

Linguistic Behaviours Of English Language Use In Saudi Arabic-English Folks From The Perspectives Of 2030 Saudi Vision

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Abstract

This study aimed at examining the linguistic behaviors of language use in Saudi Arabic families from the perspective of the 2030 Saudi vision. It attempted to analyze the declared family language uses of Arabic-English bilingual families residing in major cities in Saudi Arabia, as well as how a group of family exterior and interior social factors related to the discrepancies in these performances. The theoretical framework of the study is based on Spolsky's (2004) dimensions of social factors. 500 respondents participated in this study, mainly Arabic-English bilingual families comprising two parents, in which one of the parents is an L1 Arabic speaker, and the other one is an L1 English speaker, considering the same for their children. The researcher(s) used a questionnaire survey to collect data from the participants analyzed by adopting non-parametric statistics. The questionnaire was based on De Houwer's (1999) five-point semantic differential language use scale. Despite the preference for the English language from parents, their children are more likely to show the tendency to use Arabic when mixing with other family members, which can be considered as a signal of the effect of a broader social and linguistic behavior on language use at home. Results of the study showed that many social internal and external social factors related to the discrepancies in emerging language use amongst Saudi-Arabic families, main viz., parental profession, the traveling background of the parents, family spousal status, parents' participation in family-child English interaction groups, and whether one of the parents was the L1 user. Other factors relate to the family's academic background revealed no significant correlation with stated language use in these families. This study recommends that Saudi family raise their children in a bilingual setting where Arabic and English be scaled in society and the effects of this globally which is the goal of vision 2030 in the region. The research also represents the multifaceted, setting-sensitive case that is experienced when trying to realize family language strategies more clearly.

Introduction

Literature in the field of language planning has witnessed eminence development recently. Much of this literature is based on qualitative research models

with restricted research samples (Juvonen et al., 2020). This study intends to explore a different viewpoint compared to relevant research on language planning and policy by using a large-scale

quantitative design implementing digital research questionnaires to examine linguistic behaviors of language practices in Saudi Arabic-English folks from the perspectives of the 2030 Saudi vision with the rise of NEOM (KSA 2030 Vision, 2016), the city of the future. The assumption that the broader social setting affects a family's linguistic behaviors and language practices has been well accepted (Van Mol & De Valk, 2018). This aims to use data composed of parents' language uses and quantitatively examine the effect of different social internal and external social factors on that stated language uses. These discussed internal and external factors are acknowledged by language policy research that connects sociocultural, sociolinguistics, socioeconomic, and micro-domestic issues to language use (Curdt-Christiansen et al., 2020). This research is a reflection on the need for more exploration of social and linguistic behaviors of bilingualism that are still taken as a developing area of research compared to the related research field in psycholinguistics or linguistic features. The population of the study is families living in Saudi Arabia in which one of the parents is an L1 speaker of Arabic, and the other one is an L1 speaker of English, a sample that has not been given enough consideration by

scholarly investigations (Dooly & Vallejo, 2020).

The sample of the study is different from earlier research on bilingualism mainly in a Saudi context, in which English is used as a home language by parents, while in the setting of this research, English is not used as a routine language by most folks, despite reflecting a near-universal presence in Saudi Arabia. In addition, the participants show a high level of social and linguistic competence (Al-Ahdal, 2020). The Saudi-Arabic sociolinguistic setting in which these folks discover themselves creates a background where ordinary mainstream versus minority language changing aspects diverge from several related international sceneries and is thus an exclusive place for observing the connection between societal language beliefs and their effect on home language entities.

Literature Review

Investigations into language use, planning, policies, and approaches in which family members do not interact using L1 have been a theme of academic research concern in the 21st century (Van Mol & De Valk, 2018), and consideration of these types of social folks have been escalating lately. Generally, one of the stated components languages uses within the family linguistic patterns is that of "one parent;

one language (Lüdi, 2020). Participants commonly discuss this as the most accepted method of language practice, as well as the operative technique for educating bilingual offspring. Despite the acceptance of the “one parent; one language” strategy and its apparent competence in language communication, severe devotion to the method is rare in practice (Palviainen & Boyd, 2013). None “one parent; one language” methods within such bilingual families have also established interests in the literature. The marginal language at home method includes both parents in a family speaking the marginal language (non-familial) to their offspring. In this study, it would be viewed as both parents using English with their offspring. The common language at-home method is the reverse (Slavkov, 2017), which in this study would reflect that the father and mother use Arabic with their children. Many diverse approaches in which family language use varies depending on the setting are available, and even methods involving so-called translanguaging uses where languages abide by changing points at the word level (Soler et al., 2017).

Past research on parents’ language has often dedicated stated or observed language uses between family members (parents & children), while less consideration has been provided

to child-to-child language uses, and particularly to parent-to-parent language uses (Juvonen et al., 2020). Paugh (2005), argues how an analysis of language practices between children may provide an understanding of their activity, although Canagarajah (2008) presented how parent-to-parent and child-to-child language statistics can be mixed to establish a greater insight of language change, has represented this kind of statistics. This research aims at providing new data to fill the study gap by examining parent-to-parent and child-to-child language uses besides parent-to-child language uses, particularly in a Saudi’s English-Arabic context.

