status, is the dominant language in HE. The second extract clearly states the languages of instruction in HE, identifying French and Arabic as the primary languages of instruction and English as a subject taught in most programs. The third extract distinguishes between the main foreign languages, French and English, and the optional foreign languages, German, Italian, and Spanish.

The following extract is from a report entitled *Policy Brief for Tunisia (2020)* published by Erasmus+ Programmes of the European Union:

Learning foreign languages is pivotal in the Tunisian educational system. Arabic and French are nevertheless the first two languages in Tunisian society. French is still widely used in education, in the press and in business, as Tunisia was a former French colony, and the national HE system builds on the French model, with a small well-educated Tunisian elite studying in France. (p. 6)

The extract demonstrates the importance of teaching foreign languages and identifies the primary languages used in Tunisian society: Arabic and French. The rest of the extract explains the reasons for the dominance of French.

Secondary Materials

Two speeches by Ben Ali (2008), a former president of Tunisia, were included for their emphasis on the president's attitudes towards foreign languages. The first speech highlights

the benefits of the French language, while the second speech emphasizes the necessity of acquiring a second language, specifically English.

1) Boosting co-operation in the education field within the sphere of the Francophony represents, in this respect, a considerable asset for our countries, which benefit from the use of the French language, a tool for exchanging and sharing knowledge. (Ben Ali, 2008, p. 1)

2) Mastering a second language or more is, for learners, a valuable gain and an added value in their training and culture, offering them large prospects for employment and vast opportunities for communication with the other. Therefore, to increase the employability of the graduates of our education and training system, we call for granting further attention to the teaching of languages and for adopting the necessary measures to develop language teaching and to bring the students' acquisitions in this field up to the current international standards. (Ben Ali, 2008, p. 1)

Ben Ali's emphasis on mastering foreign languages was motivated by the lack of English fluency among Tunisian convoys (Daoud, 2011), who travelled to South Africa for a business trip, and thus failed to negotiate successfully with their South African counterparts.

A speech by another former Tunisian president, Moncef Marzouki (2011), was also included. The speech was delivered in Arabic and later translated into English (Aouina, 2013). It aims to promote the Arabic language as the president supports the policy of Arabization.

Additionally, an interview conducted with one of the former Tunisian ministers of higher education was incorporated. This interview, titled *A Conversation with Tunisia's New Higher-Education Minister: Tawfik Jelassi*, was published on the 9th of April, 2014 and conducted in English. Below are two extracts from the interview:

1) Up to now there has been a disconnect between the universities and the economic eco-system. We need to create links and synergies between the two. One way is to encourage more vocational training. Also, we must foster English-language training, because our graduates have job opportunities abroad-mainly in the Gulf region-but they do not speak good English. (Bollag, 2014, p. 1)

2) "To improve graduates' employability by enhancing English language skills, and soft skills, the Tunisian government is keen to send more students to the UK

and to use UK HEIs English Language Teaching programmes” (Bollag, 2014, p. 1).

The interview aims to collect data on the minister’s perceptions of the language situation in HE, the policy of internationalization, and the creation of career development offices at universities. The two extracts show that the minister supports promoting the status of English due to its necessity in the workplace.

Academic Journals

Over 20 Tunisian academic journals that publish papers in various research areas were examined. The selected journals represent diverse fields, including Humanities, Literature, Finance, Biology, and Mathematics, and are peer-reviewed and nationally recognized. Some journals, such as the *Tunisian Journal of Mathematics* and *La Tunisie Médicale* [*Medical Tunisia*] are internationally recognized and indexed in Scopus. *La Tunisie Médicale* [*Medical Tunisia*] also publishes research from various contexts, including Tunisia, the Maghreb, and other African countries. The selection of these journals was also influenced by the language(s) of publication. They are monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual journals. Notably, the *Tunisian Journal of Mathematics* accepts research papers in all languages.

The academic journals include:

حوليات الجامعة التونسية [*Annals of the Tunisian University*] is an annual journal that publishes research articles in Arabic, focusing on humanities and the Arabic language and literature.

Synergies Tunisie [*Synergies Tunisia*] is a Francophone Journal in the humanities and social sciences launched in 2009. It publishes papers in French on various topics related to French linguistics, literature, and civilization.

The *International Journal of Applied Research on Textile* (IJARTex) is a quarterly online journal published by the Tunisian Association of Researchers in Textile (TARTex). It accepts research articles in English.

The *International Journal of Modern Anthropology* (IJMA) is a biannual peer-reviewed journal that publishes multidisciplinary research articles from various specialities of Biological and Cultural Anthropology. IJMA is a monolingual journal, publishing exclusively in English.

The *Journal of Academic Finance* (JoAF) is a bilingual journal (French and English) dedicated to publishing high-quality research papers across all areas of scientific research, including Accounting, Economics, Finance, and Social Sciences.

The *International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies* (IJHCS) is a quarterly indexed and peer-reviewed e-journal. It publishes original papers in English on humanities and cultural studies and is bilingual, accepting articles in both English and French.

La Tunisie Médicale [*Medical Tunisia*] is a monthly journal founded in 1903. It accepts articles and reviews of literature in all areas of medical, dental, pharmacological, and paramedical health. The languages of publication are French and English, and it is a Scopus-indexed journal.

The *Tunisian Journal of Medicinal Plants and Natural Products* (TJMPNP) is an indexed journal that publishes original scientific articles on phytochemistry and the biological activity of plants. It is a bilingual journal that publishes in both French and English.

Navigation in Arts and Humanities (NAH) is an annual international scientific journal that publishes articles on letters, language, civilization, philosophy, and sociology. *NAH* accepts research papers in Arabic, French, and English.

Studies in Humanities (SH) publishes research papers on the humanities in Arabic, French, and English.

The *Journal of Arts and Humanities* (JAH) is an annual journal on various research areas, including arts, letters, linguistics, literature, and culture studies, and publishes articles in Arabic, French, and English.

Les Cahiers de Tunisie [*The Notebooks of Tunisia*] is a biannual peer-reviewed journal founded in 1953. It publishes original articles on the humanities and social sciences in Arabic, French, and English.

The *Tunisian Journal of Mathematics* (TJM) is a Scopus-indexed journal that publishes research articles in all areas of Mathematics. This journal accepts papers in French, English, and other languages.

6.2 Results and Analysis

6.2.1 The Coding Process of the Desk Research Data

Initial Coding of the Desk Research Data

The first level of coding involves segmenting the data into smaller units. The texts were analyzed line by line, and any idea relevant to the objectives of the research was assigned a code. The exact words from the original texts were used, as presented in Table 6.1:

Table 6.1

Example 1 of Initial Coding from the Desk Research Data

Codes	Examples
The Arabic language The mastery of foreign languages Arabic Tunisian Arabic Vernacular variety of Arabic French Arabic and French French and Arabic English or another foreign language English module as a second foreign language	1) “Consolidate the use of the Arabic language and the mastery of foreign languages in order to interact with universal progress and the development of intellectual exchanges” (<i>Educational Law 2008</i> , p. 844, my English translation). 2) “ Arabic is the official language; Tunisian Arabic is the national, vernacular variety of Arabic used by the public. French also plays a major role in the Tunisian society, despite having no official status. It is widely used in education, in the press and in business. Shop signs, menus and road signs in Tunisia are generally written in both Arabic and French ” (<i>Ministry Report</i> , 2017, p. 5). 3) “The languages of instruction are French and Arabic , but the institution may organize some courses in English or another foreign language . In fact, most programmes include an English module as a second foreign language ” (<i>Ministry Report</i> , 2017, p. 12).

The purpose of the initial coding is to identify ideas related to language issues and policymakers' perceptions of the language situation and language use. The first extract in Table 6.1 above mentions Arabic as the language of instruction in HE and highlights the importance of mastering foreign languages. The second extract shows the presence of additional codes, such as Tunisian Arabic and French, illustrating the dominant role of French in the Tunisian society and introducing the languages of instruction in HE, namely Arabic and French. The third extract refers to English as a second foreign language.

Table 6.2 displays another example of the initial coding of editorial policy statements of academic journals:

Table 6.2

Example 2 of Initial Coding from the Desk Research Data

Codes	Examples
English and French	“The IJHCS publishes works both in English and in French languages” (n.p.).
English or French	“Articles in <i>TJM</i> are usually in English or French , but articles written in other languages are welcome” (n.p.).
only in English	“The journal receives manuscripts only in English from all over the world. Authors whose mother tongue is not English should have the manuscript checked by a native English speaker prior to submission” (n.p.).

Significant differences were found in the assignment of codes across the editorial policy statements of the academic journals. The first two statements declare that the languages of publication are “English and French” and “English or French.” The third statement indicates that the journal publishes exclusively in English.

Code Identification from the Desk Research Data

Upon reviewing the initial coding, several codes were identified, as presented in Table 6.3:

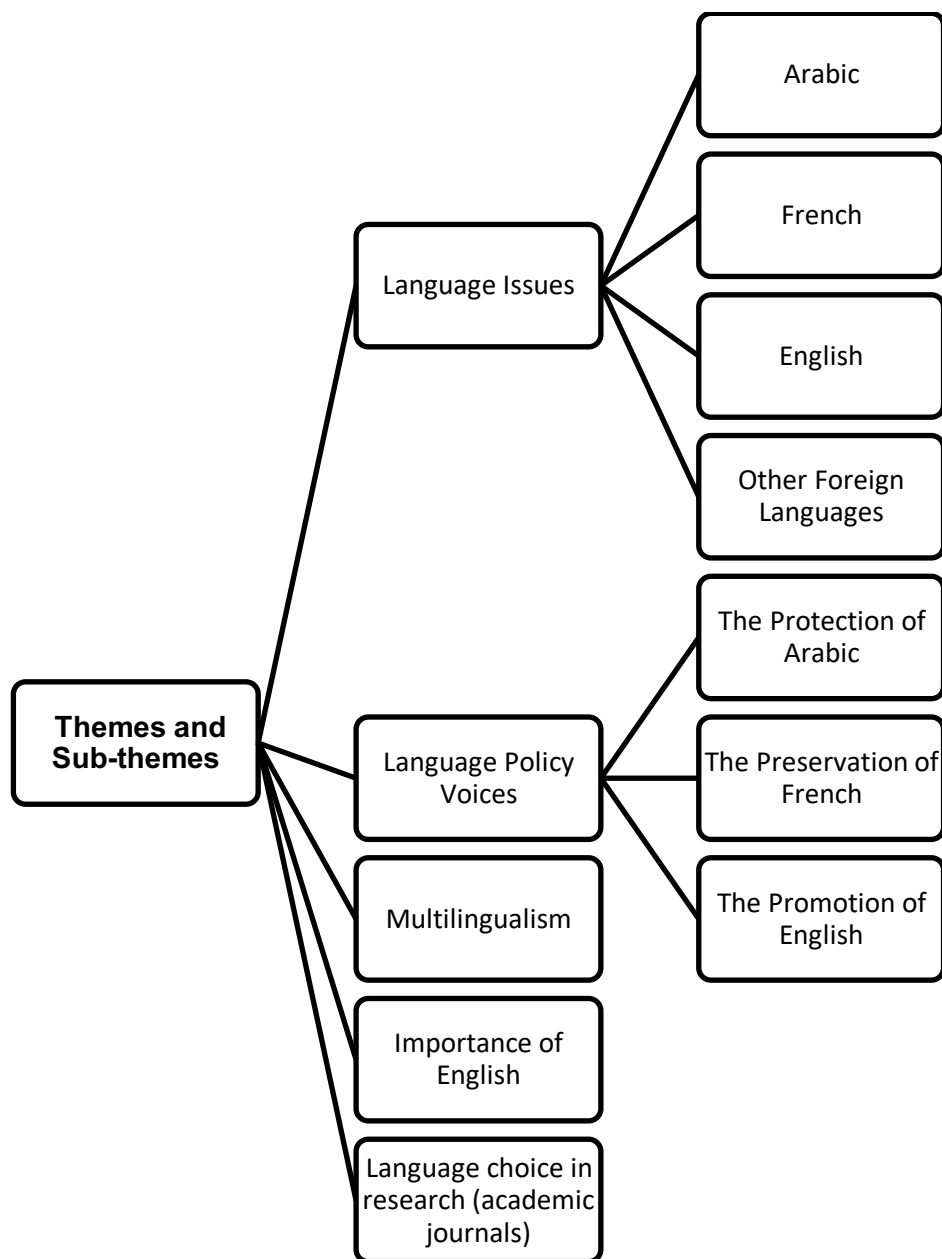
Table 6.3*Example of Code Identification from the Desk Research Data*

Codes	Examples
<p>Foreign languages (French and English)</p> <p>Other foreign languages (German, Italian, or Spanish): optional third foreign languages</p> <p>Learning foreign languages</p> <p>Institute specialized in foreign languages studies</p> <p>improve foreign languages</p> <p>Different levels of foreign languages teaching (essentially English)</p> <p>Learning foreign languages</p>	<p>“Following the Tunisian curriculum, foreign languages (French and English) are taught at an early stage of the primary level. Other foreign languages (German, Italian or Spanish) are taught at the secondary school as optional third foreign languages. The Tunisian educational system puts much emphasis on learning foreign languages. Each of the Tunisian universities has at least one institute specialized in foreign languages studies [...] These involve LLL activities and evening courses meant to teach and improve foreign languages for pupils, students, employers, young and old people, etc. [...] has a network of 24 regional centres ensuring different levels of foreign languages teaching (essentially English).” (<i>Ministry Report, 2017, p. 25</i>)</p> <p>“Learning foreign languages is pivotal in the Tunisian educational system. Arabic and French are nevertheless the first two languages in the Tunisian society” (p. 6).</p>

Table 6.3 lists two LP texts that focus on the teaching and learning of foreign languages. Before categorizing the two texts together, the researcher posed the question, “what category would similar incidents fall into?” I compared each emergent theme/sub-theme with the others to ensure they were mutually exclusive. At this level of analysis, an individual sub-theme, “other foreign languages,” which is associated with the broader theme of “language issues,” was identified. It is noticeable that this sub-theme is labelled differently: foreign languages (French and English), other foreign languages (German, Italian, or Spanish), or optional third foreign languages.

