The association of second language learning motivation and target-like article production in English-major female Saudi students: A sociolinguistic approach

Danya Abdullah Shaalan

Submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

University of Sussex

March 2021

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents and role models, Aljeohara Alshaalan and Professor Abdullah Alshaalan, who are the source of happiness and inspiration in my life. Their support has been a tremendous source of encouragement for me throughout my candidature.

This thesis is also dedicated to my husband, Mohammed, who deserves special thanks for his unending support throughout my journey.

Acknowledgement

I would like to acknowledge a few individuals who went above and beyond their duties in helping me with my doctoral candidacy and ensuring my eventual success. First, I would like to give special thanks to my doctoral supervisors, Drs. Simon Williams, Roberta Piazza, and Evan Hazenberg, for their invaluable guidance, feedback, and encouragement throughout my entire process. I especially want to thank Dr. Evan for teaching me about coding the linguistic tokens in Chapter 4, and for always showing willingness to help me with the linguistic analysis.

Next, special thanks go to Dr. Ebtisam Alothman, who was serving as Dean of the Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University (PNU) College of Languages at the time I conducted data collection at PNU for my study. I greatly appreciate all her help with the logistics. I also want to thank my colleague, Ms. Reem Alfuraih, for helping me with verifying some of my data, and Drs. Ivan Ivanov and May Abumelha for helping with data quality control. Thanks go to Dr. Ali Al-Qahtani, who lent me a translated version of a questionnaire from which I borrowed some statements. I greatly appreciate his generosity.

My sincerest thanks go to my wonderful sister, Dr. Hana, who helped me by proofreading my thesis, and my other wonderful sister, Malak, who assisted with data collection in Chapter 3. Finally, I want to thank the participants who volunteered to be in my study.

Declaration Statement

This thesis has not been previously submitted to this or any other University for a degree (except as part of submitting drafts for review before examination). All of the material contained within this thesis has only previously been submitted to Sussex University as part of draft review prior to examination. None of the material contained herein has ever been submitted to another University or programme.

This thesis is based on original research. The literature review was conducted online and sources were obtained. Sources were reviewed and topics were synthesised into this thesis. The data collected and analysed in this thesis was collected as part of the data collection plan; no other sources of data were used.

My contribution to this thesis is the following: I developed the original idea for each of the research designs, I developed the data collection instruments, I conducted data collection, I managed and directed the data analysis, I interpreted the findings, I wrote and edited all of the drafts, and I approve of the final copy of this thesis.

I hereby declare that this thesis has not been and will not be, submitted in whole or in part to another University for the award of any other degree.

Signature: _____

Summary

Since 1970, an increasing number of young Saudi women are learning the English language as part of their formal education, including its study at tertiary level in Saudi Arabia. However, performances at the level of morphology differ greatly among female learners. This study observes the inconsistencies in target language article use among advanced learners and asks whether differences in L2 motivation may contribute to interlanguage variation in article forms. The research aimed to answer the following questions: (1) what are the motivational profiles of English-major Saudi female students at a public university in Saudi Arabia? (2) to what degree can motivation predict learners' use of target-like article forms? and (3) what are the socio-cultural factors that shape English-major Saudi female English learners' second language motivation and identity? Of 207 students who completed questionnaires, 25 agreed to complete eight writing tasks and to be interviewed. The composite Second Language Motivational Self-System index of second language motivation was used to analyse the questionnaire and interview data.

Both social and linguistic factors were found to be associated with target-like article production. Plural noun phrases and parents with higher English competency were associated with higher probabilities of target-like production of article forms, and singular noun phrases were associated with lower probabilities. Students generally were found to have high levels of motivation, which did not differ by type of English course studied. Despite this, motivation was found not to be a significant factor in the production of article forms. An important socio-cultural factor that shaped the student's motivation and identity was they appeared to have formed a collective L2 self that included their family, with the father is a dominant position. In conclusion, there was no direct connection between L2 motivation and target-like article production, which instead might be mediated by numerous other social and linguistic factors.

Table of Contents

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Statement of the problem

In recent years, Saudi Arabia has focused on many domestic improvements, including expanding its higher education system. As a result, many women are now attending Saudi universities and studying English as a second language. Despite an emphasis on English education, large variation in the production of target-like forms such as article use continue to be observed in such cohorts. The possibility arises that such differences in interlanguage are the result of motivational factors. Second language (L2) motivation in Saudi female English-major university students has been understudied, and levels of L2 motivation in this group have not been measured and are not known, so a gap exists. Sociolinguistic studies have not focused on the connection between L2 motivation and the linguistic feature of target-like article (TLA) production in English. This section provides an explanation for the existence of the gap and hypothesises a connection between learner motivation and the production of target-like article forms.

1.1.1 Second language motivation research

In the second language acquisition (SLA) field, L2 motivation is an important factor behind the varying rates of success in learning a new language (Gardner, 1985, 1985; Ushioda, 2001; Dörnyei, 2009). Extensively researched for over six decades, this sphere of study has gone through several phases of theoretical development. For instance, earlier research used a social-psychological framework (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985) to understand how affective factors like attitudes towards the target language (TL) community and the level of desire to identify with that group have influenced L2 motivation. Later studies expanded the framework to address the motivational impact of classroom-related variables (e.g., teacher, course material, peers) and the cognitive processes underlying language learning (Dörnyei, 1994). Currently, the field has moved towards socio-dynamic perspectives that encompass the multidimensional nature of L2 motivation—an area inadequately explored in earlier approaches (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Ongoing research centres on the dynamics of self-concept and identity in shaping L2 motivation (Dörnyei,

2009; Ushioda, 2009) and the role of contextual factors such as significant others (Lamb, 2013). Identity was specifically implicated as potentially explaining the connection between L2 motivation and behaviour (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Moreover, current perspectives emphasise that motivation is complex and unstable rather than static and unitary (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011).

In recent years, the dominant theory in SLA motivation research has been the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS) (Boo, Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). No single instrument for measuring L2 motivation from this theory has become standard, so authors tend to develop their own instruments (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Islam, Lamb and Chambers, 2013). This is logical, because the concept of future selves might be culturally-specific, and therefore, instruments must be developed to measure L2 motivation in specific cultures. There have also been challenges connecting L2 motivation measured using the L2MSS as an underlying theory and language performance. This may have to do with the variety of L2 learners, settings, and measures of performance that have been used.

Because motivation can be measured and conceptualised in different ways, a "motivational profile" can be considered a profile or pattern of different motivations for one individual (Kormos *et al.*, 2008). Kormos and colleagues (2008) observed that researchers utilising the L2MSS should seek to measure a motivational profile when conducting L2 motivation research.

1.1.2 Second language variationist research

Variation in monolingual contexts of a certain language, such as English, has been the centre of sociolinguistic research. Most of the early work on linguistic variation drew on Labov's (1963) pioneering work on stylistic variation that was based on language users' attention to speech. According to Labov, speakers vary in their language use, to some extent depending on the social context or discourse topic. He proposed that language users shifted their speech style and monitored their speech in more formal situations. They paid the least amount of attention when speaking in the vernacular style (i.e. the style associated with informal everyday use) but gave the most consideration when conversing in a

careful style (i.e. the style associated with formal speech). Labov also documented stylistic variations in accent, language use, and other L1 speech (Labov, 1966, 1972). Labov's work looked extensively at L1 speech, but did not study L2 variation or learning.

Research on L2 variation has sought to explore stylistic variation, but initially must face the challenge of the potential varying levels of L2 acquisition across different study participants. In proficient L2 speakers, it has long been noted that learners systematically vary their production of specific linguistic variants. However, this effect is less obvious in less proficient speakers, because the errors interfere with the interpretation of stylistic variation. Nevertheless, the goal of L2 sociolinguistic research is to document and describe patterns of variation used by L2 learners, and to account for the linguistic and social factors that conditioned these patterns (Bayley, 2005; Bayley and Tarone, 2012).

Drawing on the Labovian approach and methodology, early L2 variation research examined how learners shifted in usage levels for phonological or morphosyntactic features based on the amounts of time it took them to monitor their speech across different tasks (Dickerson, 1975; Wolfram, 1985; Tarone and Parrish, 1988). Thus, traditional L2 variation perspectives posited that when learners had more time to monitor their L2 in certain tasks, they paid more attention to their speech and produced better or target-like forms. The underlying assumption behind these earlier studies was that, although L2 speakers displayed variable productions, they would ultimately acquire and use a target-like variety across different social contexts.

Variationist L2 studies have moved beyond investigating stylistic variation according to social factors to considering a wide range of social and linguistic elements to account for the patterns observed in learner production (Young and Bayley, 1996). An example of an early variationist L2 study is one by Beebe (1977), which examined code-switching speech behaviour in bilingual teachers in Thailand in response to the ethnicity of whoever was listening to their speech. In contrast, a later study by Nance and colleagues (2016) on phonetic variation in word-final rhotics among L2 Scottish Gaelic learners focused on a host of sociocultural factors as potential causes of variation, including demographics, location of origin, and occupational factors as well as linguistic factors.

However, across the spectrum of these studies, most did not consider differential transfer effects from different L1 languages in their study designs. When exploring sociolinguistic variation in L2 learners, researchers who focused on learners who possessed a particular L1 tended to be more successful in identifying reproducible patterns of variations (Dickerson, 1975). Arabic is a common L1 language of L2 English learners, and certain patterns of target-like article production in Arabic and English in these learners have been investigated (Almahboob, 2009; Alsowiliem, 2014). Studies have found that these patterns can arise, but there are mixed findings as to how L2 motivation may influence patterns of target-like production (Almahboob, 2009; Alsowiliem, 2014). This study similarly chose to focus on stylistic variation in L2 English production in L1 Arabic learners.

1.2 Aims and scope of the thesis

1.2.1 Aims

The first aim of this study was to determine the L2 motivational profiles of English-major female students attending a public university in Saudi Arabia. Although there are different ways of characterising and measuring L2 motivation in university L2 language learners, the L2MSS seemed to be the most appropriate one for this population, as other studies have looked at L2 motivation from this point-of-view in Arabic L1 learners of L2 English (Al-Shehri, 2013; Eusafzai, 2013; Al-Hoorie, 2016).

The second aim was to determine to what degree motivational profiles can predict production of target-like article forms. Again, this seemed like a reasonable area of study because of the lack of similar studies in the literature. Although production of target-like article forms in Saudi L2 English learners has been investigated (Alsowiliem, 2014; Alzamil, 2015), this would be the first study to hypothesize a link between target-like article production and L2 motivation based on the L2MSS.

The third aim of the study was to identify the sociocultural factors that shape Saudi female university-level English learners' L2 motivation and identity. Although Saudi students have been studied, there have been fewer studies on female students (Alresheedi, 2014) compared to male students (Al-Hoorie,

2016; Alshahrani, 2016; Al-Qahtani, 2017a, 2020). Studying female Saudi students offers the opportunity to shed light on how theoretical and sociological perspectives can be applied to this area of linguistics. One area that can be explored is target-like article production in the interlanguage continuum. For these and other reasons, this represents a further contribution to the literature.

1.2.2 Scope

In terms of scope, first, an L2 motivation measuring instrument that works well in this sample was developed, and then data gathered about (1) motivation (using the instrument), and (2) production (using writing tasks). In addition, other social factors that might influence target-like production were gathered by questionnaire. Statistical models were used to identify associations between sociolinguistic factors, L2 motivation, and L2 target-like production. Interview data was gathered from the same participants who underwent the writing tasks, and analysed for themes. Because this study involves both quantitative and qualitative data collection, it is considered a mixed methods study.

1.3 Rationale

The research reported in this thesis took place in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Despite the view that most Saudis have held about English in the past, there has been a noticeable shift in Saudi learners' motivation to learn English in recent years (Faruk, 2013; Alrabai, 2016). Most Saudis perceive English as vital to the country's growth and advancement; they feel that there is a significant need for English in various domains (e.g. employment and service encounters). Still, Saudi Arabia is a relatively under-researched context where contemporary insights from motivational research are concerned. This dearth of scholarship presented an opportunity to make a genuine contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of SLA.

The targeted group for the present study was English-major Saudi female learners at Princess Nourah University (PNU) in Riyadh, the capital city of Saudi Arabia. Evidence in the literature suggests that Saudi female learners show higher levels of L2 motivation than their male counterparts (Moskovsky and Alrabai, 2009; Alrahaili, 2013). Moreover, Saudi females tend to favour using

English over Arabic in labour market settings, medical arenas, and technological fields (Al-Jarf, 2008).

As the largest female-only University in the world (Almansour, 2015) with a population of 49,713 students in total (*Higher Education Statistics*, 2016), PNU offered a productive site to conduct this research. PNU has a prominent L2 English language learning programme from which to recruit appropriate participants for the study.

1.4 Methodology and research questions

As noted above, this study employed a mixed-methods approach that combined both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Taking into account the level of complexity and dynamicity of motivation (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011), the mixed-methods approach offers a more robust understanding of the interaction between motivation and article usage and elucidates the contextual influences that reflect this complex interaction. In sum, the research employed a variety of data collection tools: an instrument that was geared to generate a snapshot of learners' motivational orientations; writing tasks that were employed to collect linguistic data; and semi-structured interviews that were used to capture the motivational influences underlying learners' motivational orientations. The study utilised the collected information to address the following research questions:

1- What are the motivational profiles of English-major Saudi female students in PNU?
2- To what degree can motivation predict learners' use of target-like article forms?
3- What are the socio-cultural factors that shape English-major Saudi female English learners' L2 motivation and identity?

The results of this study provide some useful insights into the nature of L2 motivation, especially concerning its association with learners' use of target-like article forms. Furthermore, the study aspires to illustrate how contextual factors interact with learners' multifaceted identity to shed more light on the nature of this relationship. Such knowledge could prove valuable to L2 motivation scholarship, which has been dominated by achievement-oriented frameworks.

Also, it presents new data on Saudi women in higher education, which linguistically has been an understudied population.

1.5 Structure of the thesis

The thesis consists of seven chapters:

Chapter 1 presents an overview of the research gap and methods to address it. It also highlights the aims and the research questions that guided the study.

Chapter 2 situates the study within the context of Saudi Arabia. It gives a general description of the socio-cultural context and historical background of women's education in the Kingdom. It also reviews the overall introduction of the English language and its functions in the Saudi context. Moreover, the chapter evaluates the launch of English into the Saudi educational system (curriculum and teaching methods), with a focus on the development of higher education for Saudi females.

Chapter 3 seeks to answer the first research question about Saudi female learners' motivational profiles. First, the chapter offers a brief historical background of the evolving phases of L2 motivation research, which have proven to be influential in the development of socio-dynamic perspectives. It then shifts to focus on the L2MSS (Dörnyei, 2009), the L2 motivation theory on which instrument development was based. The L2MSS theory is explained, then how it is applied to the study is described. Next, the chapter offers a critical review of the relevant literature on Saudi learners' English L2 motivation in the Saudi context, and the role of other social factors in shaping L2 motivation, including socio-economic status (SES) and parental influence. Next, the method of instrument development is described, along with a report of a pilot study conducted to ensure validity and reliability of the instrument. Collecting instrument data from 207 Saudi female students is described, and a descriptive analysis is presented. The results show that L2 motivational profiles in female English-major students was high, and was not dependent upon specific English major declared.

Chapter 4 addresses the study's second research question, the association between L2 motivation and written TLA production. First, the development of identity approaches within L2 variationist research is outlined; then the

framework utilised to extract the linguistic tokens under investigation is explained. Next, literature is reviewed on Saudi learners' acquisition of English article forms. To gather textual data, 25 participants who completed the L2 motivation instrument also completed writing tasks, and these were coded into a corpus. Social factors were also collected. Two quantitative analysis approaches were used; the multivariable logistic regression approach was used to analyse linguistic determinants of producing TLA, and multivariable linear regression was used to analyse social determinants of producing TLA. It was found that singular noun phrases (NPs) were associated with lower probabilities of TLA, and that plural NPs and having parents with higher English competency were associated with higher probabilities of TLA production.

Chapter 5 addresses the third research question about socio-cultural factors that shape the learners' L2 motivation and identity. This chapter represents the qualitative portion of the mixed-methods study, and starts by presenting the person-in-context relational view of L2 motivation (Ushioda, 2009), the framework used to analyse the interaction between learners' identity and contextual and social factors. This part of the chapter delineates the theoretical underpinnings of the framework and demonstrates the benefits of combining different strands of research to contribute to a better understanding of motivation as dynamic and situated. The same 25 participants were interviewed about their L2 motivation, production, and future L2 selves. It was found that students had a collective future L2 self that was directed by their family (especially their fathers), so the L2MSS was not a useful theory to apply in this case. Further, it was found that there was only an indirect connection between L2 motivation and TLA production.

Chapter 6 presents a discussion that synthesises the key findings of the quantitative and qualitative data from the questionnaire, writing tasks, and semi-structured interviews. It presents the final interpretation of all the research questions together.

Chapter 7 summarises the central findings for each research question, and highlights the study's key contributions to knowledge. This chapter also reviews the limitations of the study, suggests directions for future investigation and discusses the practical applications of the study's findings.

Chapter 2: The Context of the Study

2.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the context of the study. It starts with an overview of the geographical, historical, economic and cultural background of Saudi Arabia. The chapter then discusses the Saudi public education system, and provides a historical account of women's education in the Saudi context. The chapter then focuses on the status of English, and English language learning and teaching, in Saudi Arabia.

The chapter continues by introducing the specific context of the study, namely Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University (PNU) College of Languages (CoL). The final section concludes with a detailed description of the English concentrations offered by CoL at PNU, as well as the English programmes' design and aims.

2.2 A profile of Saudi Arabia

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, also known as Saudi Arabia, is located on the Arabian Peninsula in the centre of the Middle East (see Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1. Map of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (CIA, 2020)

It was founded as a state by King Abdulaziz Bin Saud in 1932. It occupies an area of approximately two million square kilometers, making it the second largest country in the Arab world. Saudi Arabia has thirteen provinces and over five thousand cities, towns, and villages (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). Riyadh is the capital city and is located in the centre of Saudi Arabia about 550 km west of the Persian Gulf. Approximately 35 million people live in Saudi Arabia, including approximately 12 million expatriate workers known as non-Saudis who come from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds (*General Authority for Statistics*, 2020). In terms of ethnic diversity in Saudi Arabia, the population comprises 90% Arabs and 10% people of Asian and African origins (Alhawsawi, 2013).

Saudi Arabia is an Islamic state, and regarded as the birthplace of Islam given that it is home to the Two Holy Mosques in Makkah and Madinah (Al-Qahtani, 2015). Approximately three million Muslims from all over the globe normally visit Saudi Arabia annually to perform Islamic rituals. These factors give Saudi Arabia a unique position both in the local Arabic region and in the Islamic world. As such, Islam is not only restricted to religious and spiritual practices, but is deeply rooted in Saudis' identity and shapes their way of life, values, beliefs, social norms, and behaviours (Al-Johani, 2009; Alrahaili, 2018).

The official language of Saudi Arabia is Arabic. People speak a non-standard form of Arabic in informal, every-day communication, while the standard Arabic, called *Fus'ha*, is limited to formal verbal and written communication in areas like academic lectures, government correspondence, television and radio news programmes, and religious sermons. The revelation of the Quran, the Muslim holy book, in Arabic creates a special bond between Arabic and Islam (Alrahaili, 2018). Islam fosters the use of Arabic, because Muslims are required to use Arabic in their religious practices such as prayers and reading the Quran. Arabic is perceived as a sacred language that requires promotion in everyday communication.

2.2.1 The Saudi economy

Even though oil was discovered in the late 1930s, the economic boom in Saudi Arabia did not start until the 1970s, making it the fastest growing economy in

the Middle East (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). The Saudi economy came to depend on this wealth, and the government established funding for developmental projects in various areas like governmental infrastructure, healthcare, and education (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015). While the dependence on oil has brought extreme wealth, it put the long-term sustainability of the Saudi economy in jeopardy. With the sharp decline of the oil price in 2014, the Saudi government realised that it had to diversify the economy to create alternative and more sustainable business sectors (Thompson, 2017).