Many studies on the home language settings of bilingual families have examined the interrelatedness between different families’ external and internal issues and language strategies. This study sees language use as the realization of a family language strategy, which might be directly acknowledged or indirectly, change, and unstated (King et al., 2017), and use the view that family language strategy can be understood through the declared interactions between family affiliates (Van Mensel, 2018). Declared language use is though only a statement and should not be connected with real language use. Grin (2006) indicates that at any phase, language strategies

are subjective to sociological, linguistic, and economic measurements, while Spolsky (2004) shows clear stress on the social viewpoint, concerning how sociocultural, socioeconomic, and sociolinguistic settings mark language policy. Spolsky's four main social dimensions will attend as the basis for data collection and analysis concerning family-external manipulating aspects in this study. Scholars such as illustrated how these family external dimensions can be understood as aspects that affect family language use, along with past research that has previously argued such factors (Oriyama, 2016; Hu and Ren, 2017; Wright, 2013; Kaveh, 2018; Da Costa Cabral, 2018; Van Mol and De Valk, 2018; and Nandi, 2018). External factors include

1. Parental employment status (socioeconomic dimension).
2. Parental education level (socioeconomic dimension).
3. Minority language social network (sociolinguistic & sociocultural dimensions).
4. Place of habitation (sociocultural dimension).
5. Frequency of visits to countries where the minority language is spoken

- (sociolinguistic, sociocultural dimensions).
6. Participation in minority language community group (sociolinguistic & sociocultural dimensions).
7. Citizenship (e.g. the ability to live and work in a country) (sociopolitical dimension).
8. Parent's place of origin (sociocultural & sociolinguistic dimensions).

External factors should be seen as a group of unified objects that also have the prospective to affect one another. A family's socioeconomic position is expected to affect their location of tenancy, which is expected to affect social systems, contribution to marginal language groups, and academic prospects. Even though all the participants itemized in this research have one L1 English speaker parent, the stance of origin of those parents might be immensely diverse in terms of environmental space, as well as in social expanse. Those who came back to Saudi Arabia from Europe (UK & USA) will have possessed the right as citizens to live and work in Saudi Arabia due to their Saudi citizenship, and somewhat wish to serve their home country. Arriving in a parent's homeland has been

revealed to increase the inclination of children in bilingual societies to use the minority language (Pauwels, 2005). L1 English speakers in this study context belong to a variety of diverse values, all with their identifiable sociocultural and sociolinguistic standards. Some parents will have been outstretched in formally bilingual realms, while others will have arrived from places where English-only ideology is dominant (Wiley et al., 1996). These diverse standards, existing practices, and prospects resulting from family-external factors are expected to affect the language uses in these families. On the other hand, family internal factors included in research that might affect family language practices are:

1. The number of children in a family.
2. Age of children.
3. Mother or father as a minority language speaker, and
4. Marital status of parents.

The concept of children's number in a family affects the use of language. According to Caldas (2012), parents can regulate home language practices very successfully when having one child in the family. Other scholars such as Tuominen et al., (2019) proposed that younger brothers and sisters might obtain the societal language very promptly because older brothers and sisters bring it

home from academic institutions and socialize parents into applying it very frequently. This, then, proposes that family language use is immobile, but as an alternative change over spatiotemporal planes. Besides children number, children's age in a family might have a great contribution to understanding the language used in bilingual families. Caldas (2012) argues that family language policy might be interrupted because of child peer stress from external factors, and Ochs and Scheffelin (1984) argued how peers' pressure is at its ultimate during youth. These researches propose that family language use might happen once a child gets at a specific age.

The mother versus the father as the marginal language users could also be a manipulating aspect in family language uses, with Veltman (1981) stating that children display an inclination toward the mother's language, even though De Houwer (2007) did not succeed to discover any indication of this. Okita (2002) additionally showed that parents might be less devoted than mothers might to their child's language improvement in positive settings. In conclusion, the marital status of the father and mother should also be reflected, as the disintegration of a family component can lead to variations in everyday language experience. Macleory (2010) argues how one formerly

bilingual family setting moved to a monolingual mainstream language setting after parental separation, though much difference in the ensuing linguistic settings appears to happen reliant on each specific condition.

The Role of English in the Saudi-Arabic Society

While English is not an official language in Saudi Arabia, it is taught at lower and higher education stages as a foreign language (Al-Ahdal, 2020). Recent reports in Saudi Arabia showed that English is a very important language for professional and social development (Mahboob & Elyas, 2014), and an appropriate percentage of major cities in Saudi Arabia master English and can conduct effective interactions locally and internationally (Alotaibi & Alamri, 2022). The interaction between Arabic and English in Saudi Arabia has been the topic of several contemporary academic research (Al Zumor, 2019), as well as a theme often included in non-academic settings (Blum, 2014). Past explorations have often argued an interplay between Arabic and English languages in public and institutional spheres, where English inhabits a significant 'transcultural' place (Höhle et al., 2020), and some (Elyas & Badawood, 2017) have revealed interests in the prospective for

English to substitute Arabic in Saudi Arabia in specific domains. Ideologically, it is the respect and prominence of English, as well as the apparent necessity of English in Saudi Arabia, which determines these arguments for a brief ideological discussion on the Arabic language. What is not vibrant, though, is how these communal ideologies affect the Arabic-English family conservatism surveyed in the current study. In majority-minority language settings, it is naturally the language of the mainstream that grips the most esteemed place in the social order, while in this specific setting, the linguistic ladder is less apparent. With language ideology inhabiting such an important position in any family language policy (King et al., 2008), it should be expected that these societal ideologies will play a role in understanding family language practices in the families investigated in this study.