Theme Identification from the Desk Research Data

Following the identification of codes, the researcher elaborated on the relationships between these codes to organize the data into emergent themes and sub-themes. Comparisons across themes were conducted, examining their interrelations and then categorizing them into groups. The visual representation of the identified themes and sub-themes is displayed in Figure 6.1 below:

Figure 6.1*Identified Themes and Sub-themes from the Desk Research Data*

During the memoing stage, the relationship between various codes was examined by asking questions such as: “Are they separate codes? Is one code a property or a phase in another? Is one event the cause or consequence of another?” (Hutchinson, 2005, p. 135). The codes: Arabic, French, English and other foreign languages were grouped under the theme of “language issues”, which pertains to the linguistic situation in Tunisia. A second theme that emerged from the data is “LP voices,” including the protection of Arabic, the preservation of French and the promotion of the status of English. Additional themes identified include multilingualism, the importance of English, and language choice. These are considered separate themes. Based on the coding process, five main themes were identified, which are individually discussed in detail below. The analysis not only examines the themes but also explores how they are expressed, including pronouns, repetition, and lexical choice.

6.2.2 Analysis of Emergent Themes

Language Issues

The desk research data highlights language issues and the various languages present in the Tunisian HE context. The sixth article of the *Tunisian Constitution* (2022), an official document determining the status of languages, explicitly declares that Arabic is the official language of the country. However, the constitution does not specify whether it refers to MSA or Tunisian Arabic. Moreover, the constitution does not mention any other language.

The *Educational Law* (2008) mentions the teaching of Arabic and the acquisition of foreign languages. In the law, it is noticeable that the language question does not appear as clearly and explicitly presented, and indeed, the use of the expression “foreign languages” produces more ambiguities than clarity. This expression can be interpreted in various ways: It might refer to the mastery of French and English, or it could imply the mastery of other foreign languages. It appears that the expression “foreign languages” is strategically used as a cover to refer to both French and English as the main foreign languages in the Tunisian educational system.

Unlike the previously analyzed documents, the first extract from the 2017 report, *Overview of the Higher Education System: Tunisia*, explicitly mentions two languages: Arabic and French. Similar to the sixth article of the *Tunisian Constitution*, the report affirms that Arabic is the official language in Tunisia. It also notes that while French lacks an official status, it remains the dominant language. It dominates various sectors, including education,

business and even the everyday lives of Tunisians by its presence on “shop signs, menus and road signs” (p. 5). This suggests that French has greater power in the social realm. Additionally, the frequent association of Arabic with French emphasizes the powerful position of the latter in Tunisian society.

The second selected extract from the 2017 report establishes a hierarchy of languages: “the languages of instruction are French and Arabic” with “an English module as a second foreign language” (p.12). Both Arabic and French serve as mediums of instruction, whereas English is taught as a subject and regarded as a second foreign language. The hierarchy implicitly highlights the hegemony of the French language.

In contrast to the previously discussed documents, the second extract from the 2017 report refers to English for the first time. English is associated with the use of the modal auxiliary “may,” indicating possibility and suggesting a lack of strong commitment to promoting its status, seeing it as a recommendation. Nevertheless, English maintains a privileged status, as shown by the disjunctive phrase “English or another foreign language,” which implies that English is more valued than other foreign languages. Moreover, the repetition of the word “English” may implicitly argue for changes in the languages of instruction.

It is interesting to note a sense of ambivalence in the report. In the first extract, policymakers asserted that French has no official position, while the second extract claimed that French is the language of instruction alongside Arabic. French is listed before Arabic, indicating its dominant status. This order emphasizes the ambivalence regarding the visibility of French in Tunisia and suggests that French is gaining a powerful position at the expense of Arabic.

The extract from the report, *Policy Brief-Tunisia (2020)*, begins by acknowledging the learning of “foreign languages,” an expression that seems to refer to languages beyond the main ones used in HE, namely French and English. However, when delving deeper into the text, only Arabic and French are mentioned. The use of the phrase “the first two languages,” surprisingly, suggests that Arabic and French hold equal status. This explicitly shows the reasons for the dominance of French, citing Tunisia’s strong historical ties to France. It also indicates an orientation towards preserving French as Tunisia is described as “a profoundly Frenchified country” (Daoud, 2001, p. 22).

These documents, unsurprisingly, are geared towards the dominance of the French language. The analyzed texts consistently agree on French's prominent role, raising a question about the position of Arabic. Although Arabic is considered the official language, its actual status in HE remains ambiguous.

Language Policy Voices

The Protection of Arabic

Arabization is one of the emergent sub-themes within the broader theme of “language policy voices.” President Marzouki's (2011) speech explicitly called for the development of Arabic. He proposed several initiatives regarding LP: (1) Enhancing translation into Arabic; (2) Encouraging digitization of Arabic books; (3) Promoting the use of Arabic in science; (4) Banning the single-foreign-language system that makes the Maghreb Francophone and the Mashreq Anglophone; and (5) Teaching different foreign languages to different groups of students (as cited in Aouina, 2013).

The repetition of the word “Arabic” stresses the need to preserve and foster this language. The president's call to promote Arabic, including the Arabization of scientific subjects, establishes a linguistic hierarchy that places Arabic in the first position and foreign languages in a secondary position. This stance implicitly challenges the historical legacy of the French language.

However, the president's argumentation is rather ambiguous. By using the expression “different foreign languages” without specifying them, he implied that Arabic is the only official language in Tunisia, which must be the medium of instruction. Moreover, the ambivalence is evident in his speech when he stated, “Banning the single-foreign-language system that makes the Maghreb Francophone and the Mashreq Anglophone” (Marzouki, 2011, as cited in Aouina, 2013). This could be interpreted as Tunisia, located in the Maghreb, should maintain its Francophone identity, questioning the need for English, which is considered the language of the Mashreq. It remains unclear whether the president supports the primacy of Arabic or French.

The Preservation of French

The second identified voice is the preservation of French. The first speech from President Ben Ali (2008) shows support for “the Francophony.” His use of the word “asset” indicates that French is an integral part of the Tunisian identity. The president viewed the French language as part of national identity, describing it as an instrument or a tool “for exchanging and sharing knowledge.” This depiction implies a material and functional role for French, highlighting its hegemonic status.

Furthermore, Ben Ali’s use of the noun phrase “our countries” is rather ambiguous. This raises questions about whether the expression refers to all Francophone countries and why it is expressed in the plural form. This ambiguity appears to reflect the idea of “Francophone identity.” This “collective reference” shows that Tunisia is part of the Francophone world on equal standing, bracketing the question of the historical reasons for this inclusion; otherwise, it would not be possible to promote the policy of preserving its language. French is therefore presented as an essential part of the Tunisian linguistic identity.

The Promotion of English

A third identified sub-theme under the broader theme of “language policy voices” is the promotion of English. In Ben Ali’s second speech (2008), the use of the verb to be “is” in the first sentence “mastering a second language or more is, for learners, a valuable gain [...]” (p. 1) functions as an identifying process, framing “mastering a second language” as a solution to social issues, such as employment and communication.

According to the president, teaching foreign languages serves two primary aims. The first aim is to enhance the employability of graduates, explicitly stated as “to increase the employability of the graduates of our education and training system” (p. 1). The second aim highlights the necessity of foreign languages for intercultural communication, offering “vast opportunities for communication with the other” (p. 1). This political speech can be interpreted as a response to globalization, which increasingly necessitates proficiency in English. It suggests that the ability to communicate in a foreign language, particularly English, is an essential skill for meeting global needs.

This speech can also be seen as a call for educational reforms, although it lacks specific details on implementation. The use of the personal pronoun “we” and the possessive pronoun “our” conveys inclusivity, presuming the involvement of the citizens in the process

of improving language education. It implies an “adaptive policy” based on collective participation in enhancing the status of languages.

It is worth noting that President Ben Ali’s first speech (2008) on the preservation of French provides a context for understanding the dominance of this language. It appears that policymakers favor maintaining the French language’s prominence. In contrast, Ben Ali’s (2008) second speech implicitly supports the promotion of the status of English. His reference to “foreign languages” and “a second language” indicates that English is the target language for promotion.

In conclusion, the analysis reveals three distinct voices from the discourse on LP. The first concerns protecting the Arabic language as a symbol of Tunisian national identity. The second voice emphasizes the preservation of the French language, while the third voice reflects the promotion of the status of English. These texts illuminate the tension between the three languages in Tunisia. It is worth mentioning that there is no clear official declaration regarding the positions of French and English within the national LP. The assumption that French is the first foreign language and English is the second seems to reflect the order in which these languages are introduced in the educational system.

Multilingualism

The most prominent voice, which is directly or actively present in the third extract from the 2017 report, is a call to promote foreign languages. The report shows an intention to pursue multilingualism. The expression “foreign languages” is emphasized through repetition, appearing six times, which suggests a new vision of the Tunisian government that encourages the teaching of foreign languages in HE. This repetition also indicates an increased awareness among Tunisian policymakers of the importance of teaching foreign languages, particularly English, as illustrated by the expression “essentially English,” which highlights the privileged status of English.

Moreover, the extract contains explicit textual items that depict the hierarchical positions of languages, such as “foreign languages (French and English),” “other foreign languages (German, Italian or Spanish),” and “third foreign languages.” This hierarchy indicates that French and English are considered the primary foreign languages in Tunisia, while German, Italian, and Spanish are considered optional.

Despite the distinction drawn between foreign languages and other foreign languages, the status of these languages remains ambiguous. The third extract from the 2017 report states that optional languages are considered “third languages,” implying that French is the first foreign language and English is the second foreign language. This raises the question: why are French and English categorized as “foreign languages”? A possible explanation is the lack of official policy documents clarifying the status of these languages.

The Importance of English

The importance of English is another theme that emerged from the desk research data. In contrast to the previously discussed reports, an interview conducted in 2014 with one of the Tunisian ministers of higher education brought a new theme into discussion, centered on the importance of English. The interview reveals different levels of modality: “need to,” and “must.” The model “need to” indicates necessity, whereas the model “must” implies obligation, reflecting the degrees of duty and responsibility. Notably, the promotion of the status of English is associated with obligation, presented to enhance employability. This shows that the use of authoritative language often establishes top-down directives.

Additionally, the minister’s use of the term “disconnect” and the impersonal sentences “there has been a disconnect” and “one way is to encourage more vocational training” implies a lack of accountability for the mismatch between universities and the ecosystem. Moreover, the use of the pronouns “we” and “our” suggests an inclusive approach, indicating that the responsibility for promoting English language training does not limit its coverage to policymakers but extends to all Tunisians. This inclusive language style emphasizes the idea that promoting English is a collective responsibility.

The repetition of the word “English” twice highlights its value for career development compared to other languages. English is described as an important language for practical, economic, and internationalizing purposes. This situation indicates that it is true that the politically motivated awareness and preference for English have started a long time ago, but this concern does not seem to reach the grassroots level, as policymakers have different priorities and are still not implementing a new policy that unequivocally promotes the status of English.

To recap, the minister’s speech shows that the core ideology is the promotion of languages, particularly English. He suggested revising the current LP documents,

emphasizing the importance of English by giving it prominence over other languages. This speech thus signifies an ideological standpoint among Tunisian policymakers, and reflects a political awareness of the necessity of English.

Language Choice in Research

Table 6.4 presents several Tunisian journals and the language(s) of publication:

Table 6.4

Language Choice for Publishing

Journals	Language Choice	Editorial Policy
حوليات الجامعة التونسية [<i>Annals of the Tunisian University</i>]	Arabic	“The language of publication is not stated but all published articles are in Arabic” (n.p.).
<i>Synergies Tunisie [Synergies Tunisia]</i>	French	“Language of publication: French” (n.p.).
<i>International Journal of Applied Research on Textile</i>	English	“Language of publication: English” (n.p.).
<i>International Journal of Modern Anthropology</i>	English	“The journal receives manuscripts only in English from all over the world. Authors whose mother tongue is not English should have the manuscript checked by a native English speaker prior to submission” (n.p.).
<i>-Journal of Academic Finance</i>	French and English	“une revue bilingue (Français / Anglais)’: A bilingual journal (French/English)” (n.p.).

Table 6.4 (continued)

Journals	Language Choice	Editorial Policy
<p>-The <i>International Journal of Humanities and Cultural Studies</i></p> <p>-<i>La Tunisie Médicale</i> [<i>Medical Tunisia</i>]</p> <p>-<i>Tunisian Journal of Medicinal Plants and Natural Products</i></p>	French and English	<p>“The IJHCS publishes works both in English and in French languages” (n.p.).</p> <p>“There is no data on the language(s) of publication but from the published papers, we can say this journal publish in both French and English” (n.p.).</p> <p>“Language: English and French” (n.p.).</p>
<p>- <i>Navigation in Arts and Humanities</i></p> <p>- <i>Studies in Humanities</i></p> <p>-<i>The Journal of Arts and Humanities</i></p> <p>- <i>Les Cahiers de Tunisie</i> [<i>The Notebooks of Tunisia</i>]</p>	Arabic, French, and English	<p>“Languages: Arabic, French and English” (n.p.).</p> <p>““<i>Les Cahiers de Tunisie</i> [<i>The Notebooks of Tunisia</i>]’ welcomes original and unpublished contributions in human and social sciences and literature in the form of articles and reports, in Arabic, French and English” (n.p.).</p>
<p>-The <i>Tunisian Journal of Mathematics</i></p>	French, English, and other languages	<p>“Articles in <i>TJM</i> are usually in English or French, but articles written in other languages are welcome” (n.p.).</p>

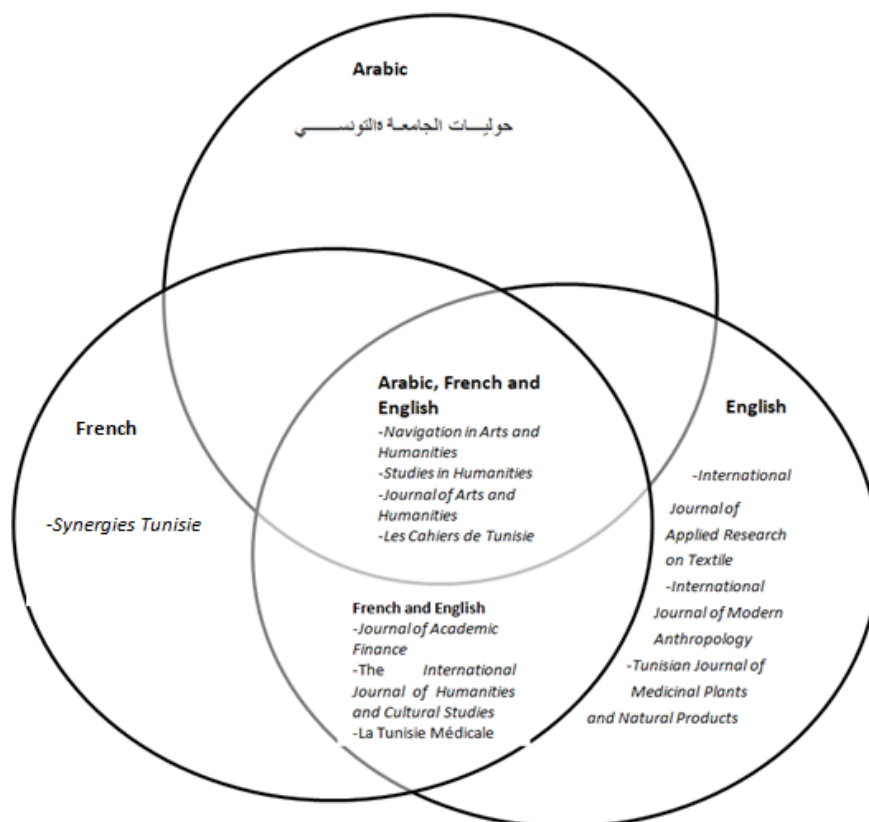
Table 6.4 shows a variety of editorial policies. Some journals publish exclusively in Arabic, French, or English. Others publish in both French and English, while a third type publishes in Arabic, French, and English. Notably, a fourth type of journal, namely the *Tunisian Journal of Mathematics*, demonstrates flexibility by publishing articles in French and English and by accepting articles in other languages.