In 2016, Saudi Arabia officially launched the Vision 2030 plan led by Crown Prince Mohammed Bin Salman, the President of the Council for Economic and Development Affairs and Minister of Defense. This plan is divided into long-term and short-term goals to be met before the year 2030, and envisions a wholly reformed Saudi Arabia (Saudi Vision 2030, 2020). It has three main focuses: a vibrant society, thriving economy and ambitious national agenda (Saudi Vision 2030, 2020). The multidimensional National Development Plan establishes a set of goals focusing on reforms in education, tourism, entertainment, and international investment. In the tourism sector, for example, leisure tourism was formally launched in 2019. Within ten days of its formal announcement, 24 thousand people visited Saudi Arabia, with Chinese tourists topping the list, and visitors from the United Kingdom (UK) and United States (US) in second and third place respectively (Ministry of Tourism, 2019). Importantly, addressing the gender gap in the Saudi workforce is one of the first steps to diversifying the economy and opening alternative business sectors, and university-educated Saudi women present a large untapped potential in this regard. Saudi Arabia has strong economic incentives to hire women in novel fields such as marketing, tourism, and media (Swaantje, 2018).

2.2.2 Saudi culture

Traditionally, Saudi culture is collective, in the sense that maintaining strong ties among family members is socially emphasised; and group well-being supersedes individual aspirations. This offers many advantages to group members, including stability, coherence, and support, particularly in times of need (Al-Johani, 2009). In the family, most parents view children as passive

recipients, whose role is to learn from the adults. Society attributes students' academic successes and failures to parents (Al-Nafisah, 2000).

Saudi culture presents the image of a male-dominated society (Alrahaili, 2018). It is typically the man who is responsible for working and financially providing for the family, whereas the woman assumes full responsibility for household affairs and child rearing (Alshoaibi, 2018). This is not dictated by Islamic principles, but is deeply rooted in conservative social traditions (Al-Qahtani, 2015). Women have a subordinate status to men, and female behaviour is regarded as a component of a male's dignified image in his community. Because of this social order, men and women are positioned within specific and expected gender roles. Men are associated with positions of power, leadership, guardianship and decision-making, while a woman's role is seen as one enacting virtue and conformity (Al-Qahtani, 2015). In terms of both the mother and the father, the status of parents is very high in the Saudi context, mainly because of Islamic teachings (Al-Johani, 2009; Assulaimani, 2015). The Quranic commandments explain that it is obligatory for Muslims to be kind, merciful, and dutiful towards their parents, and to follow their parents' commands unless the parents ask their sons and daughters to do something that goes against other religious principles. In the past, Saudi has had the concept of "guardianship", where fathers and older male relatives have guardianship over children, as well as adult women. This system was formally abolished during the data collection period of this study, in 2019, but its history demonstrates how families are hierarchical in Saudi Arabia.

These cultural features have implications for young Saudi women contemplating a career. Because Saudi women's roles are defined by their virtue and dignity, gender segregation in Saudi Arabia is a cultural norm that prevents women from mixing with men that are not blood relatives. Gender segregation is implemented in places like educational institutions, amusement parks, restaurants, and banks. For instance, education settings like universities are strictly segregated (Al-Shehri, 2013). However, driven by the post-oil economic plan, Vision 2030, the government has introduced social and cultural reforms to Saudi society. Some of these recent reforms pertain to relaxing social norms

regarding gender segregation, and removing barriers in women's everyday lives.

For instance, historically, women were not allowed to drive in Saudi. In decades gone by, this did not pose the significant problem it does today, given that Saudi had a much smaller population, where most families had drivers who could supply transportation (Rijal and Khoirina, 2019). But as Saudi grew through the internet age, and an emphasis was placed on education of girls and women, women not being able to drive themselves in Saudi Arabia became a huge burden. If drivers were not available, male relatives would have to complete these duties. It created practical problems for car ownership, school attendance, and employment (Rijal and Khoirina, 2019).

Finally, in September 2017, the Kingdom announced that women would be allowed to drive by the following summer, lifting a decades-old ban (Rijal and Khoirina, 2019). Also, in August 2019, the government abolished the male guardianship system which required a woman to obtain consent from her male guardian (e.g., a father or a husband) for most of her affairs like seeking education, employment, and undergoing a medical operation. The recent reforms also offer women the ability — once they reach 21 — to travel abroad without requiring a male guardian's permission (Bajaber, 2020).

2.2.3 The public education system in Saudi Arabia

In 1925, before the foundation and proclamation of the Kingdom, King Abdulaziz founded the Directorate of Education (DoE), which established the formal educational system in Saudi Arabia (Al-Sadan, 2010). With the discovery of oil in the late 1930s, there was an increase in demand to open more public schools across the country. In 1954, the Ministry of Education (MoE) replaced the DoE, and was responsible for opening more public schools and universities. In 1957, the first university, known as King Saud University, was established in Riyadh.

Education in Saudi Arabia is gender-segregated; however, both sexes receive education in the same number of subjects, and experience the same number of weekly hours of schooling. The Saudi education system has five main stages;

pre-primary, primary, intermediary, secondary, and higher education (Alrashidi and Phan, 2015) (see Figure 1.2).

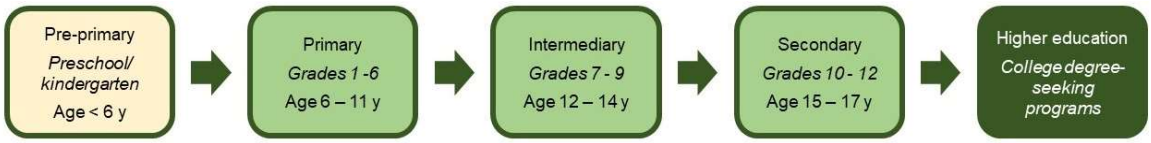

Figure 1.2. Saudi Education Structure

The pre-primary level is comprised of three levels – infant, nursery and preliminary. As shown in the figure, these levels are equivalent to preschool and kindergarten in Western cultures. These stages serve children in the preschool and kindergarten ages, before age six. Primary stage includes grades one through six, and serves children between the ages of six and 11. The second stage is intermediate, includes grades seven through nine, and serves children between the ages of 12 and 14. Secondary stage is the pre-college level, and includes grades ten, eleven, and twelve. The secondary stage serves children aged 15 through 17. University-level education, or higher education, is the fifth level of education in Saudi Arabia. Individuals who immediately choose to obtain their bachelor's degrees (usually between the ages of 18 and 23) have more options available from the Saudi government regarding waiving or subsidizing tuition at Saudis public universities, so students are encouraged to pursue higher education immediately after the secondary stage. The Saudi government encourages Saudis to pursue higher education in different public and private universities and colleges across the country by offering them financial assistance and free on-campus housing (Al-Mutairi, 2007). Learning of English in this system is discussed in more detail in Section 3.1 English learning in Saudi schools.

The national curriculum in Saudi education is characterised by its uniformity (Al-Mutairi, 2007). All stages across Saudi schools follow the same curriculum. The objective behind this policy is to make education more efficient, in that it can ensure that all Saudis have the same religious, social, and economic values, and that they can develop all the skills and knowledge that will enable them to partake in social and cultural activities. The curriculum department in the MoE is

in charge of developing school curricula. This task is usually assigned to a group of experts who establish learning objectives and select or prepare content that meets such objectives (Al-Seghayer, 2011).

Each school year in Saudi has two terms, and at the end of each term, there is a final assessment in each subject. Typically, in each term, there is a subject that is taught both terms (e.g., English as a Foreign Language (EFL) curriculum one, and EFL curriculum two). At the end of the year, one overall assessment score combines the assessments between the two courses for a total of 100 points. In the EFL course, in each term, there is a total of 50 marks on the final assessment, and these are distributed between the final written exam (worth 30 marks) and coursework such as midterms and participation (worth 20 marks) (General Directorate, cited in Alyami (2016)).

2.2.4 History of women's education in Saudi Arabia

Before 1960, women in Saudi Arabia were denied a formal education. Girls were either home schooled or sent to *Kutab* (religious schools) where they would mainly learn about the Quran. Families did not care for their daughters to get a formal education because their main goal was to raise devout daughters and proper future wives, mothers, and caretakers. In 1959, the ruling king, King Saud, announced the initiation of women's formal education after almost four decades (Alyami, 2016), allowing females to enroll in public schools like their male counterparts. This came after a group of educated middle-class men petitioned the government to establish schools for girls. These men thought that educated wives would better supplement the family and the harmony of the marriage (Baki, 2004). According to Yizraeli (2012), the first government-funded school for women was established in 1960.

In the beginning, the initiation of women's education received mixed reactions. Although most of society showed acceptance and positive attitudes towards this huge step, a minority denounced and opposed it. In particular, clergymen and their followers opposed women's education out of fear that women who left their homes would mix and mingle with men who are not related to them, thus exposing themselves to promiscuous and morally corrupt behaviour, which is against both upbringing and Islamic values. Another argument against female

education centred around a woman's main role as proper housewife and mother; some families feared that going to school would distract their daughters from learning how to be proper housewives and mothers and, therefore, would harm the structure of the family and society in general (Alyami, 2016). After a few years, however, the status of female education changed drastically, as people in the population began to see its advantages, and it became more normative to see girls in school (Al-Mutairi, 2007). Public sentiment evolved into one of significant support (Al-Mutairi, 2007). Since that time, there has been a rapid growth in the number of schools and classrooms for girls in Saudi Arabia. In 1961, there were 15 primary schools for girls, but in 1988, there were over 3,000 primary schools, 958 intermediate schools and 415 secondary schools for girls (Alyami, 2016).

With an increasing number of women becoming high school graduates, it was only natural that they would want to take their studies further (Alshuaifan, 2009); however, university admission was only available to men at the beginning. With mounting pressure on the government to allow women to attend institutions of higher learning, universities started admitting females in single-gender campuses.

2.2.5 History of Princess Nourah University

It is in this context that in 1970, the Girls' College was established in Riyadh, and this marked the first tertiary education provider for Saudi women. At first, female Saudi university students were offered a range of different courses in Arts and Sciences. Although elementary level school-girls were being taught by women who had completed their secondary stage of education without formal training, the main purpose of the Girls' College was to educate females further to become teachers in intermediate and secondary schools (Alshuaifan, 2009). The establishment of the Girls' College led to the opening of 102 higher education institutions for Saudi women, including universities and intermediate and community colleges. These women's educational institutions were distributed across 72 Saudi cities, and serving about six hundred thousand female students (PNU, no date). In 2006, by royal decree, the Girls' College was changed to Princess Nourah University (Almansour, 2015).

2.3 The status of English in Saudi Arabia

Al-Johani (2009) and Alseghayer (2011) reported that English was first introduced and used for discourse in business affairs in Saudi Arabia after oil was discovered, in the 1930s. At that time, foreign companies dominated oil production, and English was used as the medium of communication. As a result, Saudis had to learn English to be able to communicate with the influx of people who were called “expatriates”, even though they may have done a variety of roles (Al-Seghayer, 2011). By the late 1970s, Saudi Arabia already had foreign companies contributing to its economic development in hospitals, shopping malls, and restaurants (Al-Braik, 2007). Expatriates at that time formed 90% of the employees in major establishments, like retail companies and in healthcare, while the other 10% was made up of Arab nationals with a good command of English (Al-Braik, 2007).

During the economic boom associated with the energy industry in the 1970s, Saudis in general were not prepared for jobs in the retail or healthcare sectors, so expatriates were recruited to fill these gaps in the job market (Edgar, Azhar and Duncan, 2016). Only recently, with the initiation of Saudisation by the Saudi Ministry of Labor, companies are required to hire Saudi nationals into the workforce, with the goal of having them make up at least 30% of their employees as a way to reduce reliance on expatriate workers (Edgar, Azhar and Duncan, 2016).

English has always been the principal medium of communication among Saudis and non-Arabic-speaking expatriates who worked in various sectors like business and health. This status of English continues until today. According to the Ministry of Health (2015), of all the non-Saudi medical staff working in the country, 67% are physicians, 39% are nurses, 8% are pharmacists, and 6% are other health personnel. Since English is the official language in many of these workplaces, this forces anyone interacting with these providers to have a command of English. It may seem contradictory that a country where Arabic is the spoken language would have public sector organisations like hospitals require English as the language of the workplace. This can be somewhat explained by the goals of Vision 2030. One of the main focuses is to standardise policies and procedures in Saudi to harmonise with international

policies and procedures, especially with respect to industry and education. The idea is that if Saudi Arabia can be consistent internationally, it can compete on an international front (*Saudi Vision 2030*, 2020).

As an extension of this philosophy, Saudis and international partners who are seeking economic investments in Saudi Arabia's business sector use English to conduct negotiation and strengthen business relationships. This has led to English being established as an official language of the workplace in some parts of both the private and the public sectors in Saudi, particularly in jobs related to industry, healthcare, and lodging (Al-Seghayer, 2011).

Despite the presence of a large expatriate workforce, most Saudis do not need to speak English in their everyday lives (Alrabai, 2014). More Saudis are starting to fill positions in the retail and food industries, so there may be less need for Saudis to learn and use English, as they can use Arabic to communicate with each other at work. But nonetheless, these two industries are heavily reliant on expatriates who do not use Arabic.

Even though English is ubiquitous in the Saudi environment, many Saudi individuals perceive English as a colonising language and worry that the use of English in Saudi Arabia may undermine local values and beliefs. Furthermore, some Saudis see English as a threat to the national and Islamic identity (Alrahaili, 2013). Furthermore, Alqahtani (2011) stated that most Saudis regard using English in a context where the official language is Arabic as a sign of showing off or lacking pride in the Arabic language. Studies have found that due to the dominance of Arabic, Saudi English learners are not presented the opportunities or the pressure to use English as part of their social lives (Alqahtani, 2011).

Despite these perceptions about the English language in Saudi Arabia, recently there has been a noticeable shift in the value and importance of learning English (Alrabai, 2016). Most Saudi higher education students today realise that English is instrumental for success in higher education (especially if studying outside Saudi Arabia), and entrance to an occupation offering career advancement. For instance, a study by Faruk (2013) found that Saudis' attitudes toward English were highly positive because most of them believed

that knowing English is necessary for navigating different domains, and is vital to Saudi Arabia's future prosperity. A study by Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009) revealed that 85% of Saudi English learners believed that English would help them to secure a highly-paid job. If this is typical, many Saudis believe that learning English enables them to access resources that would otherwise be inaccessible to them.

Research shows that Saudi women generally have more positive attitudes towards English than their male peers (Alrahaili, 2013; Hagler, 2014). Al-Jarf (2008) conducted a study of female tertiary students' perceptions of the functions of English and Arabic, and found that 60% of them perceived that English facilitates their scientific and technological knowledge, such as how to use a computer, and improves their ability to research scientific resources. The study also reported that 81% of respondents felt they needed English to study abroad or advance their education, while 91% felt English could help them to secure a better job at hospitals or corporations. They felt this because they believed they would be required to communicate using English with non-Saudis, write business reports in English, and correspond with international companies in English. In addition, 89% stated that they were learning English both to improve and heighten their social status and graduate with a degree or certificate from an English programme. This is because they believed society respects those who speak English, which is a marked change from how English has been viewed in Saudi history.

2.3.1 English learning in Saudi schools

The current status of English in the Saudi context draws attention to the necessity of teaching and learning English in schools serving children (primary, intermediary, and secondary). The Saudi government first introduced English to the syllabus of these schools in the 1950s. English was taught as a compulsory subject at the intermediate and secondary stages. The government at that time was against teaching English at primary stages out of fear it would hinder the learning of Arabic (Mahboob and Elyas, 2014). However, in 2004, this policy changed, and English classes were introduced from grade six (the last year of primary school).

Since 2010, English has been included in the fourth grade syllabus, and therefore, students today receive English classes in state schools continuously from grade four to grade 12. Primary stage students undertake two English classes per week, while students at the intermediate and secondary stages participate in four English classes per week, with each class lasting for 45 minutes.

In classrooms of primary, intermediary, and secondary schools teaching second language learning (L2) in English, the main teaching material is the course textbook designed by the MoE (Alrabai, 2018). English teachers at each grade level follow this ready-made textbook, and are expected to adhere to it and have the class complete it within the allotted time, which is normally a single term (three to four months). The content of the textbook reflects the beliefs, values, and traditions of Saudi society, and covers all language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening), with much emphasis given to functional grammar (Alrabai, 2018). Al-Hajailan (2006) maintains that English curriculum experts in Saudi define and describe the learning material based on their own perceptions, rather than on learners' needs and interests.

One of the key features of the English language classroom in Saudi Arabia is that it is highly teacher-centred (Al-Seghayer, 2011). Teachers play a dominant role as the sole transmitters of knowledge, and controllers of their students' learning. Teachers mainly focus on traditional teaching methods, such as repetition of words and sentences, memorisation, and monotonous grammatical drills. For instance, teachers encourage their students to memorise entire paragraphs to write in an exam, even though this cultivates a lack of understanding (Alkubaidi, 2014). In this learning situation, emphasis is placed on grammatical accuracy and students have limited opportunities to practise English in lifelike situations, such as spontaneous production (Rahman and Alhaisoni, 2013).

2.3.2 English learning in Saudi higher education

Today, in Saudi higher education, English is used in instruction in fields where English is an international standard, like medicine and business (Ebad, 2014),

and Arabic is used for instruction in fields where English knowledge is not necessary.

Al-Abed Al-Haq and Smadi (1996) suggest that the first academic institution to open an English department in Saudi Arabia was King Saud University in 1957. Today, most Saudi universities have English programmes and English language centres. At the undergraduate level, English programmes typically take four years to complete. They normally give students training in the four basic language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in the first three or four semesters of college, before introducing them to English knowledge specific to their declared majors, such as translation, linguistics, and literature courses.

English is also required in non-English departments in most Saudi higher education institutions. In these cases, English is taken as a required course between two and four hours per week, with each session lasting 50 minutes, which seems like a short time to successfully deliver an entire English lesson. Such courses integrate all four skills and language areas. Additionally, most institutions use English as the medium of instruction in scientific fields like medicine, computer, and engineering. The textbooks and visual aids used by the instructors are also in English. Arabic is used as the medium of instruction in Islamic, Arabic, and social studies domains (Ebad, 2014).

2.4 Princess Nourah University

PNU is a public university located in Riyadh, the capital city of Saudi Arabia. It was initially established in 2006 when a royal decree was issued to unify the six women's colleges in Riyadh, in addition to several newly established colleges. The goal was to establish the first girls' university in Saudi Arabia. In 2008, the University was officially inaugurated, and named *Princess Nourah University*. PNU is argued to be the largest university in the world for women, with a campus of more than 8-million square metres that is designed to accommodate 60,000 students (Almansour, 2015).

PNU provides students with the opportunity to join the education programme of different colleges and departments that offer a wide range of undergraduate and postgraduate degrees. The University consists of 15 colleges, two language institutes, and a community college. The colleges include Computer and

Information Sciences, Business Administration, Languages, Education, Science, Social Work, Art and Design, Art, Medicine, Dentistry, Nursing, Pharmacy, Health and Rehabilitation Sciences, Engineering, and Foundation Year. The admission requirements for undergraduate studies are based on a set of criteria expressed through each field's culmination percent. In the culmination percent, high school grades, the Standard Achievement Admission Test (SAAT) score, and the General Aptitude Test (GAT) score are all weighted such that they equal 100%, but the weighting is different depending upon the field.

2.4.1 College of Languages

The College of Languages (CoL) at the all-female PNU was first established in 2007 with a mission: "to produce highly qualified graduates who exemplify high quality and excellence in the field of languages and translation" (PNU, no date). The CoL serves about 2,200 students with four programmes: French translation, English translation, English linguistics, and English literature. Both the translation programmes are under one department, and English Literature and English Linguistics have their own departments. For the CoL culmination percent, which governs admission, high school grades are weighted at 30%, the SAAT at 50%, and the GAT at 20%.

In the CoL, the first year of the programme is called the foundation year. During this year, students receive training in English language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and undertake introductory level courses in translation and English literature. The various purposes of the foundation year include developing students' English language skills, introducing students to their future study major, and preparing them for study in their chosen discipline at a higher level. Since students do not choose a major until they complete their foundation year, they do not start studying their chosen major until the second year of the programme.

2.4.2 English programmes in CoL

CoL offers three English majors: Translation, Linguistics, and English literature. Each major is a four-year programme, but students do not enter these majors until their second year of college, after their foundation year. After the

foundation year, those in the Translation programme complete 34 additional courses, those in Linguistics 36, and those in English Literature 37. The entry requirement for each major is based on the student's course grades in the foundation courses. For instance, if a student chooses to study Translation, she must obtain 85% of the points or more in the Translation foundation course in order to be eligible for admission into the Translation programme. The teaching of the English programme is delivered over a period of six academic semesters (see Appendix A for a detailed description of each English programme structure and curriculum).