Study Objectives

This study intends to achieve the following objectives:

- i. To analyze the stated language uses of Arabic-English parents in terms of language used between family members (parents & children).
- ii. To investigate internal and external social factors that appear to

- affect these language uses.
- iii. To uncover how stated language use influence the correlation between social factors and language uses.

Study Questions

To achieve the research objectives, this study addresses the following research questions.

1. What are the stated language uses of Arabic-English parents in terms of language used between family members (parents & children)?
2. To what extent do internal and external social factors that appear to affect these language uses?
3. How influential are stated language uses on the correlation between social factors and language uses?

Methods

To study the stated family language uses of a huge number of Saudi-English bilingual families living in Saudi Arabia, and the social issues, which affect those uses, an online survey was designed. The survey comprised 18 primary items. The questions can be classified into those whose answers lead to predictor variables and those whose answers lead to the emergence of standard variables; 'predictor' and 'criterion' variables are chosen in this study over 'independent' and

'dependent' variables (Sheskin, 2010).

The predictor variables were resulting from the answers to the 14 items that reflect factors, which theoretically affect language use. These 14 items were based on the factors discussed in this study, that is, those factors that have been involved to possibly affect family language uses in relevance to previous literature. The answers to the relevant four items affect criterion variables that relate to the declared practices themselves. The questionnaire was designed with Survey and Report (Artlogik 2019). It was pre-tested for compatibility issues before launch. The questionnaire was made short to reduce participants' fatigue (Wagner, 2015), and as no items were necessary, a respondent could refrain from answering a question if they wished. The findings of the pilot study showed that around five minutes were needed to accomplish all the items. The items were constructed with ease in mind, and wherever conceivable, dropdown menus and checkboxes were favored to allow text answers. Direct demographic queries were designed first, and queries connected to the same theme were collected (Rasinger, 2013). The predictor variable items were mainly demographic. However, many questions also

asked about a respondent's social networks and their participation in various kinds of social groups. The four criterion variable responses were derived from a set of questions presented in a matrix as in Table (1). Each question asked the respondent to state their language use in various situations on a five-point ordinal scale, which ranges from "Only English" to "Only Arabic". The scale was grounded on De Houwer's (1999) five-point semantic differential

language use scale, which indicates the frequency of use of language on an "only", "mainly", "half of the time", "sometimes", and "never" scale. The question concerning child-to-child language use was hidden if a participant earlier showed that they only got one child. If "other" was responded, a participant was provided an open text field to represent their responses. One parent accomplished the survey representing every family.

Table (1): Criterion Variables' Questions

State the Language, Please.	English Only	More English than Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	More Arabic than English	Arabic Only	Other
	1. You practice when speaking with your child's other parent.	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
2. You practice when speaking with your child.	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
3. Your child's other parent practices when speaking with your child.	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
4. Your child speaks with each other.	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

The design of this study shows the self-reported declared language uses based on one of the parents in each family. It should be observed that self-reports of language use are unavoidably illustrative of real language practice (Juvonen et al., 2020). Future research

studies may examine the accurateness of self-reports paralleled with actual language practices, but this research is not capable to create any eligible statements concerning how precise self-reports are. Besides, this research proposal does not comprise language proficiency

as a predictor. Though language proficiency probably shows an important manipulating role in accepting family language policy, it was not involved here as a variable because of the unreliability of measuring proficiency through self-reported questionnaires (Tomoschuk et al., 2019).

Data Collection

The sample of the study included the parents in English- Arabic bilingual families. This study drew on a definition of an English-Arabic bilingual family that is centered on the child. If a child has an L1 English speaker as a parent and the other parent is an L1 Arabic speaker, then this creates an English-Arabic bilingual family. This research used a self-selection design in which self-identified L1 speakers of either Arabic or English were encouraged to accomplish the questionnaire.

It was mailed to twenty Arabic-based Facebook groups targeting Saudis from various English-speaking states, bilingual parent-child sets, as well as bilingual

educational sets. The survey was also e-posted to representatives at English-speaking institutes in Saudi Arabia, leisure clubs that comprise an overrepresentation of English-speaking respondents (e.g. schools), and English departments at Saudi universities. Participants were requested to distribute the survey within their social circles which formed a snowballing sampling technique (Dörnyei, 2007). This mainly digital method of finding contributors, in addition to the sampling process, caused greater influence, but less control over the sample's skewness.

This study examined the completed surveys from 500 participants existing in 9 different major cities (Riyadh, Jeddah, Dammam, Makkah, Madinah, Jazan, Tabuk, Yanbu, and Aseer) throughout Saudi Arabia. An additional eleven participants who stated that their families practiced languages other than English or Arabic at home were not included in these analyses. The demographic data of the participants are depicted in Table (2).

Table (2): Demographics of the Participants

A. Demographics		Frequency	Percentage
1. City of Origin (KSA)	Education Background		
1. Jeddah	UK, US, Canada, Australia	132	26.4%
2. Riyadh	UK, US, Canada, Australia	112	22.4%
3. Makkah	UK, US, Canada, Australia	52	10.4%
4. Madinah	UK, US, Canada, Australia	33	6.6%
5. Damam	UK, US, Canada, Australia	102	20.4%