The choice of language(s) used by these journals is likely influenced by their aims and scope. For example, the journal *Studies in Humanities* publishes articles in all three languages because of its focus on the humanities, language, and literature. In addition to the journals' aims and scope, the editorial policy also plays a significant role in determining the language(s) for publication, as indicated in the table above.

Figure 6.2 visualizes the journals and their language(s) for publication:

Figure 6.2

The Language(s) for Publication



It is worth noting that Arabic is used exclusively in journals dedicated to the humanities, arts, and literature. In contrast, French is utilized to publish research in all fields and English is used in both humanities and sciences. This distribution mirrors the language situation in Tunisian HE, where Arabic is used only to teach Arabic language and literature. French serves as the medium of instruction for scientific disciplines.

What is also remarkable is that English is the common language across all the cited journals except those that publish exclusively in Arabic or French. This likely reflects the awareness of Tunisian academicians of the global importance of English. The preference for English in academic publications unequivocally demonstrates its preeminence as the primary language of academic research. Additionally, this choice may be driven by the intention to reach an international audience, as English is the most widely used language in the academic community. For example, *La Tunisie Médicale* [*Medical Tunisia*] publishes in English with the aim “to promote research in the field of health in Tunisia, the Maghreb and Africa in general” (n.p., my English translation)¹³. There appears to be an effort to attain high international recognition for these journals. This is explicitly stated in the editorial policy of the *Tunisian Journal of Mathematics*, which aims to meet high international standards.

This chapter aimed to introduce and analyze the major LP documents. The results demonstrated notable similarities with those of the previous chapters, highlighting several recurring themes, such as LP voices and language-related issues. It is also noticeable that some of the analyzed texts contradict the reality of language practices and beliefs observed. This discrepancy suggests that the LP documents may not reflect the actual language use. These points will be taken up in the Discussion Chapter (Chapter 7).

¹³ “Elle vise à promouvoir la recherche dans le domaine de la santé en Tunisie, au Maghreb et en Afrique en général” (*La Tunisie Médicale*, p.1, French original).

Chapter 7. Overall Discussion

After presenting the results of the four studies, this chapter aims to answer the research questions and discuss the findings in relation to the previous literature. It also offers a discussion of the results from the four studies, highlighting key issues related to language practices and policies. The chapter begins with a restatement of the research questions, followed by detailed answers grounded in the research findings. It concludes with a proposed provisional holistic model for LP and a discussion of its usefulness.

This dissertation addresses the following research questions: 1) To what extent and in what contexts are Arabic, French, and English used in Tunisian higher education? 2) What are the functions of language switching? 3) What are the norms that govern language choice and language switching? 4) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the frequency and preference for using English and the reasons for using it in higher education? 5) What are the Tunisian university tutors' and students' perceptions of the promotion of English and its use as a Medium of Instruction in higher education? and 6) What regulations should the Tunisian government and the Ministry of Higher Education implement to promote the status of English, according to the informants?

To answer these questions, four investigations were conducted, including observations in both formal and informal settings, questionnaires, interviews, and desk research. The data was analyzed using the CCM. The presentation of the results follows the structure of the theoretical framework adopted in this dissertation, which consists of three main components: language practices, language beliefs, and language management (regulations).

7.1 Language Practices in Tunisian Higher Education

To address the first three research questions—1) To what extent and in what contexts are Arabic, French and English used in Tunisian higher education? 2) What are the functions of LS? and 3) what are the norms that govern LC and LS? — The observations were conducted in both informal settings (university corridors, libraries, and canteens) and formal settings (classrooms). Additionally, the results from the first part of the interview on language use aimed to complement the observational data in answering the first two research questions.

Observations in informal settings revealed the use of several languages, including Arabic, French, English, Spanish, and others. There was a notable interplay among these

languages during interactions. LC and LS in informal settings can be attributed to several factors, reflecting the speakers' multilingual repertoires and their individual preferences. In some interactions, speakers switched from a language to another to comply with their interlocutor's LC. However, in other interactions, speakers used different LCs. The interplay between Arabic and French in the speech of female speakers may serve for prestige purposes, as French is perceived as the language of modernity in Tunisia.

The classroom observations revealed diversity in language use. Some classrooms are monolingual, using a single language of instruction. In other classrooms, French is the primary medium of instruction, with Arabic and English serving as support languages. The results indicate that these three languages have a complementary relationship: French is the language of instruction; Arabic is used to facilitate students' comprehension; and English is used to clarify key terms.

Several norms govern LC and alternation practices. The first norm of LC includes a French monolingual medium, in which tutors prevent students from using any other language. The second norm accounts for the use of an English monolingual medium, in which both tutors and students communicate exclusively in English. A third norm involves shared preferred languages between tutors and students, with those languages adopted as the medium of classroom interaction. Observations in informal settings also revealed instances of conflicting norms, in which a student refused to comply with the LC established by the librarian (Interaction 2; see Chapter 3, section 3.4.2 above).

Furthermore, the study identified three major factors influencing linguistic behaviours and LC in the classroom. The results showed that Arabic is primarily used for explanation, providing and clarifying instructions and maintaining discipline. English is used for terminology (Gumperz, 1982). The use of language alternation appears to be unsystematic, unplanned, and does not serve the purpose of the declared policy.

The classroom observation data are corroborated by the interviews with professors that reveal actual classroom practices. Based on the interview findings, two professors exclusively use the language of instruction for teaching, lecturing, answering students' questions, and explaining inquiries. In contrast, eight professors reported using Arabic as a support language to facilitate students' understanding of the subject content. The result, that shows the use of Arabic and French equally in classrooms, is further supported by the observations in informal

settings and the interviews. Notably, linguistic flexibility was observed, with both tutors and students switching between various languages to communicate in the classroom.

While discussing language use, it is important to address the recurring theme of language choice, which consistently emerged from the open-ended questions, interviews, and desk research. Although the questionnaire and interviews were conducted in Arabic, the informants responded in Arabic, French, and English. This preference for multiple languages likely reflects the informants' multilingual backgrounds. Furthermore, the use of Arabic, French, and English in issuing LP documents may also highlight this multilingual aspect.

Previous research (e.g., Bach Baoueb & Toumi, 2012; Sayahi, 2011; Lawson & Sachdev, 2000) reported similar results. For example, Bach Baoueb and Toumi's (2012) research examined the use of LS in both controlled (classroom) and uncontrolled (informal interactions outside the classroom) contexts. Their findings demonstrated that the informants employed Tunisian Arabic and French LS. French is the predominant language used in both controlled and uncontrolled contexts, serving various communicative functions.

7.2 Language Beliefs

The language beliefs section presents the questionnaire respondents' perceptions of the frequency and preference for using English and the reasons for its use. The findings from both the questionnaire and interviews provide answers to the questions on the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French in HE.

7.2.1 Frequency and Preference for Using English

The results of the first construct of the questionnaire on "the frequency and preference for using English" are divided into three parts based on the usefulness, frequency, and preference measurements. The usefulness measurement results reported that the respondents generally responded favorably to the statements. They demonstrated a positive attitude towards learning English, emphasizing its usefulness in reading books, watching films, and sending emails.

The frequency measurement results demonstrated that English is used for various communicative purposes. English is employed on social networks, online discussions (e.g., blogs), and interactions between friends and colleagues. The results showed that the frequent use of English on social networks was rated high, indicating the widespread use of this

language among Tunisians. Additionally, English is used for entertainment purposes, including listening to music and watching films.

The findings of the preference measurement showed that most respondents agreed with the statements, showing a preference for “speaking English rather than French” (34% strongly agree and 22% agree), writing messages and comments in English (30% strongly agree and 41% agree), watching movies in English (45% agree and 43% strongly agree), and listening to music in English (45% strongly agree and 36% agree). These results indicate that the majority of the respondents were positive about using English for communication.

7.2.2 Reasons for Using English

The questionnaire results demonstrated that English is used in various domains, including education, work, research, and communication. In education, 55% of respondents agreed and 29% strongly agreed with the statement “I study English at university as a subject” (Reason b). Most of the respondents agreed that English is taught as a subject at universities. Furthermore, a significant portion of the respondents acknowledged the importance of English for achieving high scores in proficiency exams such as TOEFL and IELTS, with 37% agreeing and 37% strongly agreeing.

Proficiency in English has become a requirement in the workplace. The ability to communicate effectively in English is often considered a prerequisite for employment. Therefore, the statement “I use English in my work” (Reason g) was rated high, with 29% agreeing and 39% strongly agreeing. Moreover, the results showed that English is a key requirement for job opportunities both in Tunisia and abroad, 43% of the questionnaire respondents strongly agreed, and 45% agreed with the statement: “I learn English to get a better job in Tunisia” (Reason d). Additionally, 31% agreed, and 55% strongly agreed with the statement “I learn English to get job opportunities abroad” (Reason e). Based on these results, English language proficiency is perceived as a valuable asset for enhancing employability and career prospects in both national and international job markets.

Academic research is another key motivation for using English. The statements “I write my academic/scientific articles in English” (Reason h) and “I give presentations/lectures in English” (Reason i) received the highest percentage. The respondents equally agreed: 50% agreement (34% strongly agreed and 22% agreed) with the first statement and 50% agreement (32% strongly agree and 24% agree) with the second statement. Besides education, work, and

research, English is used for communication, mainly on social networks. 44% of the respondents agreed, and 33% of them strongly agreed with the statement “I use English in social networks” (Reason m). These results suggest that English functions as the language of global communication.

Based on the findings, English is positively associated with education, work, academic research, and communication. These findings are in line with previous literature (e.g., Badwan, 2019; Rahal, 2023a), which demonstrates that English is required across all domains, highlighting its crucial role in global communication and research.

7.2.3 Promotion of the Status of English, Arabic, and French

To report the results on the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French, the respondents' views on the languages of instruction will be presented. This will be followed by suggestions for promoting the positions of the three languages.

The results regarding the languages of instruction elicited different views. 92% of the questionnaire respondents agreed that courses should be taught in English rather than French. Additionally, 61% and 52% disagreed with the statements “University courses and exams should be conducted in Arabic” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. a), “French should remain the language for instruction of university courses and exams” (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. b), respectively. These findings suggest that the majority of respondents prefer EMI.

Based on the results of the open-ended questions and the interviews, the respondents proposed several practical strategies to enhance the status of English. These include creating university clubs, organizing training sessions for both tutors and students, and increasing English teaching hours in the curricula. Notably, these strategies are short-term solutions, indicating that the questionnaire respondents and the interviewed professors are aware of the situation of the country, which may impede radical changes and the implementation of EMI. The suggested strategies also emphasize the necessity of involving local agents in developing the status of English at the local level.

Additionally, the informants emphasized the role of central agents, particularly the MHE, in intensifying English teaching hours and implementing EMI. They overwhelmingly acknowledged that using EMI could facilitate communication with individuals from diverse

linguistic and cultural backgrounds, promote interaction with the international community of researchers and educators, and enhance international mobility.

7.2.4 The Use of English as a Medium of Instruction

The questionnaire and interview results revealed a positive attitude towards the use of EMI in HE. The questionnaire respondents and the interviewed professors argued that the use of EMI can improve the English proficiency of both tutors and students, thereby enhancing better career prospects and advancing academic research.

Although there is a positive attitude towards implementing EMI in HE, the questionnaire respondents and the interviewed professors identified several challenges. These challenges can be classified into micro-level and macro-level issues. The micro-level issues include limited English proficiency among both tutors and students, as well as a lack of teaching resources. The macro-level issues pertain to LP concerns, such as the discrepancy between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs and the absence of clear plans and strategies to enhance the status of English.

This finding aligns with previous research, specifically Rahal (2023a), who found a positive attitude towards the use of EMI in Tunisian higher education to develop students' and tutors' English proficiency, find job opportunities, and promote research. Previous research (e.g., Badwan, 2019; Lassadi, 2015) also highlighted challenges hindering EMI implementation, including limited English proficiency of both tutors and students.

7.3 Regulations

The findings from the questionnaires and interviews highlighted the regulations that should be implemented by the Tunisian MHE and the Tunisian government. These include establishing clear strategies and plans to promote the status of English, implementing educational reforms, and encouraging international cooperation.

Clear Plans and Strategies

The results of the open-ended questions and interviews highlighted the absence of a clear LP discourse and the lack, or inadequacy of policies. Additionally, the interviewed professors argued that the government and the MHE should develop clear strategies and plans to promote the status of all languages, particularly English. Therefore, language policies should

be adapted to reflect ongoing changes in the higher education context, including the policies practiced in classrooms.