The study that was conducted focused on students in the following three majors: English translation, English Literature, and Linguistics. All of the students had completed their foundation year, and were in the first year of the classes in their chosen major, so they were all second-year students. As is typical, most if not all classes are filled with Saudi young women who were born in Saudi, and experienced its public education system. Therefore, this represents a relatively homogenous group of L2 English learners whose first language is Saudi Arabic, who are likely motivated to adopt the English language as part of their instrumental motivation toward a particular career.

2.5 Summary

This chapter has presented an overview of Saudi Arabia by shedding light on its history and economics, culture, and educational system. It has described the evolution in the status of the use of English in Saudi Arabia, and current attitudes toward English learning and usage in general, and in the educational system in particular. Additionally, the chapter described the history of Saudi women's education, and provided evidence regarding Saudi female learners' dispositions towards the English language.

A few points are particularly relevant to this current study of students in the PNU CoL English programme. First, having a better command of English is becoming a very important skill for simply living in Saudi Arabia, given that so many people speak it in the workplace. Next, Saudi women are attracted to the employment opportunities afforded those who can speak English, and this can be a motivator to study it at the PNU CoL. Third, even though the history of

women's education in Saudi Arabia is relatively recent, the Saudi educational system is very rigidly structured. The pre-higher education system segues very neatly into the higher education system. Finally, the impact of the national strategy Vision 2030 suggests that Saudi will continue moving toward using English in order to harmonise with international industry. This means that knowing how to speak English in Saudi Arabia will become even more important as time goes on.

PNU is an important institution for career training for Saudi women. English language learners in PNU programmes represent a group who are likely to be highly motivated toward achieving second language learning (SLA) in order to further their career goals. Therefore, students in the PNU CoL English programmes provide an optimal group of Arabic speakers motivated to learn English for the purposes of completing their education and furthering their careers.

Chapter 3: The Motivational Profiles of English-major Saudi Female Learners

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes how motivational profile was measured in this study. First, a discussion of the various dimensions of motivational theory is presented. Next, the various ways motivation is related to language learning is discussed. Third, measurement approaches to motivation are reviewed, and a rationale for the measurement choices made in this study is given. An instrument was designed based on these measurement choices and was pilot tested to ensure validity. It was used to measure motivational profiles in a cohort of Saudi female university student undergraduates in an English major programme.

This chapter is divided into three parts. The first part summarises the theoretical framework that was used to examine the Saudi students' motivational profiles, which is the L2 motivational self system (L2MSS) popularised by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009). To set the context for the development of L2 motivation research, the chapter begins by providing some definitions of motivation, and describes the key motivational psychological theories that have contributed to our understanding of the role of motivation in language learning. Then, the chronological development of L2 motivation theory in SLA is outlined. Finally, the literature on English-language learning motivation in Saudi students is discussed, and a summary is presented in the context of L2 motivation theory.

The second part of this chapter details the methodology that was used to develop a valid instrument to measure motivation in a cohort of Saudi female university L2 English learners studying in an English major programme. First, an instrument was developed based upon existing instruments. This instrument underwent a pilot study for validation, and was found to be valid and reliable. The instrument was then administered to a larger cohort of Saudi students.

In the final part, a three-factor and five-factor interpretation of the results is presented, and one of them is defended as the most valid based on factor analysis. At the end of the chapter, the final instrument subscales that will be used for the rest of the analyses are presented.

3.2 Theoretical Framework

This section will describe historical and current theoretical frameworks behind motivation.

3.2.1 Definition of motivation

While motivation may seem intuitively to be a straightforward concept, different strands of inquiry indicate that it is in fact a complex concept. In his book, *"Science and Human Behavior"*, Skinner (1965) argues that motivation is subject to external influences that change human behaviours, and that it is therefore the consequence of external rewards. This claim may be adequate in some ways, but seems to ignore the intrinsic factors seen in human motivation, such as the motivation to learn a new skill or set of knowledge. It emphasises response to external rewards. By contrast, a definition from Vallerand (2012) sees motivation as a consequence of many different types of influences, both external and internal.

Even so, these definitions of human motivation ignore context such as social setting. There may be specific types of motivation, for example, in an educational setting. In that sense, Schunk, Meerce and Pintrich (2014) characterised motivation in education as a process, rather than a static consequence. This idea of motivation can be seen as different but consistent with the ARCS model (Keller, 1983), a model which suggests that learners can be more motivated to learn depending upon features of instructional design (Keller, 1987). Another motivational theory in the education context argues that even within the educational setting, context matters for motivation to participate (Hickey, 2003). Hickey (2003) describes this by relating how parents may observe their children behave differently at home with familiar objects after starting kindergarten. The parents may not realise that these objects are in the educational context at school, so the children learn to use them in new and different ways. This context motivates them to use these household objects differently, and so modifying the educational context can impact motivation.

L2 learners who pursue formal education in language learning put themselves in a specific type of educational setting. This action itself implies motivation to some degree. In 1998, Dörnyei and Ottó (1998, p. 64) define motivation as:

> *the dynamically changing cumulative arousal in a person that initiates, directs, coordinates, amplifies, terminates, and evaluates the cognitive and motor processes whereby initial wishes and desires are selected, prioritised, operationalised, and (successfully or unsuccessfully) acted out.*
>
> (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998, p. 64)

Dörnyei (2009) goes on to outline a theory of L2 motivational orientation in his book, *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) characterise motivation as the reasons why people undertake an action, the effort expended on it, and how long they persist on working to achieve their goal (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2009). In other words, motivation in L2 learners can be seen as the driving force that helps them persist in their language learning from the beginning of their endeavour to the achievement of their goal.

3.3 Motivational Theories

Because this study focuses on L2 learners, Dörnyei's theory of motivation was adopted as the one used in this study. Other theories of L2 motivation could have been used, but Dörnyei's theory is predicated upon identity, and it was felt that identity would be an important component of L2 motivation in the students studied. It is important to review prior theories in motivational psychology in order to better understand Dörnyei's theory.

3.3.1 Motivational Context

Before describing various motivational theories, it is important to acknowledge that motivation has not been studied in a vacuum. Motivation may be directed toward different transactions, tasks, and achievements, and although motivation itself may be a psychological phenomenon, as has been claimed above, it is influenced by external factors. In motivation studies, these factors have been seen as part of the motivational context. Motivation to learn a skill could be subject to a motivational context that includes significant others. Parents, teachers, extended family members, and social others in the community have been studied as part of this context (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Lamb, 2004; Kormos and Kiddle, 2013).

3.3.2 Expectancy-value theories

Expectancy-value theories propose that individuals' choice and effort in a given task, such as learning a new language, depends on two key factors: expectancy of success in achieving the desired outcome, and the value placed on success in achieving it (Atkinson, 1957; Wigfield, 1994). These factors complement one another to increase motivation, but could also decrease motivation, depending on the achieved outcome. If achieving the outcome came too easy, then motivation might be low, but if the outcome seemed impossible to achieve, this could also demotivate. In this sense, the transactional nature of expectancy-value theory can be challenged as there may be multiple components to expectancy of success and value of the desired outcome. Therefore, in this relationship, there could be multiple sources of types of motivation.

With reference to expectancy of success, an expectancy-value theory called attribution theory claims that there is a cause-and-effect relationship between past experience, and an individual's motivation to engage in a given task (Weiner, 1992). If the individual was successful in the past, then there is a tighter relationship between the expectancy and the value (Weiner, 1992). However, the individual may not have been successful in the past despite trying very hard and using different actions; or, conversely, they may have achieved success by fate or chance (Weiner, 1992). Nevertheless, if they had achieved success in the past, attribution theory argues that they will then be motivated to repeat the task and expect the same success in response (Weiner, 1992).

Another expectancy-value theory, called self-efficacy theory, emphasises the role of an individual's evaluation of their capability to achieve the desired outcome and avoid negative results (Bandura, 1993). As defined by Bandura (1993, p. 118), self-efficacy is related to "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning". Theoretically, if people possess high levels of self-efficacy, they would be more likely to engage in a given task because they would theoretically be assured that they would have success in the outcome. So, rather than being motivated by past experience, as in attribution theory, under self-efficacy, people are motivated by their own evaluation of their abilities.

A third expectancy-value theory, called self-worth theory, postulates that the highest human priority is establishing a sense of self-worth and maintaining a positive face, and this therefore serves as an essential motivation (Covington, 1992). Hence, when faced with poor performance, the person has the choice between viewing this as attributed to their lack of ability, or attributed to other factors (Covington, 2000). Covington (2000) holds that if a person receives negative feedback and attributes this to their lack of ability, they will withdraw to protect their self-worth, and will be demotivated. The implication is that both external and internal factors could serve to both motivate and demotivate a person from engaging in a learning activity.

Expectancy-value theorists tend to emphasise one or the other side of the equation – the expectancy or the value – and this does not lend itself to a discernable theory of motivation. In expectancy-value theory, the motivation involved is seen as an aspect of the expectancy-value process. In attribution theory, the motivation is derived from past experience, and in self-efficacy theory, the motivation is derived from a person's judgment of their own capability. In self-worth theory, motivation is derived from an urge to protect self-worth.

Because of this, expectancy-value theory does not lend itself to studying motivation as a construct, independent of an understanding of an expectancy-value transaction, and was not adopted for use in this study. Further, it has been suggested that expectancy-value theories might not be the best for studying motivation in an educational context (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). This is because the trade-off between the expectancy and the value is delayed and complex in learning. Educational researchers therefore became interested in studying motivation from the point of view of self-determination theory.

3.3.3 Self-determination theories

As described earlier, expectancy-value theories emphasise the actual exchange of expectancy and value. Because learning is not an example of such a direct exchange, expectancy-value theories can be difficult to apply to learning and education. This type of motivation would need to be defined outside the

construct of an expectancy-value exchange, so a different framework for thinking about motivation is needed.

The self-determination theories provide a framework that does not focus so much on an exchange as the source of motivation, but rather at independent factors and their interplay. Deci and Ryan (1985) define both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in relation to the completion of tasks, and these concepts could be useful in describing different kinds of motivations driving L2 learning. Deci and Ryan defined intrinsic motivation as relating to people engaging in a task simply to experience the pleasure and enjoyment of the task, such as decorating a room, or to satisfy their curiosity, such as reading a book. They defined extrinsic motivation as relating to engaging in a task for the sake of external reward, or to avoid negative outcomes. In this way, they defined motivation by the source from which the stimulus came, and defined an internal set of sources as intrinsic and an external set of sources as extrinsic.

The conceptualisation of tasks being completed as a result of a combination of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors was assembled into self-determination theory, which observes this dichotomy but conceptualises intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors as falling along a continuum (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Self-determination theory presumes humans will be more motivated to perform a given task when the social environment satisfies three psychological needs: competence, relatedness, and autonomy. In self-determination theory, competence relates to the need for social interaction and a sense of accomplishment, relatedness refers to the need for a sense of belonging and connection with others, and autonomy refers to pursuing a course of action or task as a matter of personal choice. Deci and Ryan (2000) go on to argue that the motivation to complete a task is increased when socio-contextual conditions satisfy these psychological needs.

Self-determination theories, therefore, focus on how competence, relatedness, and autonomy play a role in completing tasks as sources of both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. For this reason, they have been the basis of studies of motivation in L2 learning (Poupore, 2016; van Minkelen, P *et al.*, 2020). However, self-determination theories are calibrated for task learning, and do not purport to explain lifelong learning goals and long-term learning strategies.

3.3.4 Goal theories

In a generic sense, a *goal* can be defined as a purpose, aim, or objective (Lock and Latham 1990). Goal-theories conceptualise motivation based on the assumption that goal-directed behaviour is part of human nature. Goal theories can do a better job of helping explain motivation in a long-term learning context that stretches beyond language learning tasks. Two theories within this paradigm include goal-setting theory and goal-orientation theory.

Goal-setting theory was initially proposed by Locke and Latham (1990), and holds that people's actions are caused by goal-setting behaviour. Therefore, in order to take action, people first need to set goals. In this way, the nature of the goal will determine the nature of the motivation.

Goal-setting theory goes on to explain that for goals to motivate people to take action, they need to be specific and difficult to achieve (Locke and Latham, 1990). This is because these two attributes will increase sustained motivation toward the goal. Specifically, detailed goals motivate the goal-setter to achieve exactly that goal, and not something similar or short of that goal. This sustains the motivation toward the goal. Further, difficult goals are not easily met; the goal must be difficult enough to sustain motivation. However, if the goal is seen as too hard, it may not serve as motivation (Locke and Latham, 1990).

By contrast, goal-orientation theory was developed as a way of thinking about improving the classroom climate to better orient students toward a learning goal (Ames, 1992). Two major constructs in goal-orientation theory are mastery orientation and performance orientation. Mastery orientation refers to how motivated learners are to perform a specific task for the sake of the task, while performance-orientation refers to how motivated learners are to engage in a given task for the purpose of proving their capability to others, or to receive a reward for their performance (Ames, 1992). Goal-orientation theory acknowledges that there may be many other sources of motivation in the classroom setting, but co-opting mastery and performance orientation in learners is the goal of the teacher to encourage learners to complete learning tasks and acquire knowledge.

Goal theories speak to motivation as a function of goal-setting or goal-orientation. In this sense, goal theories can be seen as theories about achievement-level motivation, rather than task-level motivation (Ames, 1992). Goal theories are especially appropriate for long-term goals that require persistence for their achievement and have a discrete event as their endpoint (e.g., graduation). However, although L2 learning is related to goals and achievement, it is not associated with a discrete event at the endpoint, and is rather related to lifelong learning orientations (Lantolf and Appel, 1994). Although there are discrete achievements on the way to L2 mastery, such as achieving enough proficiency to perform a job using the L2, motivation to actually achieve L2 mastery would be more likely to relate to a lifelong learning orientation rather than a short-term, instrumental one.

This multitude of motivational theories demonstrates that motivation can be multi-faceted, and can be sustained in varying levels over the period of executing a transaction, completing a task, or reaching a goal. L2 learning therefore poses a challenge in conceptualising motivation, as it incorporates many transactions, tasks and goals, and may even speak to intrinsic goals that are less detailed and specific than the ones described in goal-setting theory. Hence, L2 motivation theory was developed for the specific purpose of characterising motivation for L2 learning.

3.4 L2 motivation theory

L2 motivation theory evolved through four stages of development. These will be covered first. Afterwards, the current L2 motivational self system will be explained.

3.4.1 The historic development of L2 motivation theory

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) describe the historic development of L2 motivation theory in four phases: the socio-psychological, the cognitive-situated, the process-oriented, and the socio-dynamic. Research on L2 motivation from the social-psychological perspective was pioneered by the Canadian social psychologist, Robert Gardner, his mentor Wallace Lambert, and their colleagues (Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1986). The official languages of Canada are English and French, and Gardner and Lambert (1972) carried

out extensive work on Canadian English-speaking students' motivation in learning French as a second language. The social-psychological phase of L2 motivation theory development mainly comprised Gardner's research in this learning context.

In 2003, Gardner and Masgoret published a meta-analysis of articles co-authored by Gardner which examined relationships between L2 motivation and L2 learning (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). A meta-analysis uses a systematic way to combine estimate from many studies into one overall estimate. The meta-analysis contained 75 articles that focused on studying L2 mastery and achievement in the classroom setting, from elementary school through college (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003).

Gardner's initial data led him to conclude that certain students appeared more motivated than others for L2 learning, and these students appeared to achieve proficiency earlier (Gardner, 1986). In investigating these students, Gardner identified concepts behind two different types of motivation. First, he identified integrativeness, which refers to the degree to which learners have favourable attitudes toward the L2 community and a desire to learn the L2 for the purposes of integrating into that community (Gardner, 1986). Having more integrativeness was associated with more motivation toward L2 learning. Secondly, Gardner and Lambert also identified instrumental motivations, meaning motivations toward L2 learning for practical reasons, such as getting a job or passing exams (Gardner, 1986).

The seminal work carried out by Gardner and his colleagues resulted in the development of his socio-educational model of L2 learning (Gardner, 1986). This model provides guidance for improving classroom environments and educational contexts so as to facilitate mastery for L2 learning students (Gardner, 1986). In this model, individual attitudes such as level of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation (as a concept itself) are considered influences in L2 learning (Gardner, 1986). Gardner advocated using the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) he developed as a prescreen to better understand the sources of motivation in L2 learners in the classroom (Gardner, 1985). The AMTB includes many questions aimed at measuring subdomains of motivation for L2 learning, but all of them

fall into one of three domains: level of desire for integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning context, and motivation intensity (Gardner, 1985). Components measured in the AMTB in the learning context include social milieu (cultural and educational backgrounds); individual differences (aptitude, motivation, attitudes); language contexts (formal versus informal; and outcomes (linguistic versus non-linguistic) (Gardner, 1985).

In Gardner's AMTB, motivation intensity was measured separately from the other domains (Gardner, 1985). This is because Gardner conceived of motivation as an independent variable, separate from integrativeness and learning context, and considered achievement in the target language as a dependent variable. He illustrated his understanding of the basic model behind the role of motivation in SLA (see Figure 3.1).

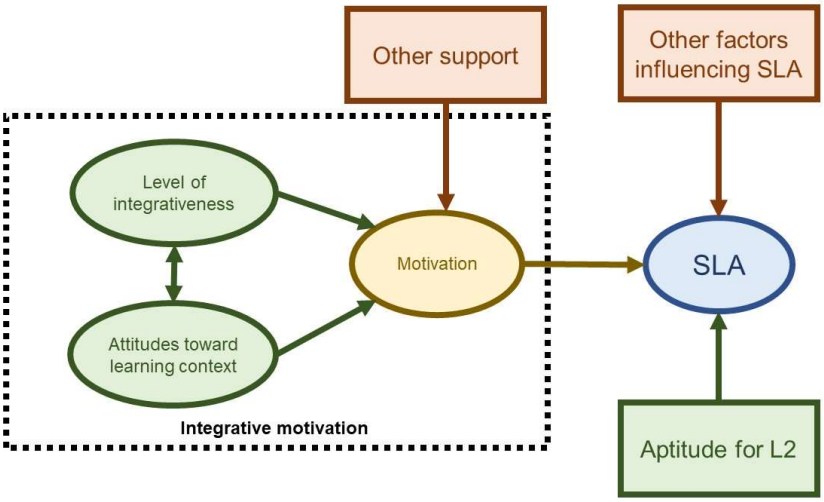

Figure 3.1. Basic model of the role of motivation in SLA.

Figure adapted from Gardner (2000)

As shown in the figure, Gardner suggested that if efforts are taken to increase the level of integrativeness and to harmonise attitudes of students to the learning context, motivation for SLA will increase, and the likelihood of mastery will increase. Gardner was able to demonstrate these relationships among his

students through formal research (Gardner, 2000; Masgoret and Gardner, 2003).

As much as Gardner's model was useful in his learning context, research using the integrative motivation approach was not easily transferred to other learning contexts. In his critique, H. Douglas Brown (1990) pointed out that while Gardner's relatively simple model may work for his particular learning context, there are many other motivations that fall in the categories of intrinsic and extrinsic which could exert influence on L2 mastery and achievement in a multitude of other learning contexts outside French-speaking Canada (Brown, 1990). Lamb (2004) used the integrative model of motivation to study L2 acquisition of English in Indonesian children aged 11 and 12 years, and found that because those students had different sets of motivations for learning English from Gardner's students for learning French, the integrative and instrumental motivations were indistinguishable. This was attributed by the author to the different learning context, where the Indonesian students were not immersed in an Anglophone culture and trying to achieve a bicultural identity (Lamb, 2004).

While Gardner's model appeared to perfectly explain motivation in his learning context, a lack of competing models to explain L2 achievement motivation in other learning contexts gave rise to the overuse of Gardner's model (Dörnyei, 1994). While Gardner's model was useful as a starting point, it became clear it was necessary to subdivide the study of L2 motivation into different situations and contexts. In 1994, Dörnyei pointed out that because many researchers had relied on Gardner's model outside of its intended learning contexts, there had been also a reliance on sources of motivation in L2 learning as defined by Gardner's models (Dörnyei, 1994). Dörnyei (1994) sought to define other sources of motivation behind L2 learning that were not included in Gardner's model and that may have a larger influence in learning contexts outside of Gardner's learning context.