6. Tabuk	UK, US, Canada, Australia	30	6%
7. Yanbu	UK, US, Canada, Australia	24	4.8%
8. Jazan	UK, US, Canada, Australia	8	1.6%
9. Aseer	UK, US, Canada, Australia	7	1.4%
B. Demographics		Frequency	Percentage
2. Place of Residence	1. Large Urban Area	292	58.5%
	2. Medium Urban Area	123	24.6%
	3. Rural Area	85	17%
3. Marital Status	1. Married	436	87.2%
	2. Separated/ Divorced	54	10.8%
	3. Widowed	5	1%
	4. Other	5	1%
4. Academic Qualification	1. Compulsory school	15	3%
	2. Secondary school	22	4.4%
	3. Vocational degree	37	7.4%
	4. Bachelor's degree 188	207	41.4%
	5. Master's degree	163	32.6%
	6. Doctorate	56	11.2%
5. Employment Status	1. Employed (Full-Time)	230	46%
	2. Employed (Part-Time)	70	14%
	3. Employed (Professional)	80	16%
	4. Unemployed	20	4%
	5. Retired	52	10.4%
	6. Student	38	7.6%
	7. Other	10	2%
6. Gender	1. Female	130	26%
	2. Male	370	74%
7. Age	1. Age of Participants	44 Years	
	2. Age of Children	12 Years	

The participants belong to a wide range of cities in Saudi Arabia, and as to be estimated, most non-Arabic respondents originated from regions that have English as an official language (97.8%). Most participants dwelling with their partners were married in Saudi Arabia (87.2%), while (10.8%) were divorced, or separated. The mainstream of the

participants was working either full-time (46%) or part-time (14%), with the most recording that they were employed in skilled or transitional occupations, which also relates to the relatively high level of education existed amongst the participants (41.4%) have at least a bachelor's degree. In addition, male participants

recorded (74%), whilst female participants reported (26%) lesser than their male counterparts. However, the age

of the respondents involved in the study was 44 years and 12 years for children as shown in Table (3) below.

Table (3): Age of the Participants

Age	Count	Mean	SD
1. Participants' Age (Parents)	500	43.09	10.30
2. Children's Age	997	11.96	9.23

The inference for this study is that most of the families have children at an age where they presently stay at home and join full-time schooling; however, families with children are significantly less many in this dataset. This skew is expected because of the selection technique accepted. The dataset is still more varied than several previous research that has often emphasized children (Schwartz et al., 2013).

Analysis of the Data

A blend of inferential and descriptive statistics was used to answer the study questions. The first research question was answered through descriptive

analyses based on three main dimensions are.

1. Child-to-Child Language Use.
2. Parent-to-Child Language Use.
3. Parent-to-Parent Language Use.

The data related to the first research question (child-to-child language use) and data connected with parent-to-parent language use were taken from items (d) and (a) in the questionnaire, respectively. To examine parent-to-parent language use, it was indispensable to chain the answers from items (b) and (c) alongside with L1 data. The answers from items (b) and (c) may be joined in 25 different ways as presented in Table (4).

Table (4): The Potential Declared Parent-to-Child Language Uses

1. English Only	More English than Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	More English than Arabic	Arabic Only
2. English Only	English Only	English Only	English Only	English Only

3. Only English	More English than Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	More Arabic than English	Only Arabic
4. More English Than Arabic	More English than Arabic	More English than Arabic	More English than Arabic	More English than Arabic
5. Only English	More English	A mix of English and Arabic	More Arabic than English	Only Arabic
6. A mix of English and Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic
8. Only English	More English than Arabic	A mix of English and Arabic	More Arabic than English	Only Arabic
9. More Arabic than English	More English than Arabic	More Arabic than English	More Arabic than English	More Arabic than English
10. Only English	More Arabic than English	The mix of English and Arabic	More Arabic than English	Only Arabic
11. Only Arabic	Only Arabic	Only Arabic	Only Arabic	Only Arabic

Table (4) depicts the twenty-five possible parent-to-child language use blends that can further be classified into a family language policy scale that varies from a monolingual English policy on one extreme (i.e. minority language) to a monolingual Arabic policy on the other extreme (i.e. majority language). The One-person-one-language (OPOL) policy is revealed in the top right and bottom left corners. An even combination of both languages by both parents is shown in the center of Table (4). The statistics composed to address the first research question operated as a model for the second research question. Inferential statistics

were then used to define whether social factors interrelated with a deviation from this reference line, the trend of such a divergence (towards English or Arabic), and the asset of this divergence. Nonparametric tests were favored over parametric tests due to the main scale implemented, as the criterion variable is ordinal, while parametric tests usually necessitate an interval or ratio level variable (Bandalos, 2010). The two nonparametric tests applied in this research are The Mann-Whitney U test and the Kruskal-Wallis H test. In this context, the Mann-Whitney U test measures if two sets within a predictor variable can be

assessed to achieve a statistically significant difference in their answers to the five-point language use scale. The Kruskal-Wallis H test (1952) is implemented for examining predictor variables with more than two sets and defines if at least one of those sets can be assessed to reveal statistically different dissemination (Kruskal and Wallis, 1952). The Kruskal-Wallis H test does not show between which sets a transformation is revealed. However, in cases where an important Kruskal-Wallis H test (1952) was informed, a post hoc Mann Whitney U test was carried out to define which of the sets possessed a significant pairwise difference.