Educational Reforms

The discrepancy between regulations and the practiced language policy highlights the need for new educational laws that address local needs. The *Educational Law of 2008* strongly recommends the consolidation of Arabic and the mastery of “foreign languages,” which remain unnamed. New reforms should be introduced to clarify the status of languages in HE and the mediums of instruction, as well as to establish practical plans to enhance their status.

International Cooperation

The results obtained of the questionnaires and interviews indicated that the Tunisian government should encourage more cooperation with English-speaking countries, including the UK and the USA, to develop the status of English. They also recommended developing international cooperation with Arabic-speaking countries and France to promote the status of Arabic and French, respectively. Specific strategies for the internationalization process are necessary to promote international mobility and support collaborative international research projects.

7.4 Issues in Tunisian Higher Education

Based on the results stipulated earlier (in Chapters 3, 4, 5, and 6), this section addresses several questions related to LP issues and language practices issues. These include the discrepancy between policy and practice, the mismatch between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs, and the arbitrariness of regulations.

7.4.1 Language Policy Issues

Discrepancy between Language Policy and Classroom Practice

One issue concerns the discrepancy between LP and classroom practices. The results of classroom observations contradict the expectations set by the declared policy. Based on the *Educational Law of 2008*, both French and Arabic are used to teach various disciplines. However, in practice, Arabic is frequently employed as a support language in French-medium of instruction classrooms. This indicates a mismatch between the declared policy and de facto language practices. In this context, Spolsky (2004) asserted that “the explicit policy written in the constitution and laws is likely to have no more effect on how people speak” (p. 222),

suggesting that written texts do not influence the practiced policy. Thus, the real policy emerges from actual language use.

Discrepancy between Top-down Decisions and Bottom-up Needs

Another related issue is the discrepancy between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs. The interviewed professors emphasized the lack of a compromise between their needs and the regulations. They stated that the dominant language of instruction at Tunisian universities is French, while tutors, researchers, and PhD students are required to publish and deliver their conference presentations in English.

A second example is the Arabization of scientific subjects in the training of future primary school tutors. The interviewed professors stated that this decision was made without considering the tutors' linguistic competence in Arabic. These professors were trained in French, making it difficult for them to teach Chemistry, Mathematics, and Physics in Arabic due to their limited knowledge of scientific terminology in Arabic.

Arbitrariness of Regulations

Another point to discuss here is the gap between regulations and reality. As mentioned above, the Arabization of scientific subjects in the training of future primary school tutors not only poses challenges for teaching but also reveals the arbitrariness of the regulations. This decision was implemented without considering tutors' perceptions, who are the sole implementers in language classrooms.

This finding inevitably questions the arbitrariness of regulations that fail to meet the needs of local agents. Badwan's (2019) research also reported the absence of clear plans in Tunisian HE to prevent misalignment between regulations and needs, asserting that policymakers ignore the agentive role of "implementers."

7.4.2 Language Practices Issues

Classroom Rules

The classroom observations reveal diverse language use behaviours. In several classes, the language of instruction is French, but tutors and students switch to Arabic and English. Language alternation is an accepted practice in these classes. It was also observed that some

classes remain primarily in French or English, demonstrating a monolingual LP, in which tutors use only one language and prevent students from using any other code.

These classroom language behaviours reflect a considerable tension between official policies and “on the ground” practices. Official documents specify Arabic and French as the languages of instruction, and each language is employed to teach a number of disciplines. However, the classroom observations reveal that tutors and students often deviate from the prescribed LP by using languages other than those officially designated for instruction.

The results of the classroom observations demonstrated that tutors and students switched to Arabic and English as support languages in French-medium of instruction classrooms. The use of LS is not only seen as a reflection of limited language proficiency; rather, it serves as a communicative strategy that facilitates interaction between tutors and students. This raises the question of whether tutors and students are adhering to unspoken rules or non-verbally negotiated behaviours. Can this be considered a classroom policy? Or is it a form of a language policy?

To address these inquiries, Spolsky and Shohamy (2000) suggested that one way to discover a LP is by examining its “nonobservance” (p. 29). I believe that the identified norms underlying the LC patterns and implicit rules demonstrate the existence of a practiced classroom language policy.

Language Switching, Borrowing or Translanguaging

A key finding from the observation data is the alternation between language codes and the use of LS. The example presented in Interaction 9 (see Chapter 3, section 3.5.2) can be formally labelled as LS, as it involves one language followed by another, particularly in Lines 03, 06, and 12. However, in other interactions, tutors and students inserted words to fill gaps, link ideas, or provide terminology (Gumperz, 1982). It remains unclear whether this mixing is actually LS or borrowing. It appears that tutors and students used the languages available in their linguistic repertoire as communicative codes. This practice may be termed translanguaging, referring to the construction of language practices and behaviours (García & Wei, 2014).

Pedagogical Classroom Practices

The results of the observations showed that the interactions were conducted in four different mediums. These include a French-monolingual medium, an English-monolingual medium, a French-Arabic bilingual medium, and a French-Arabic-English multilingual medium. A key finding from the interviews and observations is that translanguaging played a prominent role in the teaching-learning process. The alternation between Arabic, French, and English is not only permitted by the tutor but also incorporated as a teaching tool to enhance students' understanding.

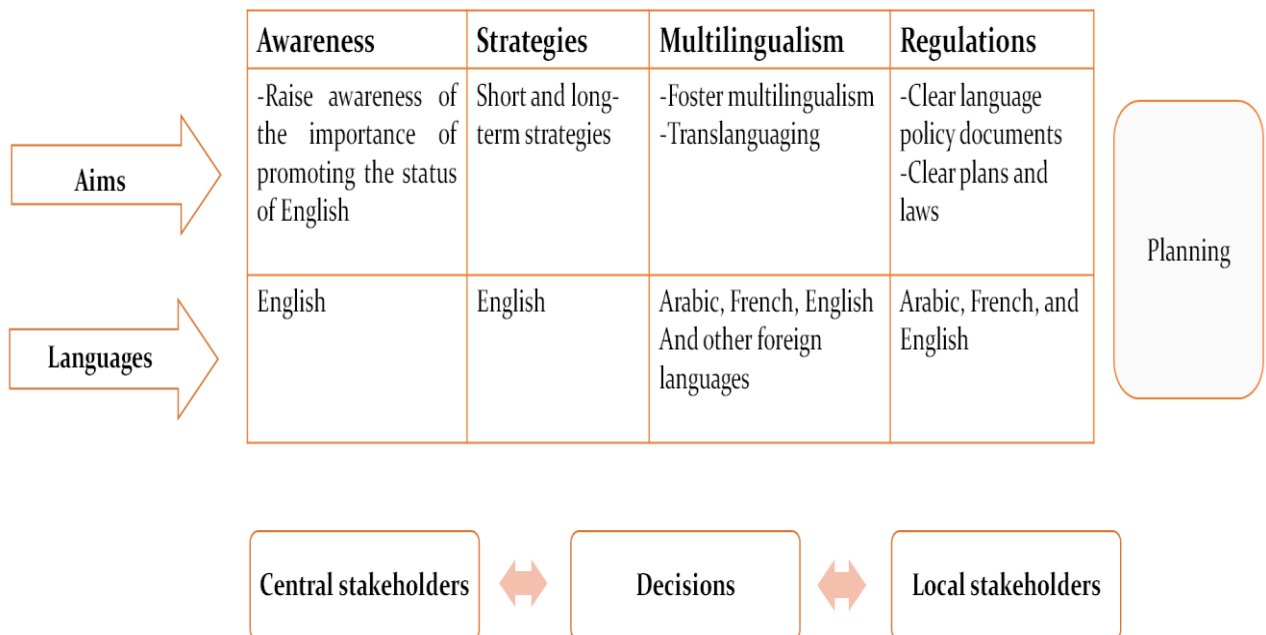
This result should be taken into account when designing curricula. Tutors should be aware of multilingual practices and adopt pedagogical approaches that meet students' needs. For example, translanguaging should be used as a pedagogical tool to support “learners to make meaning and learn” (García & Wei, 2014, p.120).

After investigating the identified themes and sub-themes and examining LP and practices issues, the following provisional model is suggested to address these challenges and bridge the gap between local stakeholders' needs and regulations.

7.5 Provisional Holistic Model for Language Policy

Cooper's (1989) four dimensions guided me in developing a provisional model for LP, derived from the emergent themes and sub-themes, and from the observed language practices and LP issues. The four dimensions are “who plans what for whom and how?” (Cooper, 1989, p. 31). To answer this question, the developed model aims to raise awareness of the importance of promoting the status of English and other languages, involve both central and local stakeholders in LP planning, creation, and implementation, and foster multilingualism. Therefore, tutors, researchers, students, and policymakers should collaborate to determine policy goals and align the divergence between top-down and bottom-up approaches.

Figure 7.1 is a visual representation of the main components of this model:

Figure 7.1*Provisional Holistic Model for Language Policy (Author's own Figure)*

To read the figure, we should move from the bottom to the top, then from left to right. The model consists of several components, which will be discussed below: Stakeholders, decisions, awareness, strategies, multilingualism, and regulations. These aims should be applied to all languages, particularly English.

Stakeholders: Policy Actors

The results of the questionnaire and interviews highlight the frequent use of the inclusive pronoun “we” and the need to involve diverse policy actors in the formulation and implementation of language policies. As illustrated in Figure 7.1 above, policy decisions should be viewed as a point of intersection. Local stakeholders (tutors and students) should be engaged in the policy process, as they are “final arbiters of language policy implementation” (Menken, 2008, p. 5).

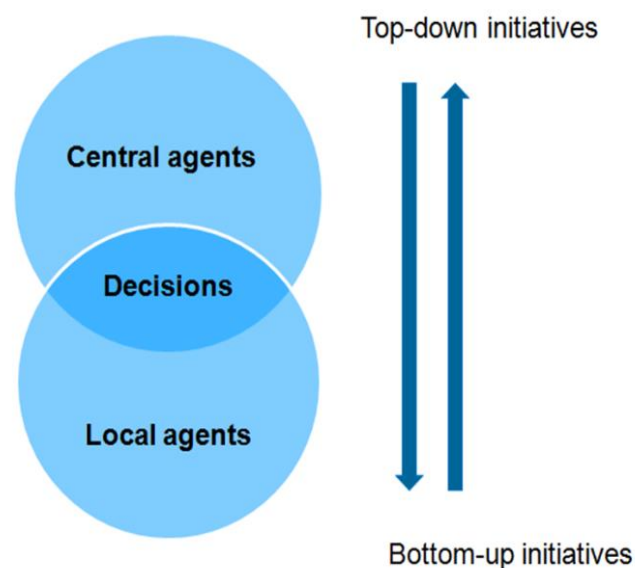
Furthermore, addressing LP issues, including the mismatch between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs and the discrepancy between the declared policies and the de facto language practices, highlights the need for an interactive policymaking approach in which Tutors and students are also policy arbiters. This inclusive model should consider

“local actors’ sense-making in the implementation of policy” at the micro level (Levinson et al., 2009, p. 780). Communication between central and local stakeholders allows us “to see the practice that goes into creating and sustaining the sedimented common sense of policy and [...] to see the practice of policy appropriation, for which local interests and meanings provide the basis” (Levinson et al., 2009, p. 789).

According to Rahal (2024), decision-making should be inclusive of all stakeholders, establishing a connection between micro-level (local agents, including tutors and students) and macro-level policies (central agents: policymakers), as illustrated in Figure 7.2 below. Micro-level policies include bottom-up initiatives and plans suggested by local agents. However, macro-level policies are top-down decisions made by policymakers.

Figure 7.2

Connection between the Macro-level and Micro-level Policies (Rahal, 2024, p. 9)



As illustrated in the figure above, the interaction among all stakeholders should be viewed as a dialogue characterized by a mutual influence rather than a simple transmission of knowledge. This model is based on a critical approach to LP, which seeks to “devolve its research and decision-making processes down as much as possible to the least of the stakeholders” (Corson, 1997, p. 177). Tutors, researchers, and students are not “mere policy implementers,” but they are “micro policymakers” (Cooper, 1989, p. 130).

Awareness

A fundamental component of the suggested model is awareness. This model aims to increase awareness and foster a deeper understanding and consideration of LP issues. Raising the awareness of central and local stakeholders of the importance of promoting the status of English and other languages is the first step towards change. Tutors should also be aware of language-related issues, such as students' limited proficiency in Arabic, French, and English, as well as pedagogical challenges, including insufficient teaching resources.

Short and Long-Term Strategies

The results indicate the necessity of proposing realistic strategies to develop the status of Arabic, French, English, and other foreign languages. The respondents of the questionnaires and interviews are aware of the linguistic situation in the country, particularly the dominance of French. Based on their responses, implementing a timely and radical shift to English as the language of instruction appears challenging. The informants recognize that such a decision requires time, effort, and clear strategies. Therefore, the interviewed professors and questionnaire respondents translated the needs of local stakeholders (students, tutors, and researchers) into practical strategies, which can be categorized into two: Short and long-term strategies.

Short-term strategies aim to improve the language proficiency of both tutors and students. These include the creation of university clubs, the organization of training programs, and the intensification of the teaching hours for English and other foreign languages. Long-term strategies, on the other hand, involve the internationalization of higher education by encouraging international cooperation, mobility, exchange programs, and the integration of EMI policy. Short-term strategies emphasize planning at the local level (universities, tutors, and students) rather than at the central level. However, long-term strategies can be implemented at various levels: At the local level, universities should organize training courses for both students and tutors to enhance their proficiency in English. At the central level, the MHE and the Tunisian government should issue the necessary regulations.

Multilingualism

The observations revealed several languages in both formal and informal settings, reflecting the informants' multilingual linguistic backgrounds. The results from the questionnaires, interviews, and desk research also demonstrated the presence of three voices: the protection of

Arabic, the preservation of French, and the promotion of English. These voices revealed the need to develop the status of these languages. Additionally, the lack of proficiency in Arabic, French and English also indicates the need to promote the status of these languages. Thus, the results of the four studies emphasized the importance of foreign languages.

Despite the *de facto* linguistic reality, the official LP discourse has prioritized the dominance of the French language, rather than a multilingual policy that encourages the promotion of all languages. This multilingualism is not, therefore, reflected in the LP documents. French is the dominant language of instruction, with English included only as a subject within the university's programs, although it is also the medium of instruction and the language of academic research.