In the cognitive-situated phase, many new ideas in L2 motivation were researched, producing many results on L2 learning and achievement. In the process-oriented phase, as a way of uniting the research on L2 learning and achievement, Dörnyei and Ottó took a process-oriented approach (Dörnyei and

Ottó, 1998). The idea was that if L2 learning could be broken down into a process, then the learning context might impact this process at different points, but studies could be done using a process-oriented approach in all learning contexts (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998). Figure 3.2 provides a simplified version of Dörnyei and Ottó's process model for L2 motivation.

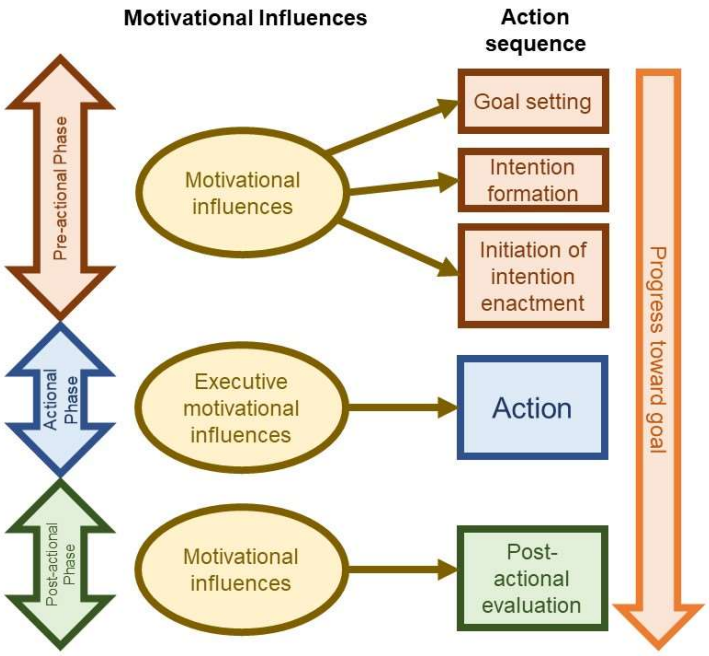

Figure 3.2. Simplified schematic presentation of process model for L2 motivation.

Adapted from Dörnyei and Ottó (1998).

In the process-oriented model, motivational influences exert themselves at different parts of the action sequence which proceeds towards a goal and is divided into three phases: pre-actional, actional, and post-actional (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998). Dörnyei and Ottó accurately characterise the difficulty in assigning a "goal" to the action, which is ostensibly why the action is taking place (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998). However, they seem not to settle this issue, and instead point out that a type of goal in this model could be to accomplish a particular task or successfully perform a particular action (Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998).

The culmination of their research revealed a lot about conceiving L2 motivation in a process-oriented way (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). However, this line of research could not be entirely context-independent. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) suggest that there should be movement from a process-oriented perspective to a more socio-dynamic perspective which allows for the concept of L2 motivation to take into account the interrelationship between motivational factors and the social context, while acknowledging that throughout this evolutionary period, English has become a more global language. They propose calling this new phase the socio-dynamic phase.

As part of the socio-dynamic phase, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) recommended various lines of inquiry to supplement what has been learned through the study of the process-oriented model. First, they suggest that linear approaches to measuring motivation might not be the best, and a broader variety of approaches should be used. Next, a relational view of motivation in the context of the self and identity counterposed against the learning context is recommended (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Different motivational influences can still be conceived at each step of the action phase, but a socio-dynamic approach also takes into account motivational influences from identity, or the concept of the self, and also, from the learning context (see Figure 3.3).

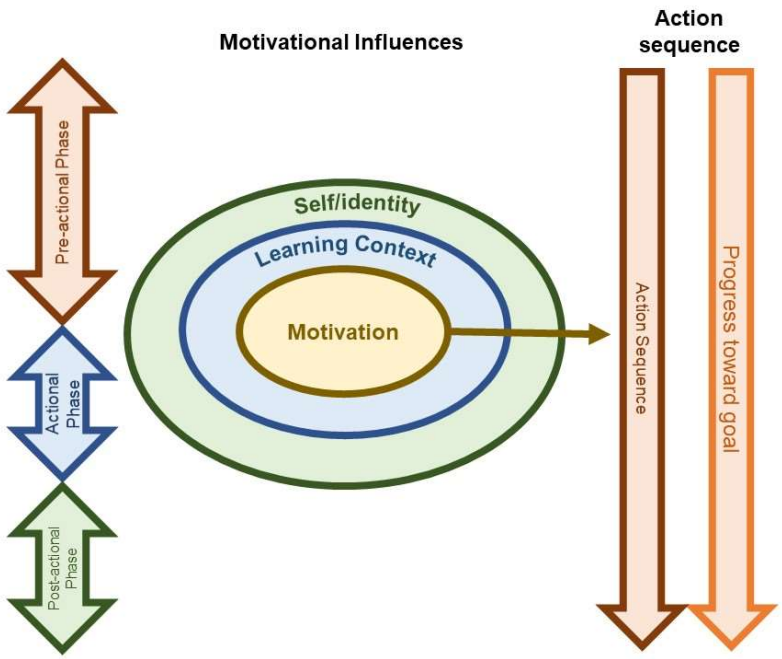

Figure 3.3. Proposed model of motivation for the socio-dynamic phase.

In the proposed socio-dynamic model, progress toward goal, action phases, and action sequence is preserved, but the influence of different types of motivation, such as those influenced by the self and the learning context, are acknowledged.

3.4.2 The L2 motivational self system

As Dörnyei advocated moving from a process-oriented model to a socio-dynamic model, a new conceptualisation of L2 motivation was needed that took into account the self, the context, and any other motivations that related to L2 learning (MacIntyre, Mackinnon and Clement, 2009; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). It is in this context that Dörnyei (2009) proposed the L2 motivational self system.

The L2 motivational self system conceives of these additional socio-dynamic influences – self, and the learning context – as various specific sources of L2 motivation. Initially, Dörnyei focused most on the socio-dynamic influence of the ideal L2 self (IL2) and the ought-to L2 self (OL2). Research into IL2 and OL2 suggested ways to measure these constructs and some information about their nature, but it became clear that there was a strong effect of the L2 learning

experience (L2LE), so researchers found ways of incorporating this into models (Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). Dörnyei agreed that self-identity and learning context, as well as other socio-dynamic influences, may also play a role in L2 motivation (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011).

The next section begins by describing the IL2 and OL2 as conceived of by Dörnyei (2009). Next, the foundations behind Dörnyei's concept of IL2 and OL2 are described. Finally, potential additional sources of L2 motivation, namely parental influence and socio-economic status (SES), are discussed.

3.4.2.1 The ideal L2 self (IL2)

Dörnyei (2009) described the IL2 as centred around the L2 learners' hopes and goals regarding what they aspire to become as future L2 users. The IL2 "represents the promotion of a hoped-for future self" (MacIntyre, Mackinnon and Clement, 2009, p. 195), and can serve as an influential motivator as learners strive to reduce the gap between their current L2 self and IL2 (MacIntyre, Mackinnon and Clement, 2009). To illustrate, if an individual's ideal L2 image is to become a fluent L2 speaker, interacting with international friends, this self-guide can have a positive compelling influence on their motivation, as learners will aim to reduce the discrepancy between their current state and IL2 selves. Hence, it is the magnitude of this gap between current L2 self and IL2 which directly relates to the level of IL2 motivation.

Dörnyei (2009) proposed to conceptualise this gap as a motivational factor by considering the individual's attitudes vis-à-vis the ideal L2 self, the current L2 self, and L2 learning goals. In this way, Dörnyei's conceptualisation of IL2 would also incapsulate integrativeness and internalised instrumental orientations, such as pressure toward L2 learning due to career aspirations. It should be noted that there are certain conditions that need to be achieved for the IL2 to become an effective motivator (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). One condition refers to the future image being vivid and elaborate, as insufficiently detailed future images may fail to evoke a motivational response (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). Similarly, the IL2 self might not reach its full potential if the desired future self was not qualitatively different from the learner's current L2 self, as it would be unlikely

that learners would exert effort to minimise a small discrepancy between their current and IL2 selves (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015).

Operationalising the measurement of IL2, however, is not straightforward. Several researchers have developed instruments aimed at this measurement and used them in research studies of L2 acquisition (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Islam, Lamb and Chambers, 2013). In studies by Taguchi and colleagues (2009), analyses showed correlations between their measurements of IL2 and their measurements of integrativeness and instrumentality. Other studies using regression and correlation analyses have associated measurements of IL2 with L2 proficiency and other aspects of L2 learning motivation (Al-Hoorie, 2016; Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). However, no dominant measurement instrument arose from these studies, and as will be seen in the next section, some challenges were revealed in trying to measure IL2 specifically.

3.4.2.2 The ought-to L2 self (OL2)

The ought-to L2 self (OL2) represents the dimension where learners experience L2 motivation vis-à-vis how they imagine others' expectations for their L2 achievement. In students, OL2 can refer to the motivation for students to meet parents' expectations for L2 learning, and, thus, strive to avoid possible negative outcomes (Dörnyei, 2009). In contrast to the IL2, the OL2 does not reflect the learners' own internalised visions of themselves, but instead, their estimations of the perceptions of others (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015). Csizér and Kormos (2009, p. 107) argued that the OL2 is "socially constructed", in that learners' views of the attributes they ought to possess are formed by the immediate social environment and their perception of social cues.

However, it could also be argued that IL2 is socially constructed. Papi and colleagues observed a particular challenge with separating out IL2 from other sources of motivation, specifically OL2 (Papi *et al.*, 2019). The authors observed that many studies that had been done that measured dimensions of IL2 and OL2 failed to find an association between OL2 and L2 achievement, while they repeatedly found associations between IL2 and L2 achievement (Papi *et al.*, 2019). They noticed a pattern, in that studies done in countries like Japan and Iran, with a more collective culture, had a harder time

operationalising and measuring IL2 and OL2 in the same study, and did not reliably find any relationships between OL2 and L2 achievement (Papi *et al.*, 2019). The authors implied that the source of this ambiguity was the emphasis in these cultures on what others or society feels, rather than what the individual feels, as is seen in Western cultures (Papi *et al.*, 2019). Therefore, simply defining IL2 and OL2 are inadequate in those settings.

The authors proposed that IL2 and OL2 could each be split into two dimensions (Papi *et al.*, 2019). The IL2 could be split into IL2 self/own and IL2 self/other, and OL2 could be split into OL2 self/own and OL2 self/other (Papi *et al.*, 2019). The difference between the self/own and self/other measurements is the self/own represents the L2 vision of what the learner feels from their own standpoint that they should achieve, and the self/other represents the L2 vision of what the learner feels that others think the learner should achieve (Papi *et al.*, 2019). In the IL2, the self/own reflects what the person “hopes” to achieve, and in the OL2, the self/own reflects the level of proficiency one “ought-to” possess (Papi *et al.*, 2019). In the IL2, the self/other reflects what the person thinks the others “hope” for them to achieve, whereas in the OL2, the self/other reflects what the person thinks the others feel they “ought-to” achieve (Papi *et al.*, 2019).

The authors tested this stratification of L2 motivation empirically, and did not find any conclusive results (Papi *et al.*, 2019). However, their article carefully examines this issue of the difficulty of decoupling IL2 from OL2 in detail, and provides evidence that these two constructs, while undoubtedly related to L2 motivation, may be difficult to measure separately. The results seemed to be consistent with what was found by Teimouri (2017), who took a similar approach. Teimouri (2017) posited that the OL2 represented two separate dimensions – one that looked at the relationship between OL2 and the concept of self (Ought L2 self/own), and one that looked at the relationship of OL2 in the context of perception of others (Ought L2 self/other) - and conducted a study. The study did find two different dimensions of OL2, and the analyses related these dimensions to proxy measurements for motivated behaviours in L2 learning (Teimouri, 2017).

The use of proxy measurements as outcomes for different L2 learning behaviours became more prominent as researchers searched for a more reliable measurement approach for IL2 and OL2 that clearly connected to L2 outcomes (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Teimouri, 2017; Papi *et al.*, 2019). Papers talk about using self-report levels of proficiency and other criterion measures (CM) that relate to L2 achievement, but are not direct measures of it (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009). Although various instruments have been developed that measure OL2, since the previously-mentioned debate arose in the literature after it was found that IL2 but not OL2 was repeatedly shown to be associated with L2 achievement, no measurement approach dominated (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Lamb, 2012; Al-Qahtani, 2017a; Jang and Lee, 2019).

Dörnyei acknowledged in the socio-dynamic phase that other factors besides IL2 and OL2, such as the L2LE, would impact motivation, (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Before moving on to discuss those factors, it is important to review the foundations on which Dörnyei built his concepts of IL2 and OL2. This will elucidate the underpinnings of the theory, and provide a framework for how the theory may be applied.

3.4.2.3 The L2 Learning Experience (L2LE)

The third component of the L2MSS is the L2 learning experience, or the L2LE (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). The L2LE was technically defined by Dörnyei as a collection of situated goal-oriented motives associated with the immediate learning environment and current learning experience (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). The concept underscores the immediacy of the L2LE, as it concerns all parts of the immediate learning environment, including the impact of the teacher, the influence of the curriculum, and experience with the peer group, and their achievement and success up to this point (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). The importance of this component of the L2MSS is that it acknowledges that the IL2 and OL2 form in the context of the L2LE, and not in isolation (Csizér, 2019).

3.4.2.4 Foundations of the L2 motivational self system

Dörnyei's (2009) L2 motivational self system draws on two fundamental psychological theories of the self and identity, namely possible selves theory (Markus and Nurius, 1986), and self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). Markus and Nurius (1986) coined the construct of possible selves in the psychology of human personality as a theoretical framework for linking human cognition with motivated behaviour. The idea of these selves was based on the idea of a "self-concept", or a moving conceptualisation of the self, that is dynamic but always available. This concept of self derives from a complex set of self-knowledge coupled with the desire to self-regulate behaviour (Markus and Nurius, 1986).

The authors then developed the concept of the ideal self, or the persona that the individual would ideally like to become (Markus and Nurius, 1986). This is conceptualised against the current self-concept; for example, an overweight person may conceptualise their ideal self as being their thin self (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Markus and Nurius conceptualised the ideal self as having been selected from multiple alternatives of potential future selves that provide a complete picture of the entire self in the future (Markus and Nurius, 1986). Hence, an overweight person may conceive a future self in which they are more successful in their career but still overweight; this future self would not be selected as the ideal self, but would still be a member of these potential future selves, or possible selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986).

To test this theory, Markus and Nurius conducted research on students asking about attributes they considered part of their self-concept now, and attributes they considered as being part of their future selves (Markus and Nurius, 1986). They found that students were more likely to have considered positive attributes of their possible future selves, such as being happy, than negative attributes of their possible future selves, such as depressed and wrinkled (Markus and Nurius, 1986).

Reflecting on the findings of Markus and Nurius, Dörnyei (2009) observed that the ideal possible future self as conceptualised by students could serve as a self-guide that motivates the students to initiate L2 learning behaviour, and

sustain such behaviour. However, Dörnyei (2009) also felt that self-guides could be in place as a result of a component of self-concept that related to how the individual was perceived by others, not just how they were perceived by themselves.

To account for motivation arising from this type of self-concept, Dörnyei looked to the writing of Higgins on self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). As with the writings of Markus and Nurius, Higgins (1987) focused on the difference or discrepancy between a concept of ideal self and a concept of current self, but with Higgins, the discrepancy was not characterised as a direct source of motivation, but rather, a source of emotional vulnerability. Higgins (1987) generally characterised this construct as having actual/own self-states (i.e., self-concept), and counterposing them against ideal self-states. These ideal self-states were defined as “representations of an individual’s beliefs about his or her own or a significant other’s hopes, wishes, or aspirations for the individual” (Higgins, 1987, p. 319).

What Higgins was speaking about broadly encapsulates the concept behind Dörnyei’s IL2, but IL2 focuses more on the part of Higgins’ self-state definition about what the individual’s beliefs are about his or her own hopes, wishes, and aspirations for themselves. Therefore, for Dörnyei’s model to incorporate this concept for significant others’ hopes, wishes, or aspirations for the individual, another construct was needed, and this was designed by Dörnyei as the OL2 self.

The contribution of the difference between the current self-state and the IL2 or OL2 was seen by Higgins as a source of self-guidance (Higgins, 1987). This self-guiding activity can be seen as a form of self-regulation: the result of the discomfort created by the acknowledgement of the discrepancy between the self-concept and ideal self-state (Higgins, 1987). Higgins classified two types of self-regulation that could result from self-discrepancy between the self-concept and the perception of the ideal concept of significant others’ in the individual: self-regulation with a promotion focus, and self-regulation with a prevention focus (Higgins, 1998). The promotion focus refers to satisfying the survival need for nurturance, so in the promotion focus, the individual is in a regulatory state concerned with ideals, such as advancement, aspiration, and accomplishment

(Higgins and Spiegel, 2004). The promotion focus has also been characterised as eagerness (Higgins and Spiegel, 2004). By contrast, the prevention focus refers to the survival need for security, and relates to the regulatory state of vigilance, with a concern for protection, safety and responsibility (Higgins and Spiegel, 2004). The prevention focus is seen as going beyond the basic principle of avoiding pain and seeking pleasure, and extends to how people make strategic choices when pursuing their goals (Higgins and Spiegel, 2004).

So in summary, Dörnyei's concept of IL2- and OL2-derived motivations in L2 learning were based on both Markus and Nurius's (1986) possible selves theory, and Higgins' theory behind self-concept and ideal self-states, with special attention to how the concept of others might influence L2 learning. It seems important to measure L2 motivation as IL2 and OL2 in L2 learners in order to understand their motivation for learning. However, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) acknowledged that other factors, such as other parts of self-identity and the learning context, could influence motivation. Gardner (1986) also recognised that in L2 learners, especially students, there can be many different sources of L2 motivation. In order to understand the L2 motivation of student learners, sources of motivation other than IL2 and OL2 should be considered.

3.4.2.5 Parental influence

At the beginning of the socio-dynamic phase, Dörnyei pointed out that his model of L2 motivation could be valid while working differently in different learning contexts, and in response to different self-identities of the learner (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). As was shown by Gardner, studies of L2 motivation within a specific learning context can be successful at elucidating knowledge about L2 motivation and its relationship to learning outcomes in that specific context (Gardner, 1986). It might be useful to apply Dörnyei's model in a specific learning context, and study L2 motivation in that particular context. Then, it would be possible to measure sources of motivation attributable to the learning context, while also measuring sources of motivation arising from IL2 and OL2.

Another source of motivation that could be measured in a learning context where higher education students who are young adults participating in an L2

learning programme is parental influence. A few existing studies of students in L2 learning programmes have explicitly focused on how parental influence shapes L2 motivation. A study meant to develop an instrument to measure the L2 motivation (including constructs suggested by Dörnyei) of Indonesian students participating in English L2 learning in public middle schools found an association between L2 motivation and family and peer influence (Lamb, 2012). Kormos and Kiddle (2013) studied L2 motivation in high-school L2 learners in Chile learning English, and developed an instrument that measured constructs argued by Dörnyei along with others. They created a complex model that found interacting influences between the various motivations they measured and parental influence, and observed that many other studies of L2 learning in adolescents and young adults include measurements for the influence of parents on L2 motivation (Kormos and Kiddle, 2013).

Given these results, it is reasonable to consider parental influence as a potentially independent source of L2 motivation when the learner is an adolescent or young adult, and may be more heavily affected by strong parental influence. In young L2 learners who are being influenced by their parents, this could be seen as one source of extrinsic motivation as described by Deci and Ryan (1985). Child academic achievement in general has been shown to relate specifically to parental beliefs (Davis-Kean, 2005). Others have observed that when the goal of L2 learning is instrumental, meaning it has utilitarian benefits (such as career opportunities), this may relate to parental influence in that the learner and the parents are attuned to the instrumental L2 achievement goal (Gardner, 1986; Iwaniec, 2018). Parental influence as a motivation separate from IL2 and OL2 in young L2 learners could provide another source of motivation that could relate to completing various L2 learning tasks or reaching a level of L2 proficiency.

3.4.2.6 Influence of socio-economic status

In addition to IL2, OL2, and parental influence, another source of motivation (or possibly demotivation) in L2 learning may be seen in socio-economic status (SES). SES has been shown to impact L2 learning, in that studies of students in resource poorer areas such as Indonesia show that low SES impedes learning, while this effect is not seen in higher SES countries like Poland or Chile (Lamb,

2012, 2013; Iwaniec, 2018). However, Kormos and Kiddle (2013) also found an association between various aspects of L2 motivation and SES in a cohort secondary school students in Santiago, Chile who belonged to a range of different social classes.