The Mann Whitney U tests were measured by control of impact sizes by applying the formula! The z-value is treated through the Mann Whitney U test itself, while N exemplifies the whole number of opinions for the verified variable. This formula has been proposed for concluding effect sizes with nonparametric data (Rosenthal, 1994). The value, depicted as r, is a correlation coefficient representing the strength of a correlation between two variables, which in this study is understood as the strength of the correlation between a social factor and language uses. The commentary of effect sizes besides p values is valued, as the p-value unaided only reveals a

statistical significance, while the effect size reveals a concrete significance (Sullivan and Feinn, 2012). This research adopts Cohen's (2013: 83) strategies for construing effect sizes (small $r = .10$, medium $r = .30$, large $r = .50$). Cohen (2013) and Sheskin (2010) observe that many connections examined in social sciences are related to small effect sizes. In addition, they add that small effect size can still be satisfactory to discard a null hypothesis, even though an effect size of $r = .10$ involves that only 1% of the criterion variable's variance is attributable to the predictor variable, which is calculated by squaring r. A medium effect size of $r = .30$ indicates that 9% of the criterion variable's variance is attributable to the predictor variable, while this figure is 25% with a large effect size of $r = .50$.

Findings

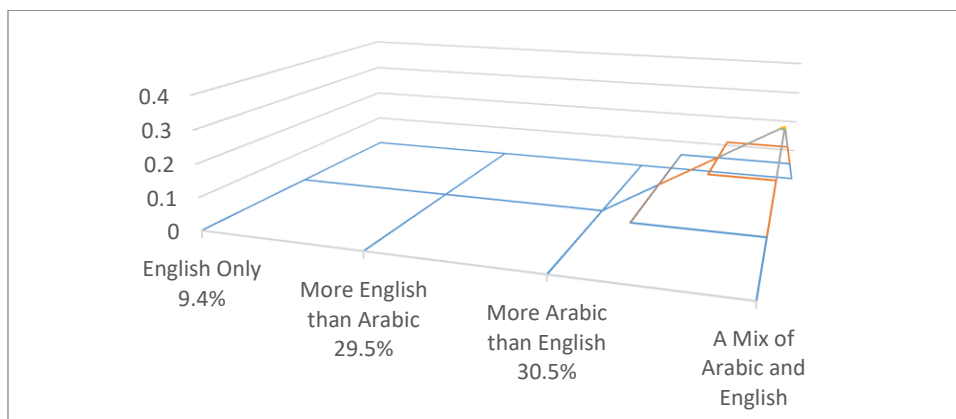
This section provides an overview of the results of the analysis to address the first research question, which is split into child-to-child language uses, parent-to-parent language use, and parent-to-child language uses. It illustrates the response to the second research question, which emphasizes the social factors and their correlation with deviations in this family language use.

I. Child-to-Child Language Use

The findings show that an inclination towards Arabic was realized in the stated child-to-child language uses of Arabic-English bilingual families. Figure (1) displays that Arabic was the preferred language (more Arabic than English plus Arabic only) for brothers/sisters communication in 57.5% of the Saudi families, while an inclination toward English (more English than Arabic plus English only) was shown in only 29.5% of the families. The stated

language use of “English only” in child-to-child interaction was the least popular result, shown in only 47 of 376 (9.4%) of the families with many children in this research. In addition, findings indicated that siblings who use more English than Arabic recorded 29.5%, whilst family members who used more Arabic than English showed 30.5%, and those who mixed using both Arabic and English reported 30.6% as depicted in Figure (1) in the next section.

Figure (1): Child-to-Child Language Uses of Arabic-English Bilingual Families



A preference of the societal language for brothers/sisters' communication relates to Pauwels (2005), who revealed that in Australia, minority language interacting siblings seldom applied that language when interacting with their peers. However, in the setting examined in this research, there appears to be a broader difference in brothers/sisters' language uses, with some form of an English-Arabic mix being

declared in 30.6% of the families.

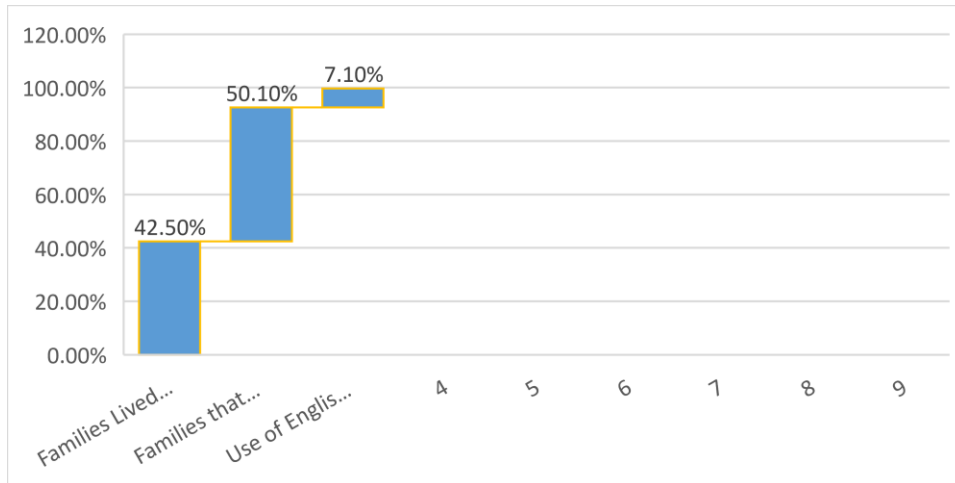
2. Parent-to-Parent Language Use

Parent-to-parent language use contrasted with that which was exposed concerning child-to-child language use. Figure (2) displays that 50.8% of parents state that they use “only English” with one another and 25.2% state that they practice “more English than Arabic”. Language uses that

approve Arabic as a means of interaction, are rather unusual among parents in these families.

Only 24% state that they use either “more Arabic than English” or “only Arabic”.