The developed model calls for fostering multilingualism. Tutors should consider multilingual practices and adopt new pedagogical methods that actively support and promote multilingualism. Based on these findings, it is suggested that instructional goals in language education should be reviewed and adjusted to meet the needs of today's multilingual learners.

Translanguaging Pedagogy

The classroom observations showed that both tutors and students switched codes flexibly. Therefore, changes in pedagogical practices can be implemented. Tutors should incorporate pedagogical translanguaging to foster multilingualism. Pedagogical translanguaging is defined as a task “planned by the teacher inside the classroom and can refer to the use of different languages for input and output or to other planned strategies based on the use of students' resources from the whole linguistic repertoire” (Cenoz, 2017, p. 194). This approach needs to be adjusted “to suit local circumstances” (Rajagopalan, 2005, p. 119) and should align with the students' needs.

Regulations

The interviewed professors asserted that there is a lack of a clear LP discourse and insufficient LP documents. As previously mentioned (see Chapter 5, section 5.2.5), the professors highlighted several issues, such as the arbitrariness of decision-making and the Arabization of scientific subjects without adequately training tutors. This suggests that new strategies should be implemented to find a compromise between top-down and grassroots levels.

The policymaking process should be inclusive, considering the tutors' and students' experiences. Central and local stakeholders should collaborate to revise existing educational

laws and enact new legislation that addresses current needs. In addition to involving all agents in policy planning, effective policies should emerge from on-the-ground practices. The following are some suggestions:

The *Educational Law of 2008* should be revised:

Consolidate the use of the Arabic language and the mastery of foreign languages in order to interact with universal progress and the development of intellectual exchanges (*Article 2*, p. 844, my English translation).

The first observation is the association of the verb “consolidate” with Arabic, indicating that Arabic lacks a strong position and that its status should be enhanced. This reveals a contradiction: Arabic is the official language, and at the same time its status is not actively promoted. Moreover, the expression “foreign languages” mentioned in the law should be clarified: whether it refers to French, English, or other foreign languages.

The following extract from the 2017 report states that the languages of instruction are Arabic and French and that English should be taught in most programs. However, these points contradict the actual situation.

The languages of instruction are French and Arabic, but the institution may organize some courses in English or another foreign language. In fact, most programmes include an English module as a second foreign language (p.12).

The first contradiction is the absence of English, given that it is an official language of instruction in three HE institutions. The second contradiction is that the text suggests the possibility of organizing courses in English for most programs; however, in reality, English is a compulsory subject taught in all programs. The report should be revised to include English as another medium of instruction and to explicitly state that English is a compulsory second language taught in all programs.

7.6 The Usefulness of the Model

The analysis of the results revealed a lack of communication between policymakers and implementers. To address this issue, the developed LP model balances top-down directives and bottom-up needs. It identifies the main factors to be considered in creating a balance between regulations and local needs.

Furthermore, the model calls for an “adaptive language policy” that acknowledges the voices of all stakeholders and involves them in LP creation and implementation. First,

language planning should be a continuous process that incorporates both top-down and bottom-up approaches to address the needs and demands of the local context. Second, regulations should be issued based on the practiced language policy and the perceptions of local people. It is also essential for the MHE and the Tunisian government to effectively translate the needs of local agents into regulations.

Conclusion

The conclusion summarizes the main findings of the research, which are categorized into theoretical, empirical, and methodological conclusions. It also recapitulates the theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical implications, as well as implications for policymakers. Additionally, the limitations and directions for future research are presented.

Summary of the Main Findings

This dissertation provides a theoretical overview of LP as a multidisciplinary field of research. It demonstrates that LP is not a unitary concept limited to language management and regulations; rather, it includes practices and beliefs. Building on Spolsky's model (2004), Bonacina-Pugh (2012) presents a new conceptualization of LP as "an interconnected process generated and negotiated through texts, discourses and practices" (p. 216). In this dissertation, the researcher argues that "personal experiences [can be] viewed as part of the domain of language policy, since policies are generally created from the top-down, often to meet ideological or political agendas" (Shohamy, 2009, p. 185). The aim of this research is to demonstrate that the real LP should emerge from the grassroots level.

Four studies were conducted to investigate language practices, language beliefs, and language management (regulations). Study one aimed to explore the use of LC, focusing specifically on LS in Tunisian HE. Data was collected from both informal settings (university corridors, libraries, and canteens) and formal settings (classrooms). Various language practices were observed: a French monolingual medium, an English monolingual medium, a French-Arabic bilingual medium, and a French-Arabic-English multilingual medium.

These observations illuminated the de facto language practices, revealing a contradiction between classroom realities and the declared policies, or expectations of policymakers. The *Educational Law of 2008* states that the languages of instruction in HE are Arabic and French; however, in practice, French is the dominant medium of instruction, with Arabic and English serving as support languages in French-medium of instruction classes.

The results of the perception questionnaire were the focus of Study two. This study intended to investigate the frequency and preference for using English, the reasons for its use, and the promotion of the status of English, Arabic, and French in HE. Descriptive and inferential statistics were employed to analyze the data obtained from the closed-ended questions, while the CCM was used to analyze the data of the open-ended questions.

Descriptive statistics demonstrated that English is used across various domains, including education, work, research, and communication. The questionnaire respondents also expressed a positive attitude towards promoting the status of English, associating proficiency in English with improvements in the quality of education, job opportunities, and academic research. However, two other views emerged from the data: The need to protect the Arabic language and preserve French.

Despite the respondents' positive views, they identified several challenges that can impede the implementation of EMI. These challenges include tutors' and students' low proficiency in English, a lack of English-language resources, and the absence of clear strategies from the Tunisian MHE and the Tunisian government.

Conversely, inferential statistics did not show a significant correlation between all the statement variables and the sociolinguistic variables. The only significant correlation identified was between the variable age and the statement variables about listening to music in English (Use of Eng. h and o), the use of English in education, writing emails, and social networks (Reasons of Eng. a, k, and m) and organizing training in French (Promotion of Eng. vs. Arb. and Fr. j). Moreover, a correlation was found between the variable profession and the statement variable "I teach English at university" (Reason f).

Study three used interviews to complement the questionnaire data by exploring the attitudes of Tunisian professors towards language use in HE and their perceptions of LP discourses, and the status of Arabic, French, and English. It also examined ways to promote the position of these languages. The study reported findings on language practices, indicating the presence of monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual classrooms.

Regarding professors' language attitudes towards the LP situation, the mediums of instruction, and ways to enhance the status of languages, the interviews revealed new issues related to the absence of a clear LP discourse. This highlights the arbitrariness of regulations and the mismatch between these regulations and local needs.

The aim of the fourth study, desk research, was to examine LP documents and academic journals. Similar to the questionnaire results, the desk research data showed three voices: The protection of Arabic, the preservation of French, and the promotion of English. Additionally, the importance of English was recognized by the editorial statements of academic journals as the primary language for production and publication in academia.

Implications

The major implications of the research are divided into four areas: Theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical implications, and implications for policymakers.

Theoretical Implications

This dissertation investigated the interconnection between the three components of LP, language practices, language beliefs and language management, highlighting the importance of the exploration of language practices as an essential aspect of LP. This research thus presented a shift from LP as regulations to LP as practices. Martin (2005) summarizes this shift: “‘Top-down’ approaches, focusing on policy and planning decisions, have been brought together with ‘bottom-up’ accounts of what is actually happening at the classroom level” (p. 74). This new focus on language practices emphasizes the existence of a “practiced language policy” that should be part of the conceptualization of LP.

The second theoretical implication is indeed the importance of language practices in formulating LP. In observing recurrent language use patterns and alternations in analyzing the interactions, it appears that language practices should be acknowledged as a significant part of LP, emphasizing the role of speakers as agents in the policy process. As Spolsky (2004) puts it: “the real language policy of a community is more likely to be found in its practices than its management” (p. 222). The research illuminates how LP can be instantiated at the level of practices and adjusted to the local context.

This dissertation has also provided a new contribution to the field by identifying the alignment between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs, policies, practices, and beliefs. It shows the interaction among these three components by exploring their ongoing relationship. The suggested holistic model calls for opening a dialogue between all stakeholders and engaging them in decision-making.

Moreover, the findings can contribute to a better understanding of Tunisia’s language policies. LP is bilingual at the level of texts, using Arabic or French to teach a number of disciplines. However, the practiced language policy in both formal (classrooms) and informal settings (university corridors, libraries, and canteens) is multilingual. In several interactions, three languages are used as mediums of classroom practices depending on speakers’ needs and preferred codes.

Furthermore, the analysis of the challenges of implementing EMI reflected the low proficiency level of tutors and students in English. The interviews also demonstrated a lack of proficiency in Arabic, French, and English. An additional implication, therefore, should be rethinking LEP, mainly curriculum design, and implementing a multilingual LP to promote the status of these languages (Rahal, 2024).

The internationalization of HE is another implication. The findings showed the importance of the use of EMI as an internationalization policy, emphasizing the need for improving the position of English for several reasons. Proficiency in English is thus essential for the international rankings of Tunisian universities, the recognition of Tunisian degrees abroad, and high indexation of Tunisian academic journals.

Methodological Implications

Several methodological implications should be highlighted. One implication is ensuring trustworthiness as “an effective strategy to ensure research validity” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 165). This research employed a variety of techniques to enhance the credibility of the data and findings and to demonstrate that the entire research process is sound. Among the tools used to ensure trustworthiness are triangulation and reflexivity.

The present research aimed to use evidence from multiple sources highlighting the importance of triangulation. As previously mentioned (see Chapter 2, section 2.4), the research relied on data, investigator and methodological triangulation to provide a full account of the data and to better evidence the findings. Interestingly, the adopted theoretical framework (Spolsky, 2004) also contributes to triangulation by investigating the three levels of LP, practices, beliefs and regulations. Thus, triangulation enhances data credibility and strengthens the reliability of the findings.

Reflexivity is a recognition by researchers that they have “a significant influence on the development of the research and the engagement of the participants” (Curtin & Fossey, 2007, pp. 92-93). Researchers should acknowledge their influence on the research process and “bring [their] preconceived beliefs into the dialogue” (Harry et al., 2005, p. 7). In this research, I conducted qualitative research that can be reflexive in two directions: to show my influence on the research and the informants’ influence on me. The results of the think-alouds and Cronbach’s Alpha, for example, reflected my influence on the design and validation processes of the questionnaire. I was transparent about this influence, and I showed what did

not go well. Moreover, the influence of the interviewed professors was acknowledged when they deviated from the planned interview schedule.

Another methodological implication concerns data analysis. The CCM was used as a method of analysis and as a critical approach based on a comparative analysis. The coding process led to a detailed exploration of the data, a thorough interpretation of the responses, and a solid foundation for further analysis. It is an efficient research method that revealed the presence of recurrent themes. Hence, the systematic identification of codes and themes contributes to providing a rich description of the data analysis procedure.

Pedagogical Implications

The dissertation has some pedagogical implications. The interviewed professors explicitly recognized the lack of proficiency of students in the three languages, Arabic, French and English. This shows the vital importance of rethinking LEP, the status of these languages in the educational system, and examining LEP mechanisms such as curricula, textbooks, and assessment methods. As suggested, it is necessary to revise the curricula in HE by the inclusion of a holistic vision of internationalization based on intercultural dimensions and the development of language competence, particularly proficiency in English.

Based on the results of the open-ended questions, several obstacles prevent the use of EMI, including the lack of teaching resources and insufficient proficiency in English among both tutors and students. Rethinking the discussed issues can contribute to bridging the existing gap between internationalization policies and teaching and learning classroom realities.

Implications for Policymakers

The results of desk research showed the lack of LP documents and the absence of overt LP discourses. This is confirmed by the existence of one educational law issued in 2008 that states the languages of instruction. Therefore, educational reforms are required in the current situation. Classroom language practices and the needs of local stakeholders should be conceptualized in these reforms.

The results of the interviews demonstrated that LP is one of the “benign neglect” (Piller, 2016) topics in Tunisia. Policymakers should consider the issues raised in this research, including the mismatch between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs, and

between prescribed policies and de facto language practices, and formulate policies that balance the needs of local stakeholders with central interests.

It is important to pay sufficient attention to the current misalignment between language policies and tutors' and students' reported practices. Policymakers should set clear, locally relevant goals. As Canagarajah (2005) notes, "the field of LPP (language policy and practice) [should move] towards a more localised orientation that takes these tensions, ambiguities, and paradoxes seriously" (p.195). The suggested model emphasizes the agentive role of tutors and students in policy creation. Local agents should not be disregarded as key players in decision-making. Understanding the practices and perceptions of micro-level actors thus becomes crucial in LP formulation and implementation.

Limitations

Although this research provides valuable insights into the complexities of LP in Tunisia by incorporating perspectives from tutors, researchers, and students, it lacks the perceptions of meso-level actors. Relying on LP documents is insufficient to examine policymakers' recent perspectives. It would be interesting to conduct an interview with central agents (policymakers).

Moreover, the limitations of this research include the limited number of LP documents. Study four, desk research, is based solely on available documents, and I must acknowledge that there are internal policy texts that I was unable to access, such as governmental decrees and reports from national pedagogical centers. This might hinder the provision of a more holistic picture of the language situation and the LP background in Tunisia.

To answer the first three research questions about language practices, observations were used to collect data, which proved efficient for exploring language use and drawing conclusions. However, no methodological indications have been given so far to examine "practiced language policies." This lack of methodology could be a limitation of the research. Probably, other tools could be more efficient, such as Conversation Analysis (CA) because the term "practices" echoes CA's concept of "interactional norms" (Hymes, 1972).

Another limitation pertains to the coding system. The data from the four studies were coded individually without collaboration. It would be beneficial if the coding process was done by other researchers to get multiple perspectives, which would enhance the credibility

and reliability of the research. Additionally, the coding process was conducted manually without using coding software. This may consequently decrease the possibility of replicating the studies.

Directions for Future Research

This dissertation has sought to shed light on language policies in Tunisia, thus underlining the need for further research in this field. Possible areas for further research include investigating how local agents can be engaged in policymaking and contribute to LP development. LP should move beyond the top-down or bottom-up construct to a conceptualization of being a more dynamic, interactive, and nonlinear process (García, 2009).