Initially, low SES was conceived of as a potential barrier to L2 motivation, while high SES could be seen as a social factor that would positively influence L2 achievement. Davis-Kean (2005) discusses how parent education and family income can positively influence child academic achievement in general, and found that parental education achievement as a measure of SES had a positive influence on learner academic achievement. Davis-Kean conducted her studies in the United States (US), and among students in a country with a relatively high SES, parental academic achievement may serve as a helpful measure of SES (Davis-Kean, 2005).

The L2 motivation self system has served as a guiding theory in L2 motivation research from the time of its inception, and different research methods have been applied. The next section will cover how these research approaches evolved.

3.5 Evolution of L2 motivation research approaches

As noted previously, the most prominent early studies in L2 motivation were by Gardner, and included a heavy emphasis on quantitative measurement (Gardner, 1986). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) observed, however, that quantitative measurements of L2 motivation could not provide a complete picture of the underlying mechanisms behind motivation and L2 learning. As a result, during the socio-dynamic phase, SLA research generally and L2 motivation research specifically expanded to including multiple different quantitative approaches, qualitative study designs, and longitudinal research (Ushioda, 2019). The field moved toward using mixed methods research as a way to capture both quantitative and qualitative measurements and produce a richer and clearer picture of the findings (Ivankova and Greer, 2015).

When speaking of quantitative approaches, researchers were thinking specifically about conducting descriptive and inferential statistics, and using hypothesis-driven approaches (Phakiti, 2015). These approaches required

quantitative measurements. This section will first focus on operationalising the measurement of L2 motivation and related constructs in quantitative research, including assessing validity and reliability. Next, it will cover qualitative approaches used in L2 motivation research.

3.5.1 Quantitative approaches in linguistics research

There are different ways to do quantitative measurements in linguistic studies, but the most popular ways are likely involving instruments, surveys, and questionnaires (Phakiti, 2015; Wagner, 2015; Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). There is some confusion in the literature amongst the use of these terms; some use them interchangeably, but this can lead to miscommunication. The term “instrument” generally refers to a survey-type data collection form aimed at measuring a latent construct that has undergone significant validity and reliability testing (Phakiti, 2015; Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). On the other hand, the terms “survey” and “questionnaire” could be seen as interchangeable, and refer to data collection aimed at having a respondent answer questions that are not part of a validated instrument (Phakiti, 2015; Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). It is important to note that the word survey can also refer to a more generalised data collection approach that could include any type of data collection (e.g., interview, questionnaire, focus group, etc.). This thesis will use the word survey as interchangeable with questionnaire.

Questionnaires are more flexible than instruments, in that they can ask any types of closed- or open-ended questions (Wagner, 2015). By contrast, instruments are a collection of closed-ended questions that together have been found to measure one or more latent constructs in a way that has been shown to be both reliable and valid (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). The purpose of developing an instrument is to use numerical data to estimate the level of latent constructs, or phenomena that are not obviously observable, and may include several subcomponents (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). Examples of constructs include components of personality, values, and levels of anxiety (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). When measuring constructs, it is necessary to first operationalise the construct; in other words, to hypothesise

measurable indicators of the construct, then seek to develop an accurate measurement (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019).

L2 motivation is an example of a construct that is challenging to operationalise, because it is difficult to conceive of what measurable indicators would relate directly to L2 motivation (Woodrow, 2015; Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). Rose and colleagues (2019) suggested that one indicator of L2 motivation might be how positively the learner feels towards the L2, but another indicator could be how much time the learner spends studying the L2. These multiple potential indicators suggest that there are multiple constructs, and it is important to enumerate the L2 motivation constructs to be measured by an instrument if one is to be developed and validated (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019).

The perspective taken when developing instruments to measure latent variables such as L2 motivation is that the instrument must be shown to demonstrate both validity and reliability, as mentioned earlier (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012; Woodrow, 2015). Validity refers to the degree to which an instrument accurately measures the construct, and reliability refers to the ability to repeatedly measure the same construct with the same items (Nikitina, Mohd and Cheong, 2016). Demonstrating validity is typically done using a statistical procedure called confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012; Woodrow, 2015). CFA involves entering all measured variables into a factor analysis model, which is a type of structural equation model (SEM), and observing the factor loadings (Tremblay, 2020). Factor loadings refer to patterns in the variables (expressed in positive correlations) that make them intercorrelated, and therefore suggest that they are indeed measuring a latent construct (Woodrow, 2015; Tremblay, 2020).

There are different ways of demonstrating different types of instrument reliability (Nikitina, Mohd and Cheong, 2016). To demonstrate internal consistency, which is a type of instrument reliability, a statistical test called a Cronbach α is run on the items in each construct (Nikitina, Mohd and Cheong, 2016). To do this, each Cronbach α analysis only includes the statements or questions that were developed and deliberately placed on the specific construct (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012; Woodrow, 2015; Nikitina, Mohd and Cheong, 2016). The Cronbach α test

produces a correlation that is always positive, and the reliability of the construct is generally considered acceptable if this correlation is above 0.70 (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012). It is also considered suspect if it is below 0.60 (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012).

Generally, if a draft instrument is developed by formulating statements or questions along hypothesised latent constructs, then a Cronbach α as a way of measuring reliability of the constructs. If a researcher develops a draft instrument, uses it in a pilot study, and then finds using Cronbach α analysis that the constructs do not show reliability, then there is no point in examining the validity of the instrument (Tremblay, 2020). It means that the items need to be reformulated.

By contrast, if the reliability analysis on the pilot data shows that the Cronbach α for each construct is > 0.70, and therefore the constructs are considered reliable, then the next step is to evaluate the validity of the constructs. Tremblay (2020) argues that in the case where latent constructs were hypothesised, CFA should take place. As mentioned earlier, in CFA, the researcher examines the factor loadings of each of the items against the latent constructs that were originally hypothesised, and evaluates whether the statements or questions are loading on the intended construct (Tremblay, 2020). This allows the researcher the opportunity to pilot an instrument in a particular subpopulation, conduct CFA, and edit the instrument's questions or statements in order to improve the measurement of these latent variables in that particular subpopulation (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019; Tremblay, 2020).

Once an instrument undergoes CFA, the constructs identified by factor loadings are termed subscales, and answers from these items can be combined using a formula (such as sum or average) to reduce the number of variables and to present a numerical measure of the construct (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012; Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). Once an L2 motivation measurement instrument is finalised, if the instrument is used in the same population where it was validated, it should produce reliable and valid measurements (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). In other words, the results from running reliability and validity studies (such as Cronbach α and the CFA) demonstrate that the instrument performs reliably and validly on the population on which the instrument was developed. However, if it is to be used in a different population

for measurement of L2 motivation, translation and adoption needs to occur, and the new version should be piloted before being used in research in the new population (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019).

Naturally, it is easier to adapt an instrument that has already been developed and validated in a particular population, rather than to develop an instrument from scratch (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019; Tremblay, 2020). However, even an adapted instrument should undergo some sort of reliability and validity testing in its new subpopulation to ensure that the latent constructs are being appropriately measured, especially if being used to study the relationship between L2 motivation and L2 learning outcomes (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019; Tremblay, 2020).

Woodrow (2015) observes that the most common study design used in researching L2 motivation is cross-sectional. In this study design, IVs, including variables representing L2 motivation that may be measured using a validated instrument, are gathered along with a hypothesised DV, which ostensibly relates to some measure of L2 achievement, proficiency, or knowledge (Woodrow, 2015). In a cross-sectional design, both the IVs and DVs are measured at the same time; therefore, it is difficult to argue that the IV is a cause of the DV, since they were measured simultaneously. Researchers have been typically limited to interpreting results of cross-sectional designs and trying to present evidence of causal inference without the ability to demonstrate temporality (Woodrow, 2015).

Several empirical cross-sectional studies that have used the L2MSS will be critically analysed here. In a 2009 study, authors researched the connection between L2 motivation based on the L2MSS and “criterion measures” in undergraduate students studying English as a second language in Iran, China, and Japan (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009). This study suffered from poorly specifying what “criterion measures” were, and from developing a complex instrument measuring nine correlated independent variables, making the quantitative results difficult to interpret (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009). More recently, Al-Hoorie (2016) investigated unconscious as well as explicit cultural associations with English that may impact the L2 motivation of male Saudi undergraduate L2 English learners based on the L2MSS. The results were

complex, but showed that when learners were both unconsciously and explicitly motivated, they had a greater openness to the L2 community, and had greater L2 achievement (Al-Hoorie, 2016).

Teimouri (2017) observed that the L2MSS model was posing challenges in research, and sought to improve upon this model both conceptually and in instrumentation by slightly adjusting the measured L2 motivational constructs, and also considering the impact of emotion, in his study of Iranian L2 English learners in higher education. Unfortunately, the features added seemed to complicate the L2 constructs even more. For example, he proposed two additional constructs – “ought-to L2 self/own” and “ought-to L2 self/others” – which are unintuitive, and also did not show results in the study (Teimouri, 2017). Papi and colleagues (2019) had a similar observation about the difficulty of finding results with the L2MSS, and tried to improve upon the constructs proposed by Teimouri (2017) in their study of various L1 speakers learning L2 English at an American university. Unfortunately, as these constructs had not shown utility in the study by Teimouri (2017), they also were not particularly useful in explaining the findings in the study by Papi and colleagues (2019). As with other studies, they also included what is likely too many motivational constructs as independent variables in their model, which may have precluded revealing any findings.

While there are many advantages to using quantitative data from instruments in studies, it has been observed that even when statistical associations are found, they may be difficult to interpret without qualitative data (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda, 2020). This is why qualitative data collection is often used along with quantitative in studies of L2 motivation.

3.5.2 Qualitative approaches in linguistics research

Holliday (2015) observes that there is a wide range of approaches to qualitative data analysis, and that it has its roots in social and cultural anthropology and ethnography. However, regardless of its actual origins, all qualitative research in linguistics is designed to “get to the bottom of what is going on” in social behaviour (Holliday, 2015, p. 50). In applied linguistics, qualitative research has been traditionally used when studying aspects of communication, but more

recently has been expanded to a wide range of scenarios, and even into the non-linguistic environment of language behaviour (Holliday, 2015).

There are many types of qualitative data, such as observation notes, research diaries, written narratives, and interviews conducted with audio recording (Holliday, 2015). Which method is chosen directly relates to the type of information being sought (Holliday, 2015). For example, to understand an experience a respondent had, such as an experience with L2 learning and motivation, a personal narrative would be the best way to collect the qualitative data (Holliday, 2015). On the other hand, certain personal accounts are better gathered through written data collection, where the respondent writes information that the researcher later analyses (Holliday, 2015). These various data collection approaches allow for thick descriptions to be provided about respondent experiences and perspectives (Holliday, 2015). Holliday (2015) gives the example of conducting data collection to develop a thick description of a school head teacher's roles and aspirations. To arrive at this thick description, descriptions of how the teacher acts when dealing with a student, how the class reacts when the teacher enters, how her role is described, how she describes the school's mission, and how her office looks, along with other descriptions, were collected (Holliday, 2015). The thick description facilitates the development of a narrative with full complexity and depth (Holliday, 2015).

Importantly, the use of qualitative study designs in L2 motivation research is not to prove anything; rather, it is to gain a better understanding behind the complex nature of L2 motivation and its association with L2 learning outcomes (Holliday, 2015; Ushioda, 2019). Qualitative data collection usually produces copious amounts of textual data (Holliday, 2015). To analyse these data, the researcher uses a technique called coding, which applies thematic codes to concepts expressed in the textual data (Holliday, 2015). From these codes, themes emerge, and these themes are what are interpreted as results of the study (Holliday, 2015).

It is possible to develop a quantitative instrument that performs with validity and reliability in a particular population, but still harbour questions about the mechanisms behind why it performs in this population (Ushioda, 2019, 2020). In those cases, researchers may choose to combine both quantitative and

qualitative methods into a mixed methods study, which simply refers to a combining quantitative and qualitative methods in the same study (Ivankova and Greer, 2015).

3.6 Research on L2 motivation in Saudis learning English

Arabic is the official language of Saudi Arabia, but as described in Chapter 2, many Saudis learn English from primary to secondary and post-secondary education. Studies of L2 learning of English in Saudi have evolved over the years as Saudi has evolved. To provide a foundation on which the current study was designed, a review of these studies is presented here.

3.6.1 Early Studies

In 2004, Al-Otaibi conducted research on adult Saudi EFL learners studying English at the Institute of Public Administration (IPA) in Riyadh. The aim of the study was to better understand learning strategies in this mixed-gender group of L2 learners, but the researcher also gathered information on L2 motivation, and found that motivation was correlated with learning strategies (Al-Otaibi, 2004). Specifically, he found that participants who achieved proficiency and were highly motivated also used a greater number strategies, more effective strategies, and used these strategies more frequently (Al-Otaibi, 2004).

Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009) followed this study with research on a sample of young Saudis engaging in L2 English learning, and measured the following sources of L2 motivation: instrumental, intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative. Their sample comprised children from two secondary schools, and adult L2 learners from a technology institute and two university colleges (Moskovsky and Alrabai, 2009). Later, this duo went on to study a sample of male Saudi students from King Khalid University (KKU), King Abdulaziz University (KAU), and King Saud University (KSU), measuring motivation, attitudes, anxiety, self-esteem, and autonomy, and seeking to relate these to levels of L2 achievement (Alrabai and Moskovsky, 2016). They considered motivation, attitudes, anxiety, self-esteem and autonomy “affective variables”, and found that together, they accounted for over 85% of the variability in L2 proficiency as measured by performance on L2 language tests (Alrabai and Moskovsky, 2016). Their study found that L2 motivation was positively correlated with attitudes, autonomy, and self-esteem,

but negatively correlated with anxiety (Alrabai and Moskovsky, 2016). However, they did not test any other predictors in their models (Alrabai and Moskovsky, 2016).

Other authors took a different perspective when measuring motivation and other predictors of L2 English learning in Saudi Arabian higher education students. Alrahaili (2013) studied a sample of 510 male and female university students learning English from three campuses of Taibah University located in the Medina region. The author studied motivation as a function of attitude toward learning English, as well as learners' values and beliefs (Alrahaili, 2013). The author found that these Saudi L2 English learners had a positive attitude toward English and English speakers, and the learning context (Alrahaili, 2013). However, they were generally opposed to accepting the "target language group's" social and religious values (Alrahaili, 2013). Admittedly, this is hard to interpret using Gardner's perspective, because these learners were in Arabic-speaking Saudi learning English, so it is not clear exactly who the "target language group" was for these learners (Alrahaili, 2013).

Eusafzai (2013) studied Saudi L2 English male and female learners in their preparatory year at three western coastal Saudi colleges. The preparatory year is the first foundational year in Saudi higher education. The author developed an instrument to measure L2 motivation, as well as other information about the student, such as demographics (Eusafzai, 2013). The instrument was based theoretically on Dörnyei's work, but was adapted from other instruments and informed by the literature (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Eusafzai, 2013). The instrument included 67 statements and questions, and factor analysis showed that the instrument measured seven factors: attitude towards L2 English learning, attitude towards L2 people and culture, instrumentality-promotion, value of studying English, instrumentality-prevention, parental encouragement, and English anxiety (Eusafzai, 2013). The author also measured language learning effort as a criterion measure (CM) for L2 motivation, and used this as a DV in a regression model (Eusafzai, 2013). In the model, the strongest predictors for the CM were attitude towards English L2 learning, and instrumentality-promotion (Eusafzai, 2013).

3.6.2 Recent Studies at Saudi Universities

Al-Resheedi (2014) studied motivation toward L2 English acquisition in 75 female Saudi undergraduates in Qassim University's Physical Therapy programme. This author used Gardner's integrative/instrumental theory and Deci and Ryan's intrinsic/extrinsic theory on which to base their measurement of motivation (Gardner, 1986; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Alresheedi, 2014). The author pointed out that students were primarily motivated for L2 learning through instrumental and intrinsic sources of motivation, and recommended that for the students to achieve L2 learning, educators should seek to increase instrumental and intrinsic motivation in the classroom (Alresheedi, 2014).

More recently some studies focusing on Saudi higher education students engaging in L2 English learning have taken place in an English-speaking learning context (Madkhali, 2016; Alharbi, 2017; Alshehri, 2018; Albahlal, 2019). This line of research would inform a study based on Gardner's theories more than ones based on Dörnyei's, so a focus was placed on studies that inform the current context, which is English majors studying at PNU.

To that end, Moskovsky et al. (2016) studied a sample of 360 male and female students from two Saudi universities – KAU and Taif University (TU). The authors developed and validated a questionnaire that measured IL2 and OL2 as conceived by Dörnyei, L2LE, and intended learning efforts (ILE) (Moskovsky et al., 2016). The authors also measured intended learning behaviour (ILB), and perceived learning efforts (PLE), and split the measurement of L2LE into three separate constructs: L2LE (16 statements), positive L2LE (PL2LE, eight statements), negative L2LE (NL2LE, five statements) (Moskovsky et al., 2016). Although the authors conducted extensive analyses to relate these constructs to L2 proficiency and attainment, ultimately, their hypothesis that differences in levels of Dörnyei's concept of L2 motivation in the students would account for differences in L2 proficiency was not supported (Moskovsky et al., 2016).

Al-Hoorie (2016, p. 627) studied a sample of 311 male students learning English at an unnamed "higher education institution in Saudi Arabia". Observing the findings of Alrahaili (2013), this researcher sought to include implicit associations measured by way of an implicit associations test (IAT) to account

for attitudes toward the target group in his statistical models, and relate these to other self-report measures about attitudes and L2 motivation. His research found that both implicit and explicit positive attitudes toward L2 learning were associated positively with L2 achievement, and argued that L2 motivation is not the only predictor of L2 learning (Al-Hoorie, 2016). Alshahrani (2016) also studied L2 motivation in a group of male Saudi university students majoring in English, and used an instrument to measure IL2, OL2, and seven other potential sources of motivation (Alshahrani, 2016). The author used these IVs to predict the CM or DV of learners' intended efforts toward learning English, which was also measured on the instrument (Alshahrani, 2016). Even though many IVs were present in the model, the author pointed out that both IL2 and L2LE made stronger contributions to explaining the variation in the DV than OL2 (Alshahrani, 2016).

3.6.3 Recent innovations in Saudi L2 motivation research

Massri (2017) observed that Saudi Arabia had invested a lot in general in promoting and increasing access to English language learning, so she conducted a qualitative study of a mixed gender sample of Saudi English L2 learners during their foundation year to examine what attitudes were associated with the effectiveness of L2 learning. She argued that attitudes in the following areas impacted Saudi L2 learning: family and peers, media and the internet, travel, future job prospects, the L2 learning context and experience, and attitudes toward perceptions of the learner's relationship between themselves, L2 academic achievement, and L2 classroom learning and participation (Massri, 2017). The last two themes might be seen as relating to Dörnyei's concepts of IL2 and OL2. Al-Qahtani also found the influence of religious interest as well as Dörnyei's concept of L2 motivation on L2 learning outcomes and associated factors in a series of studies of Saudi military cadets (Al-Qahtani, 2017b, 2017a, 2018, 2020). Albalawi (2017) conducted a mixed-methods study of 25 Saudi female college students, and suggested that attitudes toward L2 learning and IL2 could provide demotivation toward L2 learning, depending upon levels of various attitudes and levels of IL2.

Alamer (2019) studied basic psychological needs (BPN) as a potential source of L2 motivation in Saudi mixed gender undergraduate university students learning

English, and developed a linear model of L2 motivation to predict L2 achievement that goes in this order: BPN fulfillment, goal orientation, motivational emotion, and self-determination theory (Alamer and Lee, 2019). The authors approached motivation from the perspective of Deci and Ryan rather than Dörnyei, and observed that fulfillment of BPM was necessary before students could set foundational goals that contribute to learners' emotions which promote learning (Alamer and Lee, 2019).

3.6.4 Summary of L2 motivation research in Saudi students

The findings of research in L2 motivation to learn English in groups of Saudi students reviewed above could be summarised in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Review of studies on L2 motivation to learn in English in Saudi students.