Figure (2): Parent-to-Parent Language Uses of Arabic-English Bilingual Families



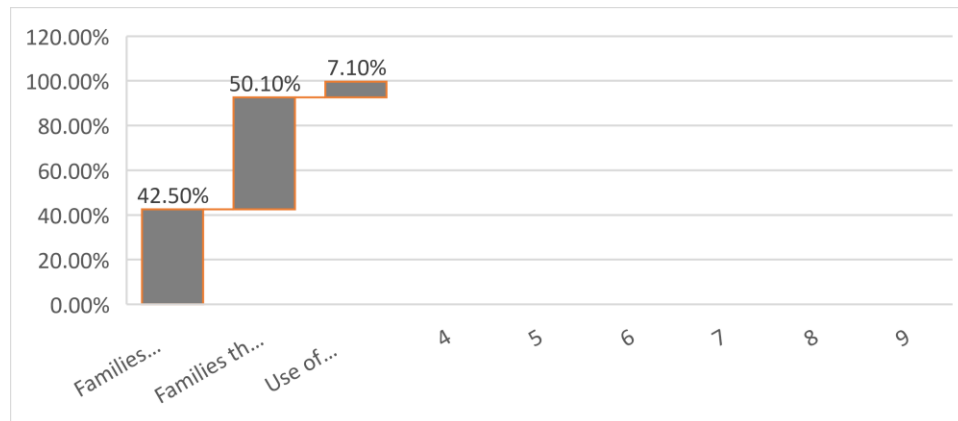
As stated in Figure (2) earlier shows that the inclination toward using English by parents seems logical because of the usually asymmetrical expertise of parents' dialectal repertoires. Most L1 Arabic parents will be more skilled in English than the first language English parent is in Arabic. Almost every L1 Arabic parent will have experienced English from an early age, whilst English as a first language's parents are questionable to have experienced Arabic as L1 until middle age. On the other hand, this conclusion should not be connected with the postulation that L1 English parents lack Arabic language expertise

exclusively, with Al-Ahdal (2020) showing that most parts of Saudi Arabia frequently use Arabic in their ordinary lives.

3. Parent-to-Child Language Uses

Parent-to-child use is connected with the parent L1 in question, as can be viewed in Table (6). The most frequently stated parent-to-child language use for L1 English-speaking parents was “only English” with 60.2%, and the same pattern happens for L1 Arabic speaking parents, where “only Arabic” happens as the most universally stated language use in parent-to-child communication at 39.8%.

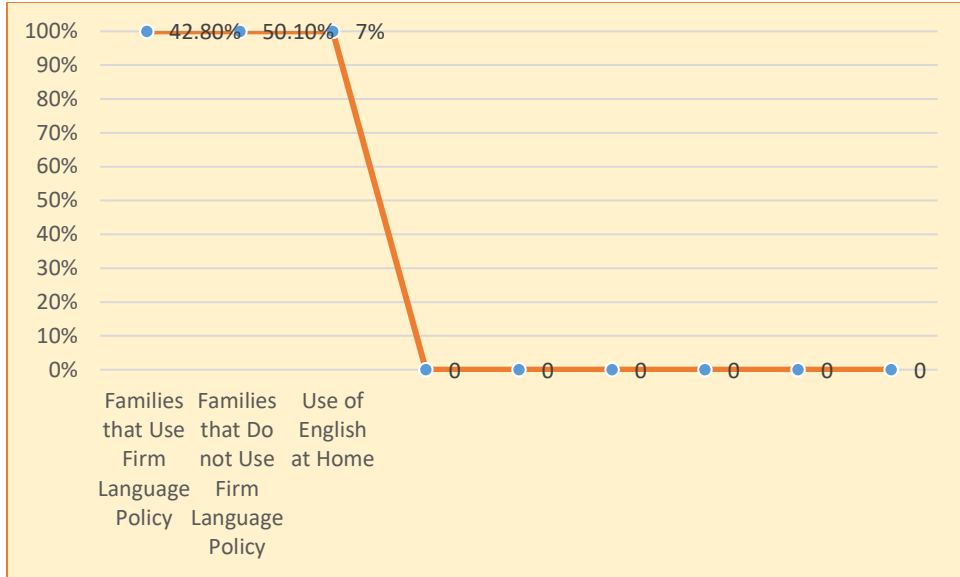
Figure (3): Parent-to-child Language Use of Arabic-English Bilingual Families



A renowned sociolinguistic remark (Holliday, 2006) here would be that of the “native speaker ideology”, which in this setting would conclude that it is the “native speaker’s” parent who is liable for stating that language if the children are to be bilingually taken care of. This ideology is revealed in the findings. Although the connection between L1 and the language used between parents and their children is solid, it can be depicted in Figure (4) that there is no regular connection

between the stated use of L1 English-speaking parents and L1 Arabic-speaking parents. L1 Arabic-speaking parents display a more distinction in their parent-to-child language use than does an L1 English speaking parent, with the statistics showing that L1 Arabic speaking parents are comparatively more prospective to practice at least some English with their offspring than L1 English speaking parents are to practice at least some Arabic.

Figure (4): Parent-to-Child Language Uses of Arabic-English Bilingual Families



When examining parent-to-child language use statistics concerning the family language policies that they signify, Table (4) displays that only 42.8% of the families in this study state that they use a firm language policy. Families that do not use a firm language policy report 57.2%. The common or minority language at home’ policy (i.e. English at home) was practiced by 5.8% of parents, whilst the “majority language at

home” policy (i.e. Arabic at home) is very rare, with less than two percent of parents stating this as their adopted language policy. The most generally represented family language policy is a mix of the two languages policy, where at least one parent practices two languages at home. Figure (5) depicts parent-to-child language use as a family linguistic policy or behavior.