It would be beneficial for future research to further explore the meso-level implications of these policies to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the topic. Thus, it is recommended to consider conducting interviews with policymakers and administrators to gain a more holistic view of the LP landscape in Tunisia. Additionally, examining the impact of these policies on the educational outcomes and social dynamics could further enrich the analysis.

In putting such questions up for debate, including the mismatch between the expectations of policymakers and the reality of classrooms and the disparity between top-down decisions and bottom-up needs, I hope that the results may provide an avenue for other researchers to highlight the importance of critically interrogating language policies, identifying discrepancies in LP formulation and implementation, and understanding the unspoken issues.

The theme of language choice occurred repeatedly across data. This may also offer insights and suggestions for investigating family policy to understand and explain the use of LS patterns. The alternation between languages could be explained by language use and its rules in families. Language choice can be greatly influenced by the familial background.

Moreover, future research can explore the relationship between LP and pluriculturation, as language and culture are closely interconnected. For example, it is worth investigating how pluriculturalism can influence LP to promote social inclusion by recognizing the diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds of individuals.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The Consent Form of the Questionnaire

Title of the study: The Status of English and Language Policies in Tunisia: Recent Attitudes

You are invited to participate in a research study on the recent status of English in Tunisia and language policy. We ask you to agree to fill in this questionnaire and at the end. You will find my name and my email, please contact me if you have any questions or comments.

The purpose of this study is to collect data on the recent status of English in Tunisia and the perceptions of Tunisians regarding the promotion of English in higher education.

The questionnaire is made for academic research. The results will be used for academic conference presentations and publishing purposes. This may include journal articles, conference papers and books. For the purpose of the research, all names will be anonymized and all information will be treated confidentially.

Participation is voluntary. If you decide not to take part in this study, there will be no negative consequences from this. You are free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason. But it will not be possible to withdraw your data from the study after the final analysis has been undertaken.

If you agree to participate, please tick the box.

Researcher: Aicha Rahal, aicha.rahall2016@yahoo.com

Appendix B: The English Version of the Questionnaire

Title: The recent status of English in Tunisia and perceptions on promoting it in higher education

1 Personal information

1.1 Gender: male: female:

1.2 Age:

1.3 Level of education:

1.4 Profession:

1.5 How many years have you been studying French?

.....

1.6 Your Knowledge of French:

a-I cannot understand and speak French.

b-I can understand French but I cannot speak it (I can understand French but I cannot participate in everyday conversations in French).

c-I can understand and speak French (I can participate in everyday conversations in French).

d-I can understand and speak French (I can use French for professional purposes, for example, reading professional literature, presenting in French, etc.).

1.7 How many years have you been studying English?

.....

1.8 Your knowledge of English:

a-I cannot understand and speak English.

b-I can understand English but I cannot speak it (I can understand English but I cannot participate in everyday conversations in English).

c-I can understand and speak English (I can participate in everyday conversations in English).

d-I can understand and speak English (I can use English for professional purposes, for example, reading professional literature, presenting in English, etc.).

2 Participants' opinions

2.1 Frequency and Preference for Using English

Please read each statement carefully; and then circle the number that best represents the level of your agreement to the statements.

EXAMPLE:

-I think that learning English is useful. -If you strongly agree that learning English is useful, circle 4 .	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly agree 4
--	------------------------	---------------	------------	---------------------

Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly Agree 4
a. I think that learning English is useful.	1	2	3	4
b. Reading books and articles in English is useful.	1	2	3	4
c. It is useful if English becomes the most frequent foreign language in Tunisia.	1	2	3	4
d. Watching movies in English is useful.	1	2	3	4
e. Writing emails and messages in English is useful.	1	2	3	4
f. I frequently speak English with my friends and colleagues.	1	2	3	4
g. I frequently read newspaper, magazines, and books in English.	1	2	3	4
h. I frequently listen to music in English.	1	2	3	4
i. I frequently use English in social networks.	1	2	3	4
j. I frequently participate in online discussions (e.g., weblogs, forums, etc.)	1	2	3	4
k. I prefer speaking English rather than French.	1	2	3	4
l. I prefer reading books and articles in English.	1	2	3	4
m. I prefer watching movies in English.	1	2	3	4
n. I prefer writing messages, comments, etc. in English.	1	2	3	4
o. I prefer listening to music in English.	1	2	3	4

2.2 Reasons for using English

Please circle the appropriate number.

Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly Agree 4
a. I Learn English to obtain a university degree in English.	1	2	3	4
b. I study English at university as a subject.	1	2	3	4
c. I learn English to obtain high scores in English examinations, such as TOEFL ¹⁴ , IELTS ¹⁵ , etc.	1	2	3	4
d. I learn English to get a better job in Tunisia.	1	2	3	4
e. I learn English to get job opportunities abroad.	1	2	3	4
f. I teach English at university.	1	2	3	4
g. I use English in my work.	1	2	3	4
h. I write my academic/scientific articles in English.	1	2	3	4
i. I give presentations/lectures in English.	1	2	3	4
j. I use English in presenting in conferences.	1	2	3	4
k. I use English in writing emails.	1	2	3	4
l. I search for information in English.	1	2	3	4
m. I use English in social networks.	1	2	3	4
n. I use English in everyday communication.	1	2	3	4

¹⁴ Test of English as a Foreign Language.

¹⁵ International English Language Testing System.

2.3 Promotion of English vs. Arabic and French in Tunisian higher education

What is your opinion of the following statements?

Please read each statement carefully; and then circle the number that best represents the level of your agreement to the statements.

Statement	Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Agree 3	Strongly Agree 4
a. University courses and exams should be conducted in Arabic.	1	2	3	4
b. French should remain the language of instruction for university courses and exams.	1	2	3	4
c. English should be the language of instruction in higher education.	1	2	3	4
d. University courses should be taught in English rather than French.	1	2	3	4
e. Universities should encourage the organization of Arabic clubs for students.	1	2	3	4
f. Universities should encourage the organization of French clubs for students.	1	2	3	4
g. Universities should encourage the organization of English clubs for students.	1	2	3	4
h. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should organize training in Arabic for university tutors to promote Arabization ¹⁶ .	1	2	3	4
i. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should organize training in Arabic for university students to promote Arabization.	1	2	3	4
j. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should organize training in French for university tutors to promote French.	1	2	3	4
k. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should organize training in French for university students to promote French.	1	2	3	4

¹⁶ Arabization is a policy to promote the status of the Arabic language.

l. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should organize training in English for university tutors to promote English.	1	2	3	4
m. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should organize training in English for university students to promote English.	1	2	3	4
n. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should encourage more national cooperation with British Council ¹⁷ Tunisia.	1	2	3	4
o. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should encourage more national cooperation with Amideast ¹⁸ Tunisia	1	2	3	4
p. The Tunisian Ministry of Higher education should encourage tutors' and students' exchange programs	1	2	3	4
q. The Tunisian government should promote the status of Arabic in higher education.	1	2	3	4
r. The Tunisian government should encourage the promotion of French in higher education.	1	2	3	4
s. The Tunisian government should encourage the promotion of English in higher education.	1	2	3	4
t. The Tunisian government should encourage the educational/academic cooperation with other Arabic countries.	1	2	3	4
u. The Tunisian government should promote the educational/academic cooperation with France.	1	2	3	4
v. The Tunisian government should promote the educational/academic cooperation with the UK, the USA, and Canada.	1	2	3	4

¹⁷ The British Council is a British organisation for international cultural and educational opportunities.

¹⁸ Amideast is a U S organization specialized in international education, training, and development.

3 Open-ended questions

3.1 What do you think about developing the status of English in Tunisian higher education? Why?

.....
.....

3.2 According to you, how can we develop the status of English in Tunisian higher education?

.....
.....

3.3 What do you think about using English as the language of teaching at Tunisian universities? Why?

.....
.....

3.4 In your opinion, what are the expected results of using English to teach courses at Tunisian universities?

.....
.....

Thank you for your time and cooperation

Appendix C: The Arabic Version of the Questionnaire

عنوان الدراسة: واقع الإنجليزية وسياسة اللغة في تونس: الاتجاهات الحديثة

الباحثة: عائشة رحال

البريد الإلكتروني: aicha.rahal2016@yahoo.com

استمارة موافقة

ندعوك للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية حول الواقع الحديث للغة الانجليزية وسياسة اللغة في تونس. ونطلب منك الموافقة على تعميم هذا الاستبيان، المرفق باسمي وبريدي الإلكتروني. ويرجى إرسال استفساراتكم وتعليقكم. إنَّ الغرض من هذه الدراسة هو جمع البيانات بخصوص الواقع الحديث للغة الانجليزية في تونس ورصد تصورات التونسيين في ما يتعلق بشيوع اللغة الانجليزية في الأوساط الأكاديمية التونسية. ان هذا الاستبيان مخصَّص للبحث الأكاديمي وسيتم استخدام النتائج المتوصَّل إليها في المحاضرات الأكاديمية والأوراق البحثية ويشمل ذلك المقالات والبحوث والكتب. وسيتم اخفاء هوية جميع المشاركين مع المحافظة على سرية المعلومات المدلى بها. ونحيطكم علماً أنَّ المشاركة طوعية وإذا قرَّرت عدم المساهمة في هذه الدراسة فلن نترتب عن ذلك أي نتائج سلبية، وبإمكانك سحب ما أدليت به متى شئت ذلك دون تقديم أسباب ذلك. والجدير بالذكر أنه ليس بإمكانك سحب مشاركتك بعد إجراء التحليل النهائي للبيانات.

يرجى وضع علامة في الخانة المناسبة، إن تمت الموافقة على المشاركة

استبيان

I. المعلومات الشخصية:

الجنس: أنثى ذكر

السِّن:

المدينة:

الانتماء العرقي:

المستوى الدراسي:

المهنة:

كم استغرقت دراستك للغة الفرنسية؟

.....

1. معرفتك باللغة الفرنسية:

- لا أستطيع فهم اللغة الفرنسية والتحدث بها.
 - بإمكانني فهم اللغة الفرنسية غير أنني لا أستطيع التحدث بها. (أفهم اللغة الفرنسية ولكن ليس بإمكانني إجراء الحوارات اليومية بها).
 - بإمكانني فهم اللغة الفرنسية والتحدث بها. (أستطيع استعمالها في المحادثات اليومية).
 - بإمكانني فهم اللغة الفرنسية والتحدث بها. (يمكنني استعمال اللغة الفرنسية لأغراض مهنية، على سبيل المثال: قراءة الكتب الأدبية، انجاز عروض)
- كم استغرقت دراستك للغة الانجليزية؟

.....

2. معرفتك باللغة الانجليزية:

- لا أستطيع فهم اللغة الانجليزية والتحدث بها.
- بإمكانني فهم اللغة الانجليزية غير أنني لا أستطيع التحدث بها. (أفهم اللغة الانجليزية ولكن ليس بإمكانني إجراء الحوارات اليومية بها).
- بإمكانني فهم اللغة الانجليزية والتحدث بها. (أستطيع استعمالها في المحادثات اليومية).
- بإمكانني فهم اللغة الانجليزية والتحدث بها. (يمكنني استعمال اللغة الانجليزية لأغراض مهنية، على سبيل المثال: قراءة الكتب الأدبية، انجاز عروض)

II. آراء المشاركين:

1. استعمالات اللغة الانجليزية:

رجاء اقرأ كل بيان بعناية وضع الرقم المناسب في دائرة.

اتبع هذا النموذج على سبيل المثال:

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	- أعتقد أن تعلم اللغة الانجليزية مفيد - إذا كنت توافق بشدة على أن تعلم اللغة الانجليزية مفيد ضع الرقم 4 في دائرة.
4	3	2	1	

أوافق بشدة	أوافق	لا أوافق	لا أوافق بشدة	الاقتراح
4	3	2	1	
4	3	2	1	أعتقد أن تعلم اللغة الانجليزية مفيد.

4	3	2	1	قراءة الكتب والمقالات باللغة الانجليزية مفيد.
4	3	2	1	من الجيد أن تصبح اللغة الانجليزية اللغة الاجنبية الأكثر شيوعا في تونس.
4	3	2	1	مشاهدة الأفلام باللغة الانجليزية مفيد.
4	3	2	1	كتابة رسائل البريد الالكتروني والرسائل باللغة الانجليزية مفيد.
4	3	2	1	كثيرا ما أتحدث بالانجليزية مع أصدقائي/ زملائي.
4	3	2	1	كثيرا ما أطلع الصحف والمجلات والكتب الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	أستمع كثيرا إلى أغان باللغة الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	استعمل الانجليزية كثيرا على شبكات التواصل الاجتماعي.
4	3	2	1	أشارك باستمرار في مناقشات افتراضية (مدونات ومنتديات) باستعمال اللغة الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	أفضل التحدث باللغة الانجليزية بدلا عن الفرنسية.
4	3	2	1	أفضل مطالعة المقالات والكتب باللغة الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	أفضل مشاهدة الأفلام الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	أفضل كتابة الرسائل والتعليق باللغة الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	أفضل الاستماع إلى الأغاني الانجليزية.