First Author	Year	Sample	Genders	Concepts studied
Al-Otaibi	2004	Adult learners not in a college programme	Mixed	L2 motivation and learning strategies
Moskovsky	2009	Children from secondary schools and adult learners from technology institute and university	Mixed	Types of L2 motivation: instrumental, intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative
Alrahaili	2013	University students	Mixed	Motivation, attitudes toward L2 target group.
Eusafzai	2013	Foundational year students	Mixed	Motivation, attitudes toward L2 target group, other factors
Alresheedi	2014	Physical therapy programme students	Female	Motivation, L2 acquisition
Alrabai	2016	University students	Male	Affective variables, motivation, and L2 proficiency
Al-Hoorie	2016	Higher education students	Male	Implicit associations, motivation, attitudes, learning experience, L2 achievement
Albalawi	2017	University students	Female	Mindset, motivation (and demotivating factors), learning context
Massri	2017	Foundational year students	Mixed	Attitudes, motivation, learning context
Alamer	2019	University students	Mixed	Basic psychological needs, motivation, emotion, and L2 achievement

As can be observed in Table 3.1 and the prior description, these studies typically measured motivation using some version of Dörnyei's IL2 and/or OL2 concepts, and often measured motivation along with other attributes (Moskovsky and Alrabai, 2009; Eusafzai, 2013; Al-Hoorie, 2016; Alshahrani, 2016; Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). Also, as follows from the comment by Woodrow (2015), most of the studies in Table 3.1 are of cross-sectional design. These studies typically sought to relate these factors as independent variables (IVs) to a dependent variable (DV) that represented a criterion measure of some sort of

L2 achievement of proficiency. Sometimes these DVs were measured by the instrument itself, such as in the work of Eusafzai (2013), where his instrument measured language learning effort as the DV in the regression model he developed. Other times, this would be a measure independent of the instrument, such as in one study, which measured the DV as performance on an L2 proficiency test (Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). Massri (2017) conducted a qualitative study conducting interviews with participants and analysing themes; this approach was additionally used in some of the studies that included instruments in order to help elucidate understanding of the relationships from what was found in instrument analysis (Assulaimani, 2015; Albalawi, 2017).

Ultimately, however, no dominant study design, instrument, or findings have emerged from this line of research. L2 English motivation in Saudi students seems to have been measured with a variety of instruments, many based on Dörnyei's concept of IL2 and OL2. In addition, researchers are looking for additional predictors of L2 learning in Saudi university students, some of which have been conceptualised as other motivations, and attitudes. Finally, researchers appear to be interested in studying ways to promote L2 achievement in this group, but have measured this achievement on different time scales and using different methods.

3.7 Quantitative measurement of IL2 and OL2

This section will describe the development and piloting of an instrument intended to measure L2 motivation in a cohort of female Saudi university students majoring in English. First, previous work in this area will be described, and the steps and nature of instrument development will be presented. Next, the experience of piloting the instrument, receiving feedback, assessing its performance, adjusting it, and finalising it will be described.

3.7.1 Previous work

Many of the studies of L2 motivation in higher education students in Saudi that are mentioned in Table 3.1, as well as studies done on Saudis studying abroad, used an instrument that researchers developed using questions and statements from other validated instruments, or from adapting an instrument to their setting and language, for measuring Dörnyei's constructs of ideal L2 self (IL2), ought-to

L2 self (OL2), or other second language (L2) motivation self system constructs (Al-Hoorie, 2016; Madkhali, 2016; Albalawi, 2017; Alharbi, 2017; Alshehri, 2018; Albahlal, 2019). In addition, Al-Qahtani's research with Saudi military cadets also includes measurements of L2 motivation as conceived of by Dörnyei (Al-Qahtani, 2017b, 2017a, 2018, 2020).

This line of research provides insight into Saudi higher education students and how IL2 and OL2 may impact L2 learning outcomes. An important finding was that apparently, in Saudis, L2 motivation can change in parallel with L2 outcomes if the L2LE changes. Albahlal (2019) researched Saudis studying in the US, and reported that motivation for L2 English learning underwent changes in L2 motivation as the student transferred from Saudi to the US to study, and these changes were strongly connected to changes in identity, which would suggest a connection to the L2 motivation self system.

However, the actual distinct selves involved in the L2 motivation self system in Saudi higher education students is not straightforward. Albalawi (2017) suggested that the IL2 could serve as both a source of L2 motivation as well as L2 demotivation, depending upon the L2 learning mindset, and the level of disappointment the L2LE. In a study by Alharbi of Saudi L2 learners abroad, anti-Ought to self as a source of L2 motivation appeared to be an important construct relating to intended L2 learning (Alharbi, 2017). In contrast, Al-Hoorie (2016) did not find an association between IL2 and actual L2 achievement in his study of a cohort of Saudi university students. Alshehri (2018) observed that there was no simple distinction between IL2 and OL2 in her cohort of Saudi higher education students studying English in the United Kingdom (UK).

The findings of a study by Moskovsky et al (2016) summarise patterns seen in the Saudi literature about L2 motivation and L2 English learning. The study of Saudi university students found that components of the L2 motivation self system were associated with intended learning effects, but not with actual L2 achievement (Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). So, while it appears that measuring the components of the L2 motivation self system has been done consistently and reliably in Saudi higher education student populations, the results from relating these IVs to the DVs associated with specific L2 learning outcomes or attitudes have been mixed. In addition, it is not exactly clear which components of the L2

motivation self system apply to Saudi higher education students, in that IL2 and OL2 may overlap, or there may be specific types of others that fall in the ought-to category, such as parents. In that case, there may be a distinct L2 self envisioned for that particular other.

3.7.2 Instrument development

This study developed an instrument that was piloted in the intended subpopulation of female higher education students majoring in English at a Saudi university. Three constructs were determined for measurement: IL2, OL2, and parental encouragement (PE). The IL2 measurement was intended to capture students' visions of themselves as future L2 users (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009). The OL2 measurement was intended to gauge the students' perceptions of L2 learning as an obligation and responsibility towards significant others (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009). Given the findings about others and selves from the Saudi literature, the instrument was intended to also measure parental encouragement (PE) as a separate construct from IL2 and OL2 if it did exist in this group. In Saudi society, when a child achieves academic success, it is the parents who get praised by their community for the success rather than the child (Al-Nafisah, 2000). The measurement of PE was intended to characterise the extent of parents' involvement in and/or support of their daughters' English language learning process independent of the influence of others.

Table 3.2. Source of items in the pilot instrument and adaptations made.

Source of Original English Statement	Source of Original Arabic Statement	English Translation used for Instrument	Arabic Statement on Published Instrument	Statement used on Pilot Instrument	Comment
Parental Encouragement					
Ryan (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	I am often told by my parents that English is important for my future	دائماً ما يؤكد لي والداي مدى أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية لمستقبلي.	غالبا ما يؤكد لي والداي مدى أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية لمستقبلي	Used different word for "often" in Arabic (original Arabic word used means "always").
Ryan (2009)	author	My parents think that I should really try to learn English	NA	والداي يعتقدان ان علي محاولة تعلم اللغة الالنجليزية	Not used in original Arabic instrument.
Ryan (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	My parents encourage me to practice my English as much as possible	يشجعني والداي على ممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية بقدر الإمكان	Same as original Arabic	
Ryan (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	My parents encourage me to study English.	دائماً ما يحثني والداي على تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية	يشجعني والداي على تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية	Original Arabic statement added the word "always" which was dropped in the pilot study version of the item. Also, the original Arabic statement used a different word for "encourage" which was changed for the pilot version to improve clarity. Pilot study participants voiced that this item was redundant so it was removed for the final version.
Ideal L2 Self					
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	كلما فكرت في وظيفتي المستقبلية أتخيل نفسي قادراً على تحدث الإنجليزية	كلما فكرت في وظيفتي المستقبلية أتخيل نفسي قادرة على تحدث الإنجليزية	Original Arabic statement was lightly edited to change gender inflection from male to female because participants were all female.
Taguchi (2009)	author	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	NA	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي في موقف وأنا أتحدث الإنجليزية مع أجانب	Not used in original Arabic instrument.

Source of Original English Statement	Source of Original Arabic Statement	English Translation used for Instrument	Arabic Statement on Published Instrument	Statement used on Pilot Instrument	Comment
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English	أتخيل نفسي كشخصاً قادراً على تحدث الإنجليزية	Same as original Arabic	
Taguchi (2009)	author	I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English	NA	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي أعيش في إحدى الدول الأجنبية وأتناقش باللغة الإنجليزية	
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا قادرة على إرسال رسائل البريد الإلكتروني باللغة الإنجليزية بإحترافية فائقة	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا قادر على إرسال رسائل البريد الإلكتروني باللغة الإنجليزية بإحترافية فائقة	Original Arabic statement was lightly edited to change gender inflection from male to female because participants were all female.
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	I can imagine myself studying in a university abroad where all my courses are taught in English	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا أدرس في إحدى الجامعات في الخارج اللتي تدرس جميع مقرراتها باللغة الإنجليزية	Same as original Arabic	
Moskovsky et al. (2016)	author	I can imagine myself having a lot of English speaking friends.	NA	بامكاني اتخيل ان لدي العديد من الاصدقاء اللذين يتحدثون الانجليزية	
Moskovsky et al. (2016)	author	I can imagine myself using English fluently like my idol	NA	بامكاني اتخيل نفسي اتحدث بطلاقة مثل الشخصية المفضلة لدي	Original English statement was: "I can imagine myself using English fluently like my favorite (teacher/sheikh or religious scholar/sport player/actor/singer)."

Source of Original English Statement	Source of Original Arabic Statement	English Translation used for Instrument	Arabic Statement on Published Instrument	Statement used on Pilot Instrument	Comment
Taguchi (2009)	author	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	NA	بامكاني اتخيل نفسي اتحدث الانجليزية بطلاقة مثل الاجانب اللذين يتحدثون اللغة الانجليزية	
Taguchi (2009)	author	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	NA	ما اريد ان احققه في المستقبل يتطلب مني تعلم اللغة الانجليزية	
Ought-to L2 Self					
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	I study English because close friends of mine think it is important	أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية لأن أصدقائي المقربين يؤمنون بأهمية الإنجليزية	Same as original Arabic	
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do it	أؤمن بضرورة تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن الأناس المحيطين بي يعتقدون ذلك	أؤمن بضرورة تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن الأناس المحيطين بي يتوقعون مني ان اتعلمها	Original instrument translates "expect me to do it" as "believe I should do it". The translation used in the pilot and final instruments is more literal, using the Arabic word for "expect".
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it	أعتبر تعلم الإنجليزية مهماً لأن هناك أشخاصاً أحترمهم يعتقدون ذلك	أعتبر تعلم الإنجليزية مهماً لأن هناك أشخاصاً أحترمهم يعتقدون ان علي ان اتعلمها	Original translation ends "should do it" and instrument translation ends "should learn English". It was changed to add clarity.

Source of Original English Statement	Source of Original Arabic Statement	English Translation used for Instrument	Arabic Statement on Published Instrument	Statement used on Pilot Instrument	Comment
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	Studying English is important to me to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family.	أؤمن بأهمية تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن ذلك سيجعلني أحوز على تقدير عائلتي و معلميني وزملائي على حد سواء	Same as original Arabic	Original English statement was, "Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss." "Boss" was removed because the sample was students both in the Arabic version in the published instrument as well as in the version used for these studies.
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	أؤمن بأن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهم لي لأن الآخرين سيحترموني أكثر إذا كنت متمكناً من الإنجليزية	أؤمن بأن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهم لي لأن الآخرين سيحترموني أكثر إذا كنت متمكنة من الإنجليزية	Original Arabic statement was lightly edited to change gender inflection from male to female because participants were all female.
Taguchi (2009)	Al-Qahtani (2017)	If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down	لو فشلت في تعلم الإنجليزية سأخيب ظن المقربين مني	Same as original Arabic	
Taguchi (2009)	author	I have to study English because if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me	NA	يجب علي تعلم اللغة الانجليزية حتى لا يخيب ظن والداي في	
Taguchi (2009)	author	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English	NA	ان لم اتعلم اللغة الانجليزية فذلك سوف سيؤثر سلبا على حياتي	
Taguchi (2009)	author	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person	NA	يؤمن والداي بأنني يجب ان اتعلم اللغة الانجليزية	

Source of Original English Statement	Source of Original Arabic Statement	English Translation used for Instrument	Arabic Statement on Published Instrument	Statement used on Pilot Instrument	Comment
				لأكون شخصا متعلما بحق	

NA = not applicable.

The pilot instrument itself is available in Appendix B. As can be seen in Table 3.2, all of the items are statements, the PE construct has 4 statements, the IL2 construct 10 statements, and the OL2 9 statements, making a total of 23 statements in the pilot instrument. For PE, the original English statements were copied from an instrument used for secondary and higher education students in Japan, and the Arabic version of each item except for one was copied from the instrument used in a study of Saudi military cadets (Ryan, 2009; Al-Qahtani, 2017a). One of the items on the PE scale was translated by the author, and, the Arabic in the others was edited slightly to adapt it to the context.

The original English items from the IL2 construct came from instruments from two studies: one focusing on higher education students in Japan, China, and Iran (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009), and one on male and female Saudi university students (Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). Some of these items had already been translated to Arabic for use in the Saudi Military cadet studies (Al-Qahtani, 2017b). To ensure that the Arabic version of the items were equivalent to the original English versions, the Arabic version of the items translated for the military cadet study were used, as they had undergone piloting and reliability testing (Al-Qahtani, 2017b). When possible, the items were copied identically from Arabic; otherwise, they were edited slightly to improve their suitability for the specific situation. Those that had not been translated into Arabic were translated by the author.

Finally the OL2 construct was developed entirely using English items from the study of students in Japan, China, and Iran, and the Arabic for the six that had already been translated for the Saudi military cadet study were copied for the

study with minor modifications (Taguchi, Magid and Papi, 2009; Al-Qahtani, 2017a). All of the items used the same response scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 2 = Disagree, 3 = Neutral, 4 = Agree, and 5 = Strongly agree.

3.7.3 Pilot instrument administration and feedback

After the pilot instrument was developed, it was shared and discussed with three bilingual academics to enable them to give their opinions about item wording, comprehensibility of scale measurement, and the suitability of the items, and to verify the translation. The academics were two L2 motivation researchers and a lecturer in the School of Education in PNU. The pilot instrument was provided to each academic, who responded with feedback. All suggestions to modify the wording of the items and improve the format of the initial questionnaire design were adopted.

After this step, an online version of the instrument was created using the web-based survey programme Google Forms. This version was used for the pilot study of the instrument to assess the feasibility of online administration. A former PNU student was asked to distribute the survey link to current PNU English students via WhatsApp. In a second line of administration, a current English professor sent the link to her students using an e-mail group on WhatsApp. The instrument was available for two days, and over that time, 47 valid responses were received. Administering the instrument online proved both efficient and effective, as it allowed the respondents to complete the instrument anonymously. Google Forms has an option to require a field to be complete before submitting the form; all of the fields were set to “required” in order to ensure there was no missing data.

For those administered by the English professor, students both completed the instrument and gave feedback to the professor in class regarding any ambiguity or difficulty that needed clarification in the items. The respondents reported taking about seven minutes to complete the instrument. After completing the instrument, the respondents reported that two items in the parental encouragement scale seemed redundant. These items were: *My parents encourage me to study English;* and *my parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible*.

3.7.4 Pilot instrument performance

In order to assess pilot instrument performance, a Cronbach α was conducted on items separately in each subscale to characterise reliability (using the R language, package psych) (R Core Team, 2019). CFA was used to confirm factor loadings. Pearson correlations between summed scores of the subscales (using R package Hmisc) were also evaluated for convergent and discriminant validity. The following Cronbach α scores were obtained: IL2 = 0.94, OL2 = 0.85, and PE = 0.88. Given that only scores above 0.70 should be considered acceptable, the scores suggest these subscales are highly reliable.

Table 3.3 presents the correlation matrix between IL2, OL2, and PE.

Table 3.3. Correlation matrix of pilot study L2 motivation subscales.

Measure	IL2	OL2	PE
IL2	NA	0.1103	0.2463
OL2	0.4604	NA	0.5274
PE	0.0952	0.0001	NA

Correlation coefficients are placed above the diagonal, and p-values below the diagonal. IL2 = ideal L2 self, OL2 = ought-to L2 self, PE = Parental encouragement, NA = not applicable.

Because all of these measurements are of L2 selves, they are likely to be positively correlated. It is noted in Table 3.3 that the only statistically significant correlation at $\alpha = 0.05$ is the one between OL2 and PE, which is rather strong ($r = 0.5274$), given the intention of measuring a separate construct from OL2 representing parental influence. It is difficult to consider this evidence of discriminant validity between OL2 and PE. Discriminant validity refers to the extent that one construct is truly differentiated from another construct (Nikitina, Mohd and Cheong, 2016). These findings suggest that although parents may have their own unique influence on the student's ideal L2 self compared to the theoretical others implied by the ideal ought-to L2 self, it may be difficult to measure them in an instrument. However, the pilot study was deliberately underpowered, meaning that the sample size included was not enough to achieve statistical power, so this interpretation was considered tentative.

The correlation between IL2 and PE was relatively low ($r = 0.2463$), and approached statistical significance with a p value of 0.0952. This may reflect the youthful overlap in personality taking place in younger college students whose identities may not have fully differentiated from their parents. The low positive correlation that is almost statistically significant suggests that both of these constructs may overlap, but appear to be distinct sources of L2 motivation. Finally, the correlation between IL2 and OL2 was positive and weak ($r = 0.1103$) and not statistically significant ($p = 0.4604$), suggesting that IL2 and OL2 were being measured as divergent constructs.

CFA was conducted on the data using the psych package in R, and because the intention was to confirm three factors, the number of factors to be fit was set at three, and varimax rotation was used (see Appendix C) (R Core Team, 2019). After examination of the performance of the instrument in the pilot

sample, it was decided that the following item on the PE scale be removed: *My parents encourage me to study English*. This decision was made based on discussion with the pilot study participants. Several participants felt that this item was redundant to other items in the instrument. Removing a redundant item might improve factor loading. Therefore, the final instrument to be used in the study had 22 statements: Ten on the IL2 subscale, nine on the OL2 subscale, and three on the PE subscale.

In the current study, the first goal is to explore the motivational profiles of English-major Saudi female learners at PNU through the lens of the L2 motivation self system (Dörnyei, 2009). This chapter aims to answer the study's first research question: What are the motivational profiles of English-major Saudi female students in PNU?.

3.8 Method

This section will first describe questionnaire development in the main study, and will be followed by a description of the data collection experience. The data analysis approach is also explained.

3.8.1 Questionnaire development

The questionnaire developed had three main sections: a section including the finalised L2 motivation measurement instrument; a section asking about demographic and other personal information; and a section asking if the student would be interested in participating in future research. If students wanted to participate in future research, they were provided an opportunity to register their contact information.

The questions in the demographic section and allowable answers are listed in Table 3.4

Table 3.4. Questions and allowable answers in the demographic section of the questionnaire.

Question	Allowed Answers
Age	Whole numbers
Major	Linguistics English literature Translation
Have you ever lived in an English-speaking country for no less than 3 months?	Yes or no

Appendix D includes the final questionnaire used in the study. The statements were presented randomly to control for ordering effects (Dörnyei *et al.*, 2012). The demographic questions were placed after the instrument items, following recommendations to start the questionnaire with questions related to the topic under investigation (Oppenheim, 2000). As with the instrument in the pilot study, the questionnaire was designed in Google Forms for online anonymous administration by link.

3.8.2 Data collection

Ethical approval to conduct the study was obtained from both the University of Sussex Cross-school Research Ethics Committee (C-REC) and the PNU Institutional Review Board (IRB) prior to commencement of research activities (Appendices E and F). To improve response rate when administering the online questionnaire, the researcher was given permission to visit thirteen classrooms including students from different majors in the English programme to explain the study and conduct recruitment (see Table 3.5).

Table 3.5. Classes visited for recruitment.

Classes	Major	Number of classes visited
Academic Skills (Level 3) Sociolinguistics (Level 4)	Linguistics	7
Greek Theater (Level 3) Short Story (Level 3)	English Literature	2
Introduction to Interpreting (Level 4) Translation Technology (Level 3)	Translation	4
Total		13

All of the students in the classes visited listed in Table 3.5 had completed the foundation year and had started the first year of their English programme. In the PNU English programme, which serves about 2,000 undergraduates per year, the majors have different levels of participation, with Translation being the most popular, Linguistics being the second most popular, and English Literature having the smallest student base. Based on this difference and the difference between the class topics, the class sizes of the classes visited were also different. It was estimated that there was a total of approximately 400 students among the 13 classes visited.