Figure (5): Parent-to-Child Language Use Policy

Language Use Policy	Count	Frequencies
i. One Language (One Parent)	220	44%
ii. Home-Minority Language	52	10.4%
iii. Home-Majority Language.	15	3%
iv. Mixed between More than One Languages.	213	42.6%
Total	500	100%

As indicated in Figure (5), 44% of the parents used one language policy with their children at home, 10.4% of them used a minority language policy at home, and 3% of them practiced a majority language policy at home, whilst 42% inclined towards the use of a mix between two or more language policy with their children at home.

However, in an attempt to address the second and third research questions, by examining internal and external social factors that appear to affect these language uses and uncovering how stated language uses affect the correlation between social factors and language uses, this section provides a detailed discussion on the social factors that affect the child to child language use.

4. Social Factors and Child-to-Child Language Use

This study examined four social factors that correlated with significant variance in child-to-child language use. Tables 5 and 6 depict these factors, in which parental constellation (L1) is ($p = <.001$) if the children in request have ever existed in an English speaking context ($p = .004$), whether the family has ever been included in English speaking parent-child clusters ($p = .034$), and parental profession or job ($p = .042$). ($r = .31$)

represents factors with the highest effect size, and therefore the factor that signifies the strongest connection with child-to-child language use is the parental pattern. This means that if a family comprises an L1 English-speaking mother and an L1 Arabic-speaking father or the contrary.

Child-to-child language use was somewhat more perspective to be in the direction of the English end of the balance if the parental pattern enclosed the mother as the first language / English user, whilst they were reasonably more possible to be in the direction of the Arabic end of the measure if the mother was the first language/ Arabic user. This conclusion could be understood as children presenting an inclination toward their mother's first language (Veltman, 1981). The measure with the second-greatest effect size ($r = .16$) reflects if a family had ever been with their children in an English-speaking state /region before relocating to Saudi Arabia. This is a somewhat usual practice in the families in these statistics with 42.5% of the families stating that they had formerly existed in an English-speaking country with their siblings/offspring. If a family existed in an English speaking country earlier, then the language used between siblings was comparatively to be expected inclined towards

English, and if a family had not experienced using English in a native context formerly, then the language use amongst children was fairly more expected to incline towards Arabic. The effect of previous experience on existing language use reverberates thoroughly with the concept of some scholars who state that past or lived experiences are basic principles in interpreting present family language's strategies, practices, and policy (Busch, 2015; Soler et al., 2019).

Other researchers state that while the objective of the investigation, language use, is positioned in actual reality, the user/ speaker is placed through chronological developments. The aforementioned behaviors might have been shaped in such children, affected by the external English conservatism in which they formerly realized themselves, and these behaviors have to a certain degree been transferred to the existing circumstances. This generally positioned viewpoint might also be implemented to support understanding the variable of contribution in parent-child English-speaking sets, that is, if a family has traditionally contributed, or at present contributes, in such sets. Contribution in such sets related to a comparative inclination towards English for child-to-child language use $r = .12$ (Blommaert, 2010)

Another significant conclusion showed that there was a correlation between parental profession, reflected by socioeconomic grouping, and child-to-child language use. Mann Whitney U (Post-hoc) assessment showed that a pairwise significant effect happened between full-time professions (i.e. professional jobs) and working-class jobs ($p = .024$, $r = .16$). Children whose parents had full-time jobs revealed a relative inclination towards English in familial communication, whilst children whose parents had working-class jobs presented a virtual preference towards Arabic. The link between socioeconomic prestige and language preference will be reflected more in the following section.

5. Parent-to-Child Language Uses and Social Factors

The social aspect that was most intensely interrelated with parent-to-child language use was that of the parents' first language ($r = .75$, $p < .001$) which was to be predictable and has been shown in earlier discussions in this study. $R = .75$ effect size suggests that 67.3% of the difference in the criterion variable of parent-to-child language use is related to the predictor variable of parents' first language. It is thus also inferred that 32.7% of the

variance in parent-to-child language use in this context can be related to variables other than the first language of the parent. This effect shows the difficulty of understanding language use in the family setting and displays that these uses cannot be sensibly understood concerning any particular factor in segregation.

The forecaster variables of children that had existed in an English-speaking nation-state formerly and parental profession conferring to the socioeconomic position were also realized to prevail significant connections with a difference in parent-to-child language use ($p = .013$; $p = .014$). While these two variables were significant factors in child-to-child language use, in the case of children that had existed in an English-speaking nation earlier, the effect size was only $r = .09$, and the connection was significantly weaker than the one realized in child-to-child language use.

Perversely, the parental profession was realized to relate somewhat more intensely with parent-to-child language use than was the situation with child-to-child language use. Furthermore, the findings indicated that there was a significant correlation not only between full-time jobs and working class jobs ($p = .005$, $r = .18$), but also between intermediate professions and working class

employments ($p = .022$, $r = .21$). Parents with a full-time salary and intermediate jobs were more expected to state that they practice English in parent-to-child communications. This can theoretically, be described by greater socioeconomic prestige parents showing a stronger pro-English ideology that reveals the view that skill in English is related to better professional opportunities, social prestige, academic liberation, and calmer socioeconomic development (Curdt-Christiansen, 2016). Likely, this parental ideology is revealed more in higher socioeconomic sets, and the related parent-to-child language uses affect child-to-child language use.