2. دوافع استخدام اللغة الانجليزية

رجاء ضع الرّقم المناسب في دائرة

الاقتراح	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
أتعلم اللغة الانجليزية للحصول على شهادة جامعية في هذا الاختصاص.	1	2	3	4
أدرس الانجليزية كمادة.	1	2	3	4
أتعلم الانجليزية لأحصل على درجات عالية في اختبارات مستوى اللغة الانجليزية (IELTS, TOEFL).	1	2	3	4
أتعلم الانجليزية للحصول على أفضل وظيفة في تونس.	1	2	3	4
أتعلم اللغة الانجليزية للحصول على فرص عمل في الخارج.	1	2	3	4
أدرس الانجليزية في الجامعة.	1	2	3	4
أستعمل الانجليزية في عملي.	1	2	3	4
أحرر مقالاتي الأكاديمية/العلمية بالانجليزية.	1	2	3	4
أقدم عروضي ومحاضراتي بالإنجليزية.	1	2	3	4
أستخدم الانجليزية في الندوات.	1	2	3	4
أستخدم الانجليزية في كتابة الرسائل الالكترونية.	1	2	3	4
أستعمل الانجليزية للبحث عن المعلومات.	1	2	3	4
أستعمل الانجليزية على شبكات التواصل الاجتماعي.	1	2	3	4
أستعمل الانجليزية في التواصل اليومي.	1	2	3	4

3 . دعم اللغة الانجليزية في التعليم العالي التونسي

ما رأيك في المقترحات التالية؟
رجاء اقرأ كل اقتراح بعناية وضع الرقم المناسب في دائرة

الاقتراح	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
من المستحسن إجراء الدروس والامتحانات باللغة العربية.	1	2	3	4

4	3	2	1	ينبغي أن تظل اللغة الفرنسية لغة التدريس والامتحانات الجامعية.
4	3	2	1	يستحسن أن تكون اللغة الانجليزية لغة التدريس في التعليم العالي.
4	3	2	1	يستحسن أن تكون الدروس الجامعية بالانجليزية عوض الفرنسية.
4	3	2	1	على الجامعات تشجيع الطلبة على تنظيم النوادي باللغة العربية.
4	3	2	1	على الجامعات تشجيع الطلبة على تنظيم النوادي باللغة الفرنسية.
4	3	2	1	على الجامعات تشجيع الطلبة على تنظيم النوادي باللغة الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية تنظيم دورات تدريبية في اللغة الانجليزية لمدرسي الجامعات.
4	3	2	1	على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية تنظيم دورات تدريبية في اللغة الانجليزية لفائدة طلبة الجامعات.
4	3	2	1	ينبغي على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية تشجيع المزيد من التعاون مع المجلس الثقافي البريطاني.
4	3	2	1	ينبغي على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية تشجيع المزيد من التعاون مع الامديست (الامديست هي منظمة أمريكية تعنى بأنشطة التعليم و التدريب).
4	3	2	1	ينبغي على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية تشجيع برامج تبادل المدرسين والطلبة (ارسال مدرسين وطلبة للاستفادة من خبرة المتكلمين الأصليين للغة الانجليزية).
4	3	2	1	على الحكومة التونسية تشجيع دعم اللغة الانجليزية.
4	3	2	1	ينبغي على الحكومة التونسية دعم التعاون العلمي والأكاديمي مع المملكة المتحدة والولايات المتحدة الأمريكية وكندا.

III . أسئلة مفتوحة:

(1) ما رأيك في تطور مكانة اللغة الانجليزية في التعليم العالي التونسي؟ ولماذا
حسب رأيك كيف يمكننا تطوير مكانة اللغة الانجليزية في التعليم العالي التونسي؟

.....
.....

(2) ما رأيك في اعتماد اللغة الانجليزية لغة تدريس في الجامعات التونسية؟ ولماذا؟

.....
.....

(3) حسب رأيك ما النتائج المتوقعة من استعمال اللغة الانجليزية في التدريس في الجامعات التونسية؟

.....
.....

Appendix D: Results of the Cronbach's Alpha Test

Table 1

Alpha Value for the First Construct

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,913	,915	15

Table 2

Total Item Correlation for the First Construct

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
UsesofEnglisha	43,120	59,577	,414	,563	,913
UsesofEnglishb	43,300	57,684	,563	,662	,910
UsesofEnglishc	43,540	54,621	,600	,598	,908
UsesofEnglishd	43,440	58,088	,398	,648	,913
UsesofEnglishe	43,540	54,907	,657	,660	,906
UsesofEnglishf	44,260	52,074	,714	,795	,903
UsesofEnglishg	44,280	52,900	,621	,819	,907
UsesofEnglishh	43,860	53,225	,588	,789	,908
UsesofEnglishi	44,300	52,133	,723	,743	,903
UsesofEnglishj	44,580	52,534	,676	,785	,905
UsesofEnglishk	43,920	53,136	,582	,653	,909
UsesofEnglishl	44,000	52,980	,670	,703	,905
UsesofEnglishm	43,740	53,992	,740	,807	,903
UsesofEnglishn	44,120	52,883	,667	,639	,905
UsesofEnglisho	43,720	53,634	,628	,798	,907

Table 3*Alpha Value for the Second Construct***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,902	,905	14

Table 4*Total Item Correlation for the Second Construct***Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Reasona	38,080	60,116	,304	,361	,907
Reasonb	37,640	60,807	,240	,216	,910
Reasonc	37,360	58,113	,566	,544	,897
Reasond	37,600	58,939	,349	,608	,906
Reasone	37,220	57,359	,535	,579	,898
Reasonf	38,200	58,122	,390	,497	,905
Reasong	37,700	53,643	,775	,747	,888
Reasonh	37,980	52,632	,807	,897	,886
Reasoni	38,120	53,863	,746	,819	,889
Reasonj	38,000	53,265	,794	,931	,887
Reasonk	37,980	53,612	,817	,856	,886
Reasonl	37,620	56,322	,695	,715	,892
Reasonm	37,760	57,247	,708	,706	,893
Reasonn	38,100	54,786	,763	,771	,889

Table 5*Alpha Value for the Third Construct***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,778	,845	14

Table 6*Total Item Correlation for the Third Construct***Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Pa	43,000	29,417	-,039	,467	,807
Pb	43,163	28,181	,053	,610	,806
Pc	42,367	24,654	,442	,881	,760
Pd	42,388	26,409	,266	,878	,779
Pe	42,633	27,237	,194	,576	,785
Pf	42,592	26,372	,237	,692	,784
Pg	41,980	25,854	,541	,546	,754
Ph	41,714	25,667	,708	,781	,746
Pi	41,714	25,917	,659	,676	,749
Pj	41,837	25,181	,700	,717	,743
Pk	41,796	25,207	,757	,903	,741
Pl	41,735	25,449	,739	,887	,743
Pm	41,776	25,386	,731	,873	,743
Pn	41,878	25,360	,556	,721	,751

Table 7*Alpha Value for the First Construct*

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,905	,904	15

Table 8*Total Item Correlation for the First Construct*

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
UEa	44,735	51,716	,263	,493	,908
UEb	44,912	49,113	,595	,603	,900
UEc	45,088	45,780	,674	,744	,896
UEd	44,882	49,683	,518	,702	,902
UEe	45,176	47,544	,634	,784	,898
UEf	45,559	47,648	,564	,586	,900
UEg	45,735	49,413	,369	,392	,906
UEh	45,147	48,372	,453	,728	,904
UEi	45,235	45,398	,798	,825	,892
UEj	45,706	43,729	,684	,740	,896
UEk	45,588	40,310	,802	,872	,891
UEl	45,647	44,296	,745	,649	,893
UEm	45,000	48,970	,537	,723	,901
UEn	45,471	44,923	,707	,712	,894
UEo	45,118	47,319	,557	,844	,900

Table 9*Alpha Value for the Second Construct***Reliability Statistics**

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,929	,927	13

Table 10*Total Item Correlation for the Second Construct***Item-Total Statistics**

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Reasona	37,588	51,159	,752	,775	,920
Reasonb	37,294	60,032	,096	,415	,941
Reasonc	37,412	54,613	,491	,657	,930
Reasond	37,353	51,569	,725	,695	,922
Reasone	36,941	55,451	,544	,602	,927
Reasong	37,353	50,357	,868	,864	,916
Reasonh	37,500	52,379	,692	,707	,923
Reasoni	37,441	50,981	,819	,895	,918
Reasonj	37,647	50,235	,840	,865	,917
Reasonk	37,324	52,771	,804	,880	,920
Reasonl	37,441	54,315	,589	,792	,926
Reasonm	37,235	52,852	,804	,930	,920
Reasonn	37,471	50,257	,825	,925	,918

Table 11*Alpha Value for the Third Construct*

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
,885	,892	22

Table 12*Total Item Correlation for the Third Construct*

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Pa	65,870	85,468	,279	.	,887
Pb	65,870	83,448	,396	.	,883
Pc	64,970	84,272	,408	.	,882
Pd	64,950	83,179	,564	.	,878
Pe	65,400	83,212	,459	.	,881
Pf	65,410	82,265	,467	.	,881
Pg	64,970	84,272	,408	.	,882
Ph	65,470	81,484	,536	.	,878
Pi	65,360	82,172	,518	.	,879
Pj	65,440	81,017	,584	.	,877
Pk	65,420	81,781	,523	.	,879
Pl	64,950	83,179	,564	.	,878
Pm	64,900	84,899	,522	.	,879
Pn	64,990	83,768	,580	.	,878
Po	64,980	83,111	,619	.	,877
Pp	64,860	85,475	,496	.	,880
Pq	65,060	83,653	,467	.	,880
Pr	65,340	83,136	,408	.	,883
Ps	64,970	84,696	,458	.	,881
Pt	65,080	84,559	,442	.	,881
Pu	65,350	82,573	,503	.	,879
Pv	64,900	84,232	,536	.	,879

Appendix E: Overall Results of the Closed-ended Questions

Table 1

Overall Results of the First Construct of the Questionnaire

Usefulness					
Statement	Use of Eng. a	Use of Eng.b	Use of Eng. c	Use of Eng. d	Use of Eng. e
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	3.650	3.490	3.140	3.530	3.240
Standard Deviation	.6093	.6113	.9537	.5588	.7929
Minimum	1.0	2.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 1 (continued).

Frequency					
Statement	Use of Eng. f	Use of Eng. g	Use of Eng. h	Use of Eng. i	Use of Eng. j
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.830	2.580	3.140	2.890	2.550
Standard Deviation	.8415	.8667	.9537	.9939	1.018
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 1 (continued).

Preference					
Statement	Use of Eng. k	Use of Eng. l	Use of Eng. m	Use of Eng. n	Use of Eng. o
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.730	2.690	3.240	2.980	3.160
Standard Deviation	1.108	.9178	.8423	.8987	.9611
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 2*Overall Results of the Second Construct of the Questionnaire*

	Reason a	Reason b	Reason c	Reason d	Reason e	Reason f	Reason g
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.770	3.060	3.070	3.040	3.080	2.980	2.880
Standard Deviation	.9519	.8143	.8675	.8636	.8013	.9533	.9351
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 2 (continued).

	Reason h	Reason i	Reason j	Reason k	Reason l	Reason m	Reason n
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.690	2.700	2.660	2.960	2.890	3.040	2.800
Standard Deviation	.9178	.9482	.9558	.9312	.8864	.8636	.9101
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 3*Overall Results of the Third Construct of the Questionnaire*

	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr a	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr b	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr c	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr d
N Valid	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.440	2.440	3.340	3.300
Standard Deviation	.9246	.9355	.8192	.7180
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 3 (continued).

	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr e	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr f	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr g	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr h
N Valid	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.910	2.900	3.340	2.840
Standard Deviation	.8539	.9374	.8182	.9070
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 3 (continued).

	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr i	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr j	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr k	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr l
N Valid	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.950	2.870	2.890	3.300
Standard Deviation	.8688	.8837	.8878	.7180
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 3 (continued).

	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr m	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr n	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr o	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr p	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr q
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	3.410	3.320	3.330	3.450	3.250
Standard Deviation	.6046	.6495	.6675	.5752	.7961
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Table 3 (continued).

	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr r	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr s	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr t	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr u	Promotion of Eng vs. Arb and Fr v
N Valid	100	100	100	100	100
Mean	2.970	3.340	3.230	2.960	3.410
Standard Deviation	.9477	.6995	.7366	.8519	.6528
Minimum	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Maximum	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0

Appendix F: Original Quotes from the Open-ended Questions Data¹⁹

The Protection of Arabic

- "لا يعجبني [تعزيز مكانة الإنجليزية] يجب تعزيز مكانة اللغة العربية في كافة المجالات للمحافظة على الهوية" (مجيب 65، ص.1).
- "لا أعتقد ان اللغة الأنجليزية مهمة لهذه الدرجة لأن اللغة الام هي العربية" (مجيب 45 ، ص. 1).
- "حسب رأيي لا يمكن اعتماد اللغة الانجليزية كلغة تدريس لأنه يجب الحفاظ على لغتنا الأم وعدم طمسها" (مجيب 47، ص. 1).

The Preservation of French

- "ليس جيد جدا لازلنا نقدر اللغة الفرنسية" (مجيب 42، ص. 1).

The Promotion of English

- "أرجو أن يكون ذلك حتى نتمكن من تحسين مستوانا في هذه اللغة والاستفادة منها" (مجيب 19، ص. 2).
- "أرجو ذلك لأن اللغة الإنجليزية هي لغة العالم ويجب إتقانها" (مجيب 23، ص. 2).
- "أرجو ذلك لتعزيز قدراتنا في هذه اللغة" (مجيب 28، ص. 2).

Ways to Promote the Status of English

Organization of Training and University Clubs

- "حسب رأيي، يمكننا تحسين وضع اللغة الإنجليزية من خلال تنظيم نوادي فعالة وتشجيع الطلاب على استخدام هذه اللغة، بالإضافة إلى استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية لتدريس بعض المواد، وخاصة المواد العلمية" (مجيب 37، ص. 2).

Increasing the Teaching Hours of English

- "Il faut augmenter les heures qui ont consacré pour l'anglais" (Resp't 76, p. 3).
- "On doit débiter par augmenter l'horaire consacré aux séances de l'Anglais" (Resp't 98, p. 3).
- "من خلال بعث نوادي باللغة الانجليزية و تدريسها منذ المراحل الابتدائية مثل اللغة الفرنسية" (مجيب 54، ص.3).

¹⁹ The original quotes are organized in the same order the translated versions appear in the text. Headings are added to facilitate the identification of the translated quotes in the text.

Benefits of EMI

- "أنا مع استعمال اللغة الانجليزية في الجامعات التونسية كمادة رسمية لتحسين مستوى الطلبة" (مجيب 33، ص.5).

“Je suis pour l'utilisation de la langue anglaise dans les universités tunisiennes comme matière de base pour que les niveaux des étudiants deviennent mieux” (Resp't 33, p. 5).

- "إن هذا من شأنه أن يساعد الناس ليس فقط في اللغة ذاتها بل في إيجاد الوظائف أيضاً. إن تطوير مستوانا في اللغة الإنجليزية من شأنه أن يساعدنا في إيجاد فرص عمل في الخارج" (مجيب 44، ص.5).

-"L'utilisation de la langue Anglaise comme une langue d'enseignement peut contribuer au développement de la recherche scientifique parce qu'elle est la langue nécessaire de publications, conférences” (Resp't 32, p.5).