Prior to visiting the classes, the researcher posted a link to the final online questionnaire in a publicly available spot on the internet. The researcher addressed the students at the beginning of the classes, before the class started. When visiting the classes, the researcher first introduced the study, then explained what it was about, and that participation in the online survey would be anonymous should they choose to participate (unless they chose to include their contact details in the last section due to their desire to be recontacted for future research). The class was then directed to the publicly available link and students were encouraged to complete the online survey. Classes were visited and data were collected between March 11 and 15, 2018.

3.8.3 Questionnaire data analysis

Data were analysed in R (R Core Team, 2019). First, to assess whether the adapted instrument produced a more robust three factor vs five factor structure, CFA was conducted using tools from the psych package and a varimax rotation. For the three factor model, three factors were requested, and for the five factor model, five factors were requested. A scree plot was developed using the package *nFactors*. Once a factor structure was confirmed, a Cronbach α was run on the items in each factor to assess reliability. Pearson correlations among the three summed subscales was used to assess convergent and discriminant validity using the package *Hmisc*.

Next, summary statistics were calculated based on item scores and responses to other questions on the questionnaire. A bivariate analysis was conducted between categorical variables and subscale scores. Finally, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on each subscale score, with the subscale as the DV, and the major (Linguistics, English Literature, or Translation) as the IV. To account for potential violations of distributional assumptions, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used to confirm ANOVA results.

3.9 Results

After the data collection period, data from 207 questionnaires were available for analysis. Using the estimate of 400 students having been approached to complete the questionnaire, the response rate is estimated at 52%. Results from the instrument were analysed for factors, and the final factor structure selected was presented and defended. Next, univariate and bivariate descriptive results are presented for the items in the instrument, as well as the other questions asked, in relation to major. Finally, the variance in the three-factor structure of L2 motivation measured by the instrument is evaluated.

3.9.1 Instrument results

3.9.1.1 Factor analysis results

Before assessing reliability of factor structures, CFA took place in order to confirm *a priori* factor structures (see Table 3.6).

Table 3.6. Examination of three and five factor structure in L2 motivation instrument data.

		3 Factor Structure			5 Factor Structure				
State-ment identifier	**English Translation of Statement**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**	**F5**
B	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English	**0.87**	0.06	0.13	**0.86**	0.08	0.13	0.12	-0.05
C	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners	**0.86**	0.00	0.03	**0.87**	0.04	0.04	0.02	-0.04
G	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English	**0.88**	-0.06	0.14	**0.86**	-0.02	0.14	0.12	-0.14
J	I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English	**0.89**	0.07	0.00	**0.87**	0.04	-0.02	0.17	0.02
K	I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently	**0.76**	0.01	0.10	**0.79**	0.01	0.10	-0.02	0.10
M	I can imagine myself studying in a university abroad where all my courses are taught in English	**0.78**	0.06	0.02	**0.76**	-0.03	-0.02	0.23	0.02
P	I can imagine myself having a lot of English-speaking friends	**0.85**	0.04	0.12	**0.84**	0.06	0.12	0.15	-0.09
Q	I can imagine myself using English fluently like my role model	**0.80**	0.03	0.23	**0.80**	0.04	0.24	0.09	-0.02

		3 Factor Structure			5 Factor Structure				
State-ment identifier	**English Translation of Statement**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**	**F5**
R	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	**0.77**	0.04	0.19	**0.79**	0.05	0.20	-0.03	0.08
S	The things I want to do in the future require me to use English	**0.64**	0.27	0.23	0.55	0.17	0.18	**0.57**	-0.10
D	I study English because close friends of mine think it is important	-0.03	**0.67**	0.10	-0.03	**0.76**	0.16	-0.02	0.01
E	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do it	0.07	**0.76**	0.13	0.05	**0.81**	0.18	0.11	0.03
H	I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that should do it	0.04	**0.76**	0.05	0.05	**0.81**	0.11	-0.04	0.16
I	Studying English is important to me to gain the approval of my peers/ teachers/ family	0.14	**0.79**	0.11	0.10	**0.76**	0.12	0.25	0.12
L	Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	0.10	**0.75**	0.01	0.07	**0.63**	-0.02	0.35	0.27

		3 Factor Structure			5 Factor Structure				
State-ment identifier	**English Translation of Statement**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F1**	**F2**	**F3**	**F4**	**F5**
N	If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down	-0.16	**0.60**	0.19	-0.10	0.33	0.12	0.07	**0.85**
T	I have to study English because if I do not study it I think my parents will be disappointed with me	-0.02	**0.70**	0.35	-0.04	0.47	0.29	0.37	**0.49**
U	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English	0.34	**0.40**	0.19	0.22	0.13	0.06	**0.83**	0.10
V	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person	0.22	**0.53**	0.53	0.14	0.33	0.46	**0.61**	0.15
A	I am often told by my parents that English is important for my future	0.23	0.21	**0.80**	0.23	0.21	**0.81**	0.08	0.05
F	My parents encourage me to practice my English as much as possible	0.24	0.10	**0.84**	0.24	0.13	**0.86**	0.05	-0.04
O	My parents think that I should really try to learn English	0.11	0.41	**0.72**	0.10	0.27	**0.68**	0.23	0.34

Note: Factor loadings are bolded.

As can be seen from Table 3.6, the data showed a potential for either the hypothesised three factor structure, or a five factor structure. The differences in subscales is summarised in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7. Comparison of the three vs. five factor structure.

Construct	Three Factor Structure	Five Factor Structure
Ideal L2 self	10 statements (F1)	9 of the 10 statements used in the three factor structure (F1)
Ought-to L2 self	9 statements (F2)	5 of the 9 statements used in the three factor structure (F2)
Parental encouragement	3 statements (F3)	Same (F3)
Personal security	Not applicable	1 statement from the ideal L2 self from the three factor structure, and 2 from the ought-to L2 self three factor structure (F4)
Avoidance of disappointment	Not applicable	2 statements from the ought-to L2 three-factor structure (F5)

There is no official threshold for factor loadings, but a suggestion of using 0.45 as a threshold is based on recommendations from the literature (Falout, Elwood and Hood, 2009; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Under that criterion, one of the items in the three factor structure in OL2 (item U) was the only item falling under this criterion at 0.40. However, the five factor structure included weaker factor loadings on OL2, and the factor loading on the additional two factors were not especially high. Further, the scree plot for the three factor structure looked acceptable, in that the inflection point for the downward curve in the scree plot appears to start after the third factor (see Figure 3.4).

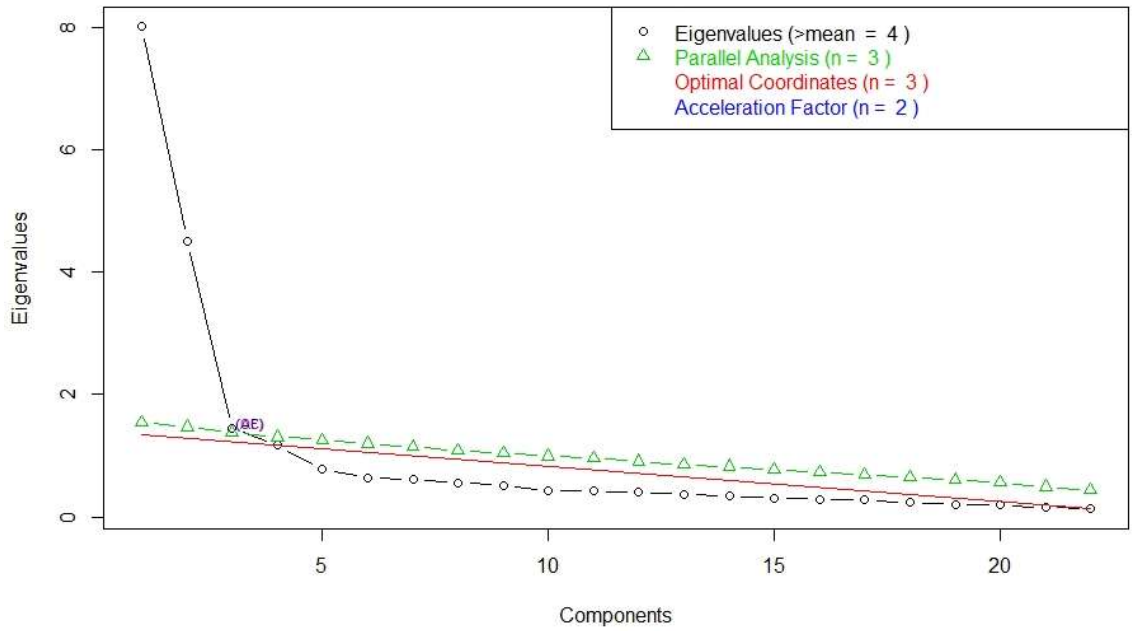

Figure 3.4. Scree plot on three factor structure.

For these reasons, the three factor structure was selected, and the CFA was considered to have confirmed the three factor structure of the instrument.

3.9.1.2 Reliability, and convergent and discriminant validity results

Given that the three factor structure was selected, Cronbach α analysis was conducted on all subscales for the following results: IL2 = 0.95, OL2 = 0.87, and PE = 0.83. With all results above 0.80, all of the factors in the three factor structure were considered to be highly reliable. The subscales were summed, and Table 3.8 shows the results of correlation analysis on the three subscales.

Table 3.8. Correlation matrix of main study L2 motivation subscales.

Measure	IL2	OL2	PE
IL2	NA	0.1971	0.3670
OL2	0.0044	NA	0.5158
PE	<0.0001	<0.0001	NA

Correlation coefficients are placed above the diagonal, and p-values below the diagonal. IL2 = ideal L2 self, OL2 = ought-to L2 self, PE = Parental encouragement, NA = not applicable.

Correlations between each of the subscales were positive and statistically significant. The smallest and least significant correlation was between IL2 and OL2 ($r = 0.1971$, $p = 0.0044$). This seems reasonable, because IL2 and OL2 should positively correlate, but should measure distinctly different self-concepts. The correlation between IL2 and PE was higher ($r = 0.3670$), and this may suggest that the student's IL2 is not totally differentiated from their idea of their parents' concept of the student's ideal L2 self. Finally, the highest correlation seen was between OL2 and PE ($r = 0.5158$). This higher correlation also suggests that parents' concept of the student's ideal L2 self may not be fully distinct from OL2, as the ought-to L2 self is perceived vis-à-vis others, and the parents may constitute a large influence among the others in the student's life.

Given that the three factor structure was found to be reliable and valid, it was used for the remainder of the analysis, including Chapter 4.

3.9.2 L2 Motivation Results

3.9.2.1 Item distributions

To interpret item scores, separate Likert plots were made for each subscale using the Likert package. Figures 3.5, 3.6, and 3.7 present the Likert plots for IL2, OL2, and PE, respectively.

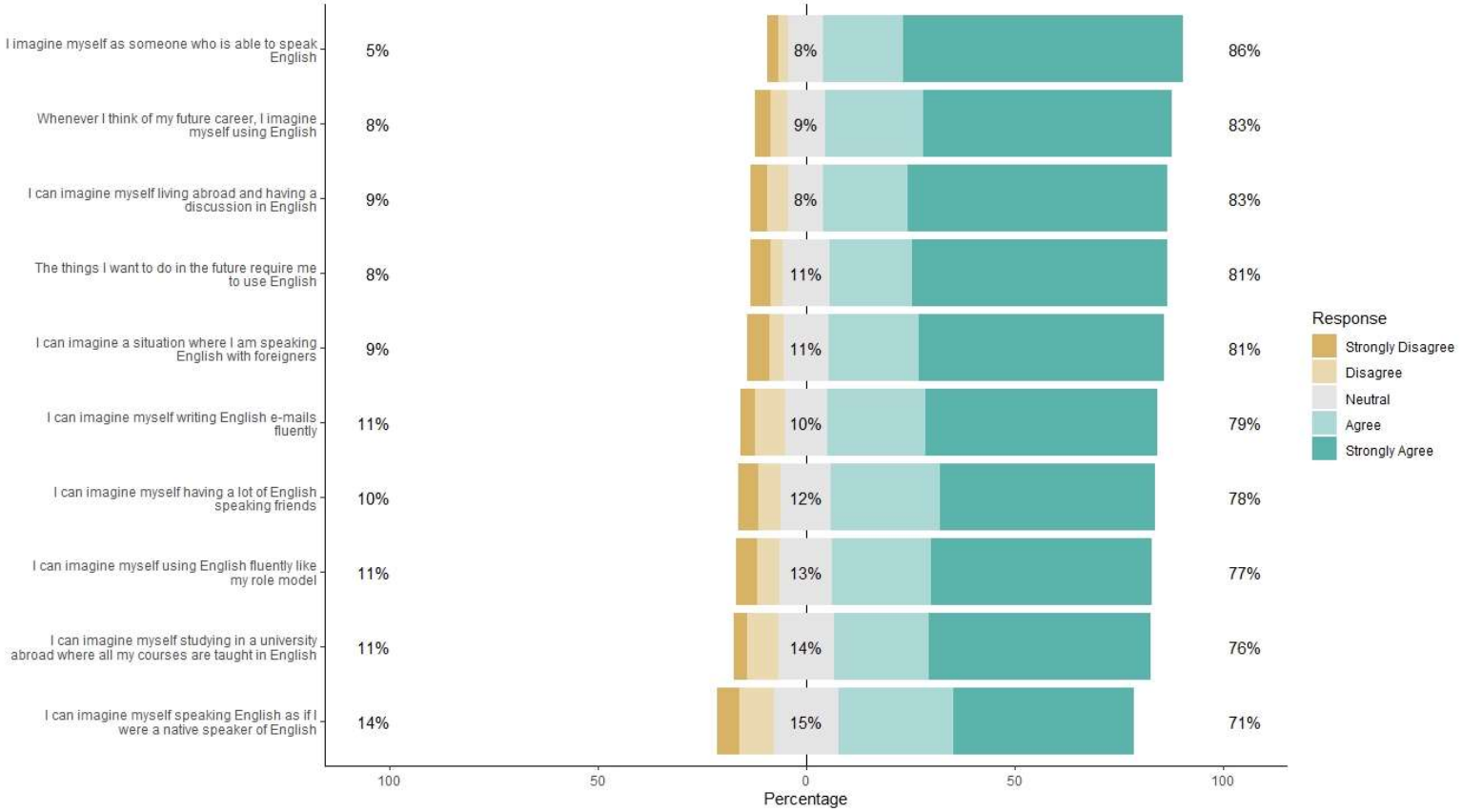

Figure 3.5. Likert plot of Ideal L2 self subscale items.

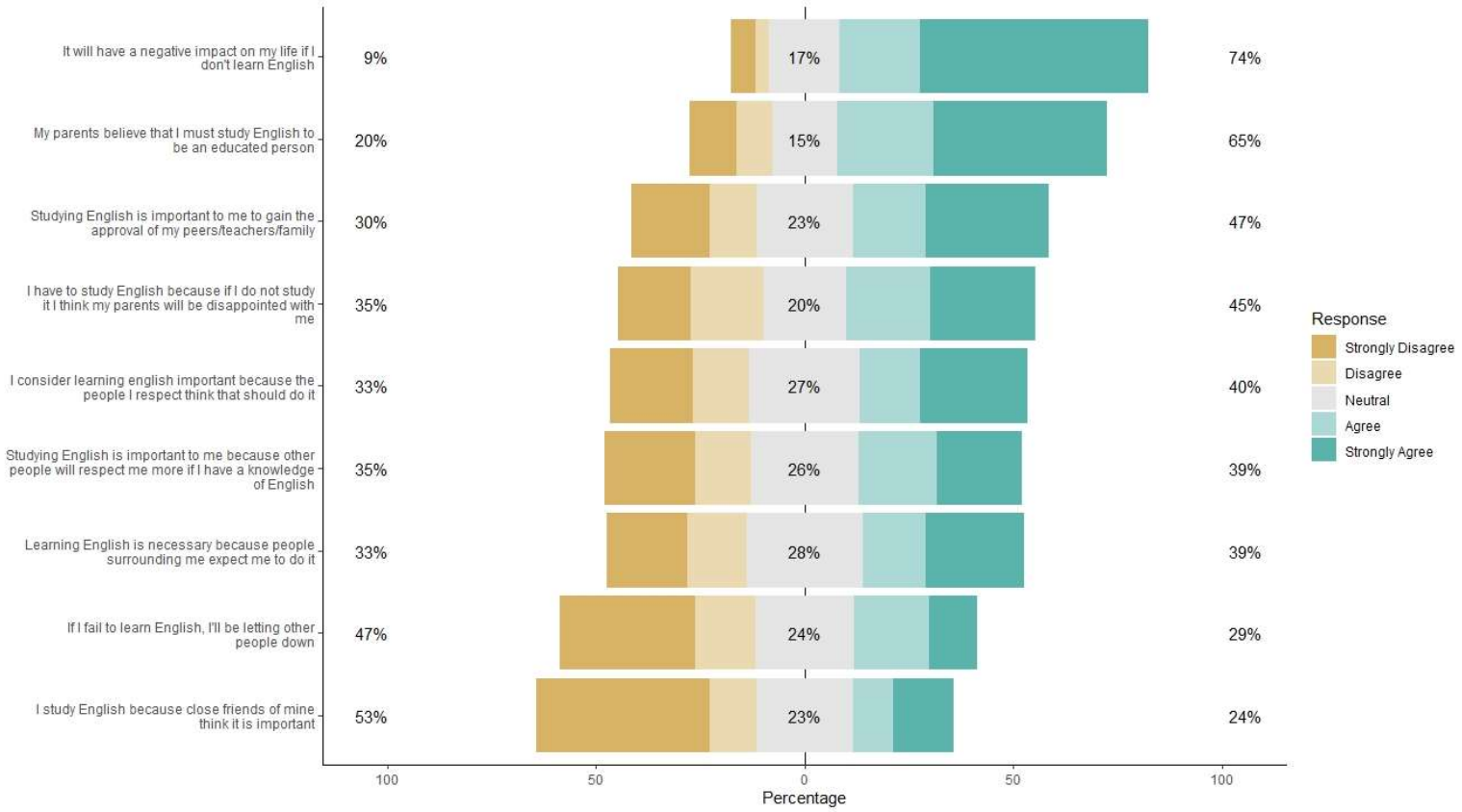

Figure 3.6. Likert plot of Ought-to L2 self subscale items.