6. Factors that Affect Parent-to-Parent Language Use

Language use of Parent-to-parent relate very intensely with marital status ($p = <.001$, $r = .18$) and parental pattern ($p = .10$, $r = .13$). Married or sharing parents are somewhat more probable to practice Arabic, while divorced couples are somewhat more corresponding to use English. This connection might happen because those the first language English speakers who stay with their partner and offspring are expected to be visible more to the Arabic language in their present home setting. After all, using Arabic by their partner and offspring may mingle them into

using more Arabic with their spouse. When observing the variable of parental pattern, an inclination was headed for the mother's first language. That is to show that in spouses where the mother's first language is Arabic speaker, the parent-to-parent language use is somewhat more expected to comprise

Arabic, and the conflict for when the mother's first language is an English speaker. This shows that the mother's language is not only a resilient factor

for considering child-to-child use, but also parent-to-parent use in this setting.

Parent-to-parent language use interrelated less intensely with family-external factors when likened to parent-to-child and child-to-child language use. None of the family-external factors presented a major correlation with parent-to-parent language use. This can show that parent-to-parent language use is less liable to accept the modification, with only life-moving happenings, which possibly tempt divergence (e.g., divorce).

Discussion and Conclusion

After examining the correlation between social variables and stated language use, it should be observed that the issues examined in this research did not mark all language use liable to

the same point. The mother's first language is interrelated and durable with child-to-child language use, surveyed by parent-to-parent language use, while it had an insignificant relation with parent-to-child language use, for instance. This, besides the conclusion that child-to-child and parent-to-parent language use represents little similarity to one another in English-Arabic bilingual families, showing that the often polycentric reality of language use in bi-national families necessities to be considered in conceptualizations of what sets up a language at home. The change between parent-to-parent language use and child-to-child language use also permits for a better understanding of language change (Henry, 2016) that may be viewed as happening in actual authentic time in these statistics. Therefore, this language change or switch is possible just a generational switch from English as a primary home language to Arabic in many situations, not a sign that English will end to be learned and practiced by future generations. This language change or switch is proposed on the hypothesis of these children starting families with other largely Arabic-speaking people, but this will positively not be the situation in every case, as augmented globalization and relocation potentials mark future transcontinental families even

more probable.

In Child-to-child communication, Arabic is the preferred language, and it is thus probable that many of these children on the inside reflect Arabic to be a more appropriate language for peer collaboration, notwithstanding an inclination toward English among their parents. This deviation displays that children's language use is not just a reproduction of their parents', but formed by connections and settings in which they contribute. The inclination toward Arabic for sibling communication can be examined through the lens of child activity (Smith-Christmas, 2020), and by taking into account the external setting of the children's language ideologies.

A social ideology that encourages using Arabic in peer interaction such as in academic institutions has influenced the language use of the children in this reading, while the children's activity may be understood through their acceptance of language use that differs from what they practice at home. The results argued here represent the tests for legacy language maintenance globally. Despite occupying an inspiring sociolinguistic setting with two prestigious-status languages, the children in this reading yet appear to be migratory with an inclination toward the common language. The inference for

global linguistic minority groups might be that this social language supremacy unavoidably leads to language change or switch. The English language in Saudi Arabia is unlikely to give up its position in greater Arabic culture sooner, but it may certainly submit its place as a home language in future families and generations who participated in this survey.

While socioeconomic prestige concerning parental profession was

viewed to reveal a significant correlation with language use in both

child-to-child and parent-to-child interactions, academic level, and place of residence presented an insignificant relationship. The correlation between

parental academic qualification and family language policy have been revealed in many research studies, therefore its scarcity of effect here is maybe unforeseen. This conclusion represents the context-specific nature of family language strategy investigation, particularly concerning the effect of a bigger community in which families see themselves rooted. It is probable that for a context-specific sociocultural motive, academic qualification and home of residence have restricted contribution to language selection in these families.

Although no connection between stated language use and parental

academic qualification was concluded in this analysis, this research tool cannot define if parental academic qualification or related socioeconomic factors affect how parents practice a language with these children. Investigations into parenting elegances have revealed that working-class and middle-class parenting fashions vary, and the language applied to adopt parenting styles also varies based on social class level (Lareau, 2003).

Further research might intend to consider the implementation of micro-interactional

method to discover how language is practiced in such families rather than merely that language is implemented (Rajendram, 2021). The present research has revealed the possibility of accepting family language policy concerning a variety of factors. The findings further expose the multifaceted condition of accepting this connection. Although some diverse social factors were realized to show an important correlation with language use, most of these aspects are only able to consider for a restricted volume of the variance realized. Several earlier research has been effective to attribute family language policies to a limited amount of variables, but the findings of this research display the restrictions of such a contracted method. Future

research should endeavor to use study designs that let for the assortment of varied statistics that can permit the researcher to put together the original problem of any family language policy. Certainly, this research only provides a chunk of the family language policy. This analysis has not examined home literateness or absolute language skills. These were best observed with the current study design; the research is an instance of how a significant measurable design is competent to gather data from a wide range of contributors from different environmental zones that can then be used in a way diverse from most family language policy research. This investigation is not proposing that this assessable method should substitute distinctive qualitative techniques in the area, but rather may be joined with such techniques in mixed-mode designs to gather varied statistics to be implemented when attempting to realize family language policy in a specific setting.

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