*Challenges in Implementing EMI**Linguistic Issues*

- "أعتقد أن أول تحدي هو التحدي اللغوي المتمثل في قلة كفاءة المعلمين و المتعلمين، إنهم غير متمكنين من اللغة الإنقليزية" (مجيب 93، ص.7).

Language Policy Issues

- "لا يمكن إعتقاد اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة تدريس لأن جميع المراجع باللغة الفرنسية، حتى نظام التدريس فرنسي" (مجيب 59، ص.7).

Language Choice

- "رغم تطور مكانة اللغة الانجليزية بين الاوساط الطلابية وحتى العامية وتحبيذ الطلاب لاستعمال هذه الاخيرة كلغة ثانية الا انها لا تلقى ترحيبا من قبل الحكومة التونسية التي بقية متمسكة باللغة الفرنسية كلغة العلم في تونس" (مجيب 2، ص.1).

-"Des formations/ augmenter les heures qui ont consacré pour l'anglais" (Resp't 2, p. 2).

- importance comme l'Arabe et le Français " (Resp't 12, p. 1).

Appendix G: The English Version of the Interview

Introduction

You are invited to participate in a research study about language use, language policy, and the promotion of English in Tunisian higher education. The purpose of this study is to collect data on Tunisian university tutors' perceptions regarding language use and the promotion of the status of English. The interview is made for academic research. The results will be used for academic conference presentations and publishing purposes. This may include journal articles, conference papers and books. If you agree to participate in this study, your voices will be audio-recorded and all names will be anonymized and all information will be treated confidentially.

Interview Questions

1. Background questions

Could you please introduce yourself: your speciality, years of experience, level of teaching, and region of teaching?

2. Behaviour: Language use

- What language (s) do you usually use in teaching in general?
- Do you ever change that language within a class?
- What language (s) do you usually use in lecturing?
- Which language (s) do you usually use at your office? Why?
- Which language (s) do you usually use at the university corridors? Why?
- Which language (s) do you usually use in writing your emails?
- What language (s) do you use in answering students' questions? Why?
- What language(s) do you use in clarifying/ explaining students' inquiries? Why?
- Which language(s) the students choose in asking questions? and why?
- Which language(s) the students choose in asking for clarification? and why?
- Which language(s) the students choose in replying to your emails?

3. Perception

A. Tutors' perception and expectancy about changes in TEFL policy and the current debate.

- What do you think of the use of Arabic in teaching at universities to develop students' proficiency in Arabic?
- What do you think of the use of French in teaching at universities to develop students' proficiency in French?
- What do you think of teaching English for specific purposes at universities to develop students' proficiency in English?
- What do you think of integrating English in the third grade of primary education?
- Despite these changes, why do you think that the situation of English is remained the same?
- What further changes in TEFL policy do you expect?

B. Language policymakers' discourse

- What do you think of the political discourse today about language policies?
- What do you think of encouraging the policy of Arabization to protect national identity?
- What do you think of encouraging the policy of preservation of French?
- What do you think of encouraging the policy of the promotion of English?
- What do you think of replacing French with Arabic in higher education?
- What do you think of replacing French with English in higher education?

C. The promotion of the status of English vs. Arabic and French in Tunisian higher education

- In your opinion, how should we develop the status of Arabic in Tunisian higher education?
- According to you, how should we develop the status of French in Tunisian higher education?
- According to you, how should we develop the status of English in Tunisian higher education?
- What do you think of arranging training for both tutors and students as a way to promote the Arabic language at universities?
- What do you think of arranging training for both tutors and students as a way to promote the French language at universities?
- What do you think of arranging training for both tutors and students as a way to promote the English language at universities?
- What do you think of using Arabic as a medium of instruction in Tunisian higher education?
- What do you think of using French as a medium of instruction in Tunisian higher education?

- What do you think of using English as a medium of instruction in Tunisian higher education?
- According to you, what would be the changes that need to be made by the Tunisian Ministry of Higher education regarding the promotion of the status of Arabic?
- According to you, what would be the changes that need to be made by the Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education regarding the promotion of the status of French?
- According to you, what would be the changes that need to be made by the Tunisian Ministry of Higher Education regarding the promotion of the status of English?
- What do you think of the changes that should be made by the Tunisian government to promote the status of Arabic?
- What do you think of the changes that should be made by the Tunisian government to promote the status of French?
- What do you think of the changes that should be made by the Tunisian government to promote the status of English?

4. Interview Evaluation

Is there anything you would like to add?

Is there anything else you think would be helpful to improve the interview?

Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Appendix H: The Arabic Version of the Interview

أسئلة المقابلة

1. أسئلة عامة

هل يمكنك تقديم نفسك: تخصصك، سنوات الخبرة، مستوى التدريس، ومنطقة التدريس؟

2. السلوك: استخدام اللغة

- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها عادة في التدريس بشكل عام؟
- هل قمت بتغيير تلك اللغة في فصل من الفصول؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها عادة في المحاضرة؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها عادة في مكتبك؟ لماذا؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها عادة في أروقة الجامعة؟ لماذا؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها عادة في كتابة رسائل البريد الإلكتروني؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها في الإجابة على أسئلة الطلبة؟ لماذا؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي تستخدمها في توضيح/ شرح استفسارات الطلبة؟ لماذا؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي يختارها الطلاب ل طرح أسئلتهم؟ ولماذا؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي يختارها الطلاب لطلب توضيح؟ ولماذا؟
- ماهي اللغة (اللغات) التي يختارها الطلاب للرد على رسائلهم في البريد الإلكتروني؟

3. الآراء

أ. تصور الأساتذة وتوقعاتهم بشأن التغييرات في سياسة تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية والنقاش

الحالي.

- ما رأيك في استخدام اللغة العربية في التدريس بالجامعات لتطوير مستوى الطلبة في اللغة العربية؟
- ما رأيك في استخدام اللغة الفرنسية في التدريس بالجامعات لتطوير مستوى الطلبة في اللغة الفرنسية؟
- ما رأيك في تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض محددة في الجامعات لتطوير مستوى الطلبة في اللغة الإنجليزية؟
- ما رأيك في دمج اللغة الإنجليزية في الصف الثالث الابتدائي؟
- على الرغم من هذه التغييرات، لماذا تعتقد أن وضع اللغة الإنجليزية ظل كما هو؟
- ما هي التغييرات الإضافية في سياسة تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية التي تتوقعها؟

ب. خطاب صناع السياسات اللغوية

- ما رأيك في الخطاب السياسي اليوم حول السياسات اللغوية؟
- ما رأيك في تشجيع سياسة التعريب لحماية الهوية الوطنية؟
- ما رأيك في تشجيع سياسة الحفاظ على الفرنسية؟
- ما رأيك في تشجيع سياسة تحفيز اللغة الإنجليزية؟
- ما رأيك في استبدال الفرنسية بالعربية في التعليم العالي؟
- ما رأيك في استبدال الفرنسية بالإنجليزية في التعليم العالي؟
- ج. تعزيز مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية مقابل العربية والفرنسية في التعليم العالي التونسي
- حسب رأيك، كيف ينبغي لنا أن نطور مكانة اللغة العربية في التعليم العالي التونسي؟

- حسب رأيك، كيف ينبغي لنا أن نطور مكانة اللغة الفرنسية في التعليم العالي التونسي؟
- حسب رأيك، كيف ينبغي لنا أن نطور مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية في التعليم العالي التونسي؟
- ما رأيك في تنظيم دورات تدريبية لكل من الأساتذة والطلبة كوسيلة لتعزيز اللغة العربية في الجامعات؟
- ما رأيك في تنظيم دورات تدريبية لكل من الأساتذة والطلبة كوسيلة لتعزيز اللغة الفرنسية في الجامعات؟
- ما رأيك في تنظيم دورات تدريبية لكل من الأساتذة والطلبة كوسيلة لتعزيز اللغة الإنجليزية في الجامعات؟
- ما رأيك في استخدام اللغة العربية كوسيلة للتدريس في التعليم العالي التونسي؟
- ما رأيك في استخدام اللغة الفرنسية كوسيلة للتدريس في التعليم العالي التونسي؟
- ما رأيك في استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية كوسيلة للتدريس في التعليم العالي التونسي؟
- حسب رأيك، ما هي التغييرات التي يجب على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية إجراؤها فيما يتعلق بتعزيز مكانة اللغة العربية؟
- حسب رأيك ما هي التغييرات التي يتوجب على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية القيام بها فيما يتعلق بتعزيز مكانة اللغة الفرنسية؟
- حسب رأيك، ما هي التغييرات التي يجب على وزارة التعليم العالي التونسية إجراؤها فيما يتعلق بتعزيز مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية؟
- ما رأيك في التغييرات التي يجب على الحكومة التونسية إجراؤها لتعزيز مكانة اللغة العربية؟
- ما رأيك في التغييرات التي يجب على الحكومة التونسية إجراؤها لتعزيز مكانة اللغة الفرنسية؟
- ما رأيك في التغييرات التي يجب على الحكومة التونسية إجراؤها لتعزيز مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية؟

4.تقييم المقابلة

- هل ترغب في إضافة سؤال أو ملاحظة؟
- هل عندك إضافة تعتقد أنها مفيدة لتحسين المقابلة؟

شكراً جزيلاً لك على وقتك وتعاونك

Appendix I: Original Quotes from the Interview Data²⁰

The Exclusive Use of French

- "أنا لا أقبل أي لغة أخرى. أريد أن يتواصل طلابي بلغة التدريس" (نجلا، مقابلة 5، ص.1).
- "لا أجيب على الأسئلة بالعربية" (نعيمة، مقابلة 6، ص.1).
- "أطلب منهم الكتابة باللغة الفرنسية" (نجلا، مقابلة 5، ص.1).
- "يجب عليهم كتابة الرسائل الإلكترونية بالفرنسية" (نعيمة، مقابلة 6، ص.1).

The Exclusive Use of English

- "لا أستعمل سوى اللغة الانجليزية" (سلوى، مقابلة 9، ص.1).

The Use of Tunisian Arabic

- "بسبب صعوبة التواصل باللغة الفرنسية، يستخدم طلابي العربية التونسية لطرح الأسئلة" (سلوى، مقابلة 9، ص.1).
- "أحياناً يسألون بالفرنسية" (سامي، مقابلة 4، ص.1).
- "يستخدمون اللغتين العربية والفرنسية في طرح الأسئلة وطلب الشرح" (وائل، مقابلة 3، ص.1).

Multilingual Practices

- "نضطر نستخدم اللغة العربية لأن مستوى التواصل عند الطلبة ضعيف. يصعب عليهم فهم المصطلحات اللغوية" (وحيد، مقابلة 7، ص.1).
- "مضطرة أحكي معهم بالعربية. يجدون صعوبة في فهم المصطلحات" (إشراف، مقابلة 1، ص.1).

Absence of Discourse on Language Policy

- (1) "في رأيي، لم يتم التطرق إلى موضوع سياسة اللغة. أعلم أن اللغة العربية هي لغتنا الأم ولكن وضع اللغات الأخرى غير واضح. صحيح أن اللغة الفرنسية هي اللغة الثانية بناءً على فكرة أن تونس دولة فرنكوفونية ولكن ليس لدينا نص واضح" (وائل، مقابلة 3، ص.3).
- (2) "لا يوجد خطاب واضح حول سياسة اللغة في تونس. الجميع يتحدثون عن تطوير وضع اللغات ولكن الواقع مختلف. الفرنسية هي اللغة السائدة" (سلوى، مقابلة 9، ص.3).
- (3) "كما أعلم لا توجد وثائق رسمية حول سياسة اللغة" (كريم، مقابلة 10، ص.3).
- (4) "لا أعتقد أن هناك قانوناً من وزارة التعليم العالي يوضح هذه القضية. دور الوزارة إداري فقط، مثل مراقبة عمل الجامعات واحتياجاتها (الموارد والأساتذة)" (نعيمة، مقابلة 6، ص.3).

²⁰ The original quotes are organized in the same order the translated versions appear in the text. Headings are added to facilitate the identification of the translated quotes in the text.

*Language Policy Voices**Development of the Arabic Language*

- "أنا مع سياسة تطوير اللغة العربية فهي اللغة الأم، لابد أن نتقن العربية، نحتاجها في الترجمة من الإنجليزية إلى العربية أو من العربية إلى الإنجليزية" (أمين، مقابلة 1، ص.2).
- "يجب أن يكون هذا من أولويات الدولة" (أمين، مقابلة 1، ص.2).
- "يجب علينا أن نطور من مكانة اللغة العربية لأن طلابنا لا يجيدون اللغة العربية الفصحى كتابة وتحدثا، فالطالب التونسي لا يعرف قواعد اللغة العربية" (نسيم، مقابلة 8، ص.2).

Promotion of the Status of English

- "إن اللغة الإنجليزية هي لغة التكنولوجيا والبحث الأكاديمي. ونحن بحاجة إلى وضع استراتيجية واضحة لتعزيز مكانتها في سياق التعليم العالي التونسي. ونحن بحاجة إلى إصدار قوانين واضحة لأن سياسات اللغة ليست واضحة" (سلوى، مقابلة 9، ص.2).
- "هذا أمر جيد لكل من الأساتذة والطلاب حتى يتمكنوا من العثور على فرص عمل في الخارج" (كريم، مقابلة 10، ص.3).

English as a Medium of Instruction

- "أتمنى أن تعزز مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية لأننا في حاجة إليها" (وحيد، مقابلة 10، ص.3).

*Language-related Challenges**Lack of Proficiency in Arabic*

- "إن استبدال اللغة الفرنسية بالعربية يثير قضية أخرى. هل الأساتذة يجيدون اللغة العربية لتدريس المواد العلمية مثلا؟" (سلوى، مقابلة 9، ص.2).

Lack of Proficiency in French

- "يجب أن نشير إلى عدم إتقان الطلاب للغة الفرنسية. يجب أن نبحث عن الأسباب وراء ذلك" (نجلاء، مقابلة 5، ص.2).

Lack of Proficiency in English

- "لا نستطيع أن نفعل ذلك [تعزيز مكانة اللغة الإنجليزية]. ليس لدينا أساتذة مؤهلون وطلاب متمكنون" (أمين، مقابلة 2، ص.2).