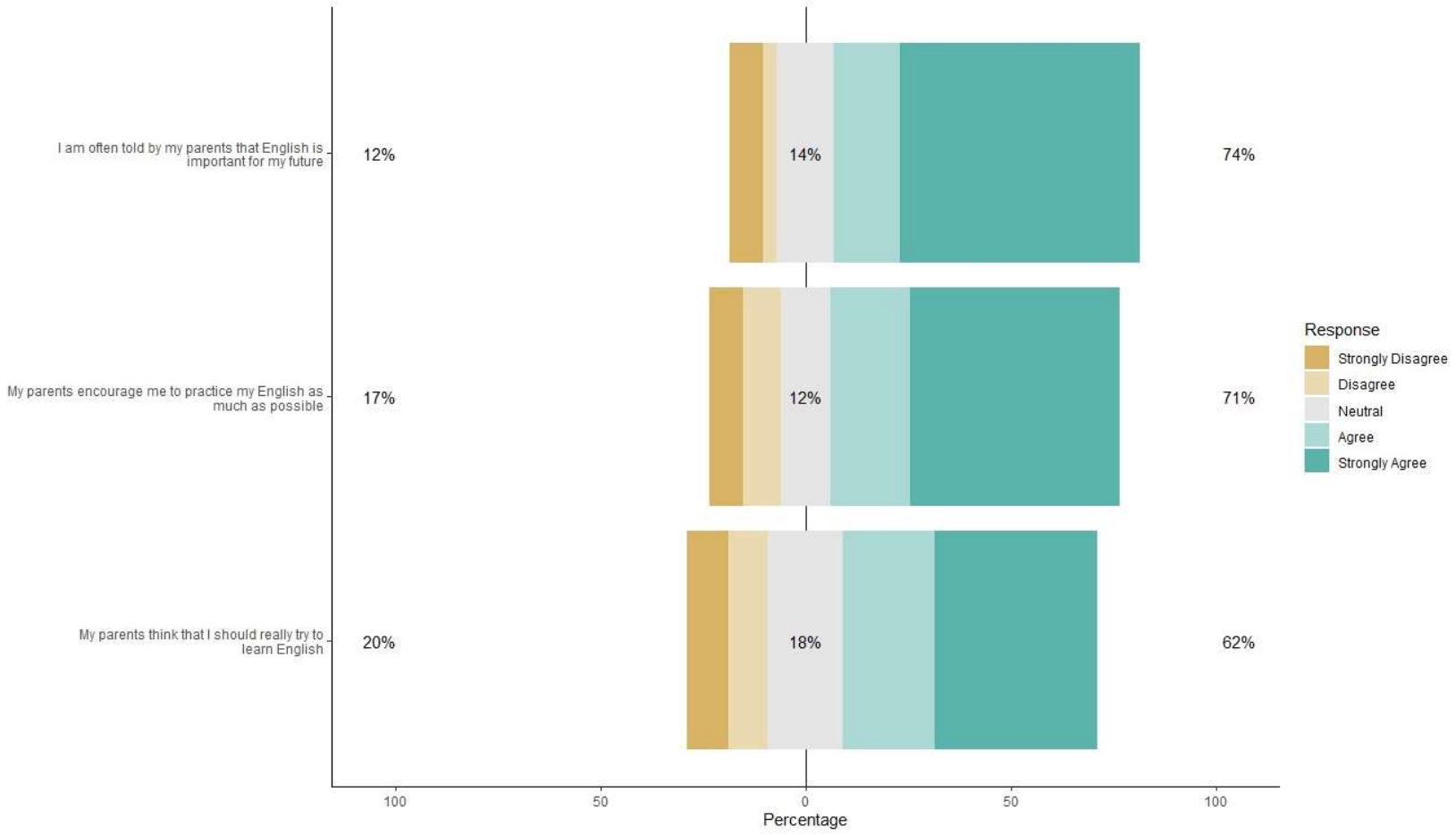

Figure 3.7. Likert plot of Parental Encouragement subscale items.

To interpret Figures 3.5, 3.6, and 3.7, first observe that the x-axis indicates the percentage of respondents who replied to each statement, and the y-axis has the item statement. Each horizontal bar represents the distribution of answers to the selected item.

The gray area centred around x = 0 indicates the percentage of respondents who chose “neutral” as an answer. This percentage is listed in the data label on the grey area. The numbering of the x-axis begins at the centred 0 and moves outward in both directions. If all of the data were to the right of the gray area, the bar would extend to 100 on the right. If all of the data were to the left of the gray area, the bar would extend to 100 on the left. The right edge of the green shape represents the proportion of respondents who said “agree” or “strongly agree” plus 50% of those who said “neutral”. The left edge of the gold shape represents the proportion of respondents who said “disagree” or “strongly disagree” plus 50% of those who said “neutral”.

To the right of the gray area is a light green field representing the proportion who responded “agree” to the statement, and a dark green field representing the proportion who responded “strongly agree”. The percentage of all respondents who said either “agree” or “strongly agree” is listed in the data label on the right of the green areas.

To the left of the gray area is a light gold field representing the proportion who responded “disagree”, and a dark gold field representing the proportion who responded “strongly disagree”. The percentage of all respondents who said either “disagree” or “strongly disagree” is listed in the data label to the left of the gold areas.

For Figure 3.5, which depicts results from the ten items in IL2, there is little variability between the distribution of responses. The item that drew the strongest agreement of 86% of the sample was statement G, which is, *I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English*, reflecting very clearly the idea of an ideal L2 self, while the item that drew the weakest agreement of 71% was item R, which is, *I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English*, again clearly reflecting the ideal L2 self. An interesting finding is that apparently, IL2 is universally high among this sample.

As seen in Figure 3.6, there was more of a difference in distribution among the nine items on the OL2 scale compared to the items on the IL2 scale. The most agreed-with item was, *It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English*. Interestingly, this statement does not recognise specific others directly, and instead characterises a general sense that the student will be received negatively by others if they do not learn English. The least agreed-with item was, *I study English because close friends of mine think it is important*, with a total agreement of only about one quarter (24%), and much larger disagreement (53%). This suggests that the others that the students may be referring to when formulating their OL2 may be more general, leading to a diversity of OL2 levels not seen in IL2.

Finally, the three statements in Figure 3.7 from PE showed a similar pattern to the statements in IL2, with universally high agreement, although the agreement was lower than with IL2 (between 62% and 74%). This may suggest that PE is indeed a distinct factor from OL2, and may represent an additional L2 motivation outside of the L2 motivation self system.

3.9.2.2 Bivariate results

Descriptive results of the sample are presented in Table 3.9, with results from non-instrument questions presented on the questionnaire, along with percentage agreement (e.g., including the agree and strongly agree levels) with each item listed overall, and by major.

Table 3.9. Descriptive results for questionnaire variables and agreements with items.

Category	**Level**	**All** **n (%)**	**L** **n (%)**	**EL** **n (%)**	**T** **n (%)**
All	All	207, 100	71, 34	31, 15	105, 51
Lived in ES country	No	188, 91	68, 96	28, 90	92, 88
	Yes	19, 9	3, 4	3, 10	13, 12
Age	19	39, 19	18, 25	10, 32	11, 10
	20	100, 48	41, 58	18, 58	41, 39
	21	56, 27	11, 15	2, 6	43, 41
	22	12, 6	1, 1	1, 3	10, 10
Ideal L2 self	Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English	172, 83	58, 82	23, 74	91, 87
	I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners	167, 81	58, 82	21, 68	88, 84
	I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English	179, 86	61, 86	25, 81	93, 89
	I can imagine myself living abroad and having	171, 83	61, 86	24, 77	86, 82

Category	Level	All n (%)	L n (%)	EL n (%)	T n (%)
	a discussion in English				
	I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently	164, 79	57, 80	22, 71	85, 81
	I can imagine myself studying in a university abroad where all my courses are taught in English	157, 76	54, 76	22, 71	81, 77
	I can imagine myself having a lot of English speaking friends	161, 78	57, 80	22, 71	82, 78
	I can imagine myself using English fluently like my role model	159, 77	55, 77	23, 74	81, 77
	I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	147, 71	54, 76	21, 68	72, 69
	The things I want to do in the future	168, 81	58, 82	26, 84	84, 80

Category	**Level**	**All** **n (%)**	**L** **n (%)**	**EL** **n (%)**	**T** **n (%)**
	require me to use English				
Ought-to L2 self	I study English because close friends of mine think it is important	50, 24	15, 21	8, 26	27, 26
	Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do it	80, 39	23, 32	11, 35	46, 44
	I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that should do it	83, 40	23, 32	12, 39	48, 46
	Studying English is important to me to gain the approval of my peers/ teachers/ family	97, 47	30, 42	19, 61	48, 46
	Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have	81, 39	28, 39	16, 52	37, 35

Category	**Level**	**All** **n (%)**	**L** **n (%)**	**EL** **n (%)**	**T** **n (%)**
	a knowledge of English				
	If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down	61, 29	23, 32	12, 39	26, 25
	I have to study English because if I do not study it I think my parents will be disappointed with me	94, 45	31, 44	16, 52	47, 45
	It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English	153, 74	52, 73	24, 77	77, 73
	My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person	134, 65	42, 59	24, 77	68, 65
Parental encouragement	I am often told by my parents that English is	154, 74	48, 68	26, 84	80, 76

Category	Level	All n (%)	L n (%)	EL n (%)	T n (%)
	important for my future				
	My parents encourage me to practice my English as much as possible	146, 71	48, 68	24, 77	74, 70
	My parents think that I should really try to learn English	128, 62	41, 58	21, 68	66, 63

Note: ES = English-speaking, L = Linguistics, EL = English literature, T = Translation.

As was expected, the distribution of the sample included the largest percentage from Translation (n = 105, 51%), the second largest from Linguistics (n = 71, 34%), and the third largest from English Literature (n = 31, 15%). Overall, only 9% (n = 19) reported ever living in an English-speaking country, and when stratified by major, the major with the largest percentage of such students was Translation at 12% (n = 13). Respondents were aged 19 through 22, with over half being either 19 or 20 (n = 139, 67%), which is consistent with the fact that they had just finished their foundational year.

IL2 percentage agreement with items was similar across majors, but there was a pattern of lower scores among English Literature majors. This may reflect the lower grade criteria required in order to enter the major compared to the other two majors. The OL2 percentage agreement with items was also similar across majors, but there was a pattern of higher agreement among Translation majors. This may reflect the fact that the Translation major is highly geared toward preparing the student for post-college employment. Lastly, among PE items, agreement was similar across majors, with a pattern of lower agreement among those in Linguistics.

To develop raw subscale scores of each of the factors, a value was assigned to each answer, and these values summed. The values were assigned as follows: Strongly disagree = 1, Disagree = 2, Neutral = 3, Agree = 4, and Strongly Agree = 5. Because the IL2 was comprised of 10 statements, the minimum raw score allowed was ten, and the highest raw score allowed would be 50. OL2, which was comprised of nine statements, had a raw score range of 9 to 45. Finally, PE was comprised of three statements, so the minimum raw score would be three, and the maximum 15. Summary statistics for these raw subscales are presented in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10. Summary statistics for raw subscale scores stratified by major.

Subscale	All mean, sd	L mean, sd	EL mean, sd	T mean, sd
Ideal L2 self	42.2, 9.0	42.4, 9.2	40.9, 10.9	42.5, 8.3
Ought-to L2 self	28.7, 8.8	27.6, 8.4	30.7, 8.9	28.7, 8.9
Parental encouragement	11.8, 3.4	11.2, 3.8	12.5, 3.0	12.0, 3.2

Note: sd = standard deviation, L = Linguistics, EL = English literature, T = Translation.

As shown in Table 3.10, the raw subscale scores did not show any pattern with respect to major.

3.9.2.3 ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis analysis

To assess if the means between majors for the three subscales were statistically significantly different, the results of an ANOVA and a Kruskal-Wallis analysis are presented on each subscale in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11. ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis results.

Structure	Outcome	Test	Test statistic value	p-value
Three factor	IL2 Score	ANOVA	0.419	0.658
	OL2 Score		1.335	0.265
	PE Score		1.946	0.146
	IL2 Score	Kruskal-Wallis	0.152	0.927
	OL2 Score		3.100	0.212
	PE Score		2.954	0.228

IL2 = Ideal L2 motivation subscale score, OL2 = Ought-to motivation subscale score, PE = Parental encouragement score, ANOVA = analysis of variance.

As shown in Table 3.11, both the parametric ANOVA and the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis analysis agree that there is not a statistically significant difference between any of the mean scores among majors (p values ranging

from 0.146 through 0.658). This suggests that although the mean subscale scores were slightly different for the three majors, the differences were not statistically significant. This suggests that major is not a known source of variation that would explain why these scores are different, and that variables that have not been explored yet might be able to explain their variation better.

3.10 Summary

This chapter aimed to answer the question: What are the motivational profiles of English-major Saudi female students in PNU? In order to answer that question, first, the chapter explored the theoretical underpinnings of L2 motivation theory, examined the literature on instrumentation used to measure L2 motivation and other constructs, and reviewed similar studies done in Saudi students. The result of these reviews supported the development of an instrument that measured the constructs of IL2, OL2, and PE. The instrument was piloted, and underwent reliability and validity studies. The instrument was revised and then used in a cross-sectional study aimed at answering the research question.

The three L2 motivation constructs measured in the study – IL2, OL2, and PE – did not differ significantly between majors. However, because L2 motivation is multi-factorial, there may be other predictors (in addition to major) that would be associated with different levels of motivation. After all, a distribution of different answers was found in the constructs, especially among the OL2 items, as shown when comparing the IL2 Likert scale plot to the OL2 plot. It is also possible that the motivational levels vary minimally between majors for reasons that may be more related to the learning context than the learner. Since demotivated learners tend to drop out of L2 learning programmes, perhaps the ones who stay maintain a requisite level of motivation.

Unlike the other studies of Saudi students reviewed, this analysis did not attempt to relate motivational subscale scores to any sort of L2 learning outcomes. One way to demonstrate utility of the measurements derived from the instrument would be to associate them with particular DVs that relate to L2 learning. This is explored in the next chapter.

Chapter 4: The Association Between L2 motivation and Target-like Article Production

4.1. Introduction

This chapter aims to examine the extent to which learners' L2 motivational profiles (described in Chapter three) are associated with their use of target-like article forms. As explained in Chapter one, the study draws on L2 variationist perspectives and methods to examine how motivation is connected with learners' use of article forms as adherence or non-adherence to the target form offers insights into the dynamicity of learners' identities.

As such, the first part of the chapter provides a brief background on variationist sociolinguistics and its role in shaping L2 variationist research. It then moves to focus on the development of sociolinguistic studies on L2 English production, and makes a case for studying L2 motivation as a social influence on target-like production in L2 English speakers. Next, the theoretical framework used to extract and code article forms is delineated and the related literature on the acquisition of English articles is discussed. A focus is placed on the challenges L1 Arabic speakers face when learning L2 English, especially with respect to article production.

The second part details the data collection methods that were used to gather the linguistic data, and presents the analytic approach that was used to answer the research question. The last part of the chapter presents the findings of descriptive, bivariate and multivariate analyses, and interprets these findings.

4.2. Sociolinguistic variation research

Linguistic variation in both L1 and L2 speech has been studied for many reasons (Ringer-Hilfinger, 2013). The first most notable researcher in this area was William Labov, who initially studied linguistic variation in English speakers in Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts in the United States (US) (Labov, 1963). Martha's Vineyard is an island, and Labov studied the shift in phonetic position of the initial elements of the /ai/ and /au/ diphthongs on this island, and compared it to other areas nearby in the region (Labov, 1963). Through carefully characterising the speech of many different speakers, and through

using multiple research methods, he was able to relate these phonetic shifts to social ideas and constructs (Labov, 1963).

To be specific, Martha's Vineyard is a vacation destination, so those who live there year round are part of an established culture, differentiated from those who visit from the nearby New England region, which shares a similar English accent (Labov, 1963). Although accents in the region are similar, Martha's Vineyard speech is noticeably different than the speech in the nearby urban centre of Boston (Labov, 1963). Through his research, Labov found that year round dwellers of Martha's Vineyard generally see visitors as outside of the culture, and possibly encroaching upon it (Labov, 1963). However, some members of this culture expressed interest in leaving Martha's Vineyard, possibly to become more urbanised in Boston (Labov, 1963). Through his research, Labov was able to relate the use of these diphthongs by Martha's Vineyard residents to the intensity of their identity as members of the Martha's Vineyard culture (Labov, 1963).

Others were inspired to conduct research on similar topics in sociolinguistic variation. Research from this period includes a study of differences in verbal culture and linguistic production in workers on a farm in Guyana, differences in linguistic variation in peasant villagers in the Spanish Pyrenees relating to how much they were moving to a mainstream economy, and social category labels used by adolescents in the predominantly white Detroit suburban area (Holmquist, 1985; Eckert, 1989, 2012; Winer, 1989). In these study designs, the researcher gathers a corpus of speech – either orally or written – and uses a linguistic classification system to enumerate the linguistic characteristics. In Labov's case, the diphthongs in question needed to be characterised numerically from the speech produced by participants in his studies (Labov, 1963). Also, there will be other data collection; in Labov's case, it involved interviewing his subjects about their values, and collecting questionnaire data about their opinions (Labov, 1963). Once these data are collected, in order to relate sociological constructs such as values and opinions to linguistic variations in speech, a robust statistical approach must be used.

Early research into sociolinguistic variation was relatively unsophisticated in statistical testing, and typically used descriptive statistics to report evidence of

any hypotheses, which is not correct (Beebe, 1980; Wolfram, 1985; Young and Bayley, 1996; Bayley, 2005). In order to report evidence relating to a hypothesis, the hypothesis must be determined prior to the development of a statistical model (Gorman, 2009). Young and Bayley (1996) observed that researchers were looking for multiple causes for linguistic variation (including social causes), and that statistically, this would not be possible without making multivariate regression models. These models would need to include a dependent variable measuring some type of linguistic variation, and independent variables that represent multiple causes that can be assessed for their relative importance in the model. It follows that it is not possible to do such quantitative modeling without a dataset that is set up in the correct format, with relevant information coded into structured data (Young and Bayley, 1996; Gorman, 2009; Gorman and Johnson, 2013).

The solution to this problem lay in the work of multiple researchers. First, a concept called the “variable rule” was proposed initially by Labov (Kay and McDaniel, 1979) but fell out of favour. However, because it involved a method of developing a structured dataset based on a corpus of data on which to perform quantitative analysis, the term VARBRUL came to refer to a type of quantitative variationist analysis and the computer programme associated with it (Fasold, 1991; Bayley, 2005; Johnson, 2009). This is essentially a logistic regression analysis, so the dataset developed from the corpus must contain tokens, and the linguistic variation DV of the token must be binary (Bayley, 2005; Gorman, 2009).

For example, in Labov’s studies, tokens needed to be coded with a variable that indicated whether the diphthong in the token was a particular variant of /ai/ (such as [əi] vs [ai]), or a particular variant of /au/ (such as [əu] vs [au]) (Gorman, 2009). In each case, there were two alternatives, so that each token could be coded as binary in the state of one of the alternatives. In addition, tokens would need to be coded for all potential independent variables that need to be available for the regression model (Gorman, 2009; Ellis, 2015). To take Labov’s study as an example, while the dependent variable may be a particular variant of /ai/ (such as [əi] vs [ai]), independent variables would include sociological factors, like level of interest in leaving Martha’s Vineyard, as well as

linguistic factors related to the token, such as acoustic features of the token that Labov measured in his study (Labov, 1963).

As of now, it has been recognised that multivariate quantitative models are necessary to deduce the relative impact of different factors on various linguistic features. However, multivariate approaches can be particularly challenging for non-linguists, who may also be L2 educators who are interested in studying L2 variation. Therefore, it is important to review the L2 sociolinguistic variationist research specifically in order to understand how study designs have been applied historically.

4.3. L2 sociolinguistic variation research

Labov's and similar studies were conducted on speakers who were using their first language. Researchers became interested in applying similar methods to conducting L2 sociolinguistic studies. An example of this type of study can be seen on research conducted with students enrolled in four sections of an advanced English as a second language (ESL) writing course being taught at Michigan State University (MSU) (White, 2009). The study focused on the production of written target-like articles, and how the L2 learner's proficiency with this was associated with their level of confidence in their article choices (White, 2009). In this study, multivariate analysis was conducted on the data derived from the writing task to understand linguistic variation in the L2 writers, and other data were collected about the learner's self-rated confidence in order to gain an understanding of the relationship between written target-like production of articles and the learner's self-perceived confidence (White, 2009).

While studying linguistic variation in L2 learners in the L2 itself is challenging for the reasons stated previously, it is even more challenging to incorporate hypothesised sociological determinants into models involving L2 learner speech. This is because L2 learners may not possess a minimum level of L2 competence in order to express social influences (such as style shifting) during production. In one study that showed this effect, 24 Chinese learners of English in an L2 learning programme of various L2 proficiencies were studied under the hypothesis that style-shifting would be associated with a pattern of use of plural -s marking (Young, 1988). The results showed that the style-shifting was only

apparent in proficient L2 learners (as measured by TOEFL score), and that in those with lower proficiency, it was not possible to detect when style-shifting occurred (Young, 1988).

Wolfram (1985) also observed something similar in his studies of Vietnamese individuals of different ages learning English. He wanted to conduct sociolinguistic analysis of their speech, and his analysis found that his speakers were speaking in an interlanguage between Vietnamese and English (Wolfram, 1985). He determined that this was indeed an interlanguage, because it had a systematic set of constraints that were specific to the interlanguage (e.g., represented systematic use of language that was not target-like in either Vietnamese or English) (Wolfram, 1985). However, since some utterances in the interlanguage were not target-like in English, it is not obvious if these utterances represent speaking an interlanguage, or a failure to achieve correct L2 speech.

In another example, Tarone and Parrish (1988) studied L2 speakers of English who were L1 speakers of either Japanese or Arabic in an L2 learning setting. The purpose of the study was to quantify error rates in speech of the same L2 speakers under different conditions, because the authors wanted to demonstrate that the same speakers can have different levels of accuracy in their use of L2 speech depending upon the type of task (Tarone and Parrish, 1988).

The authors' argument was that task-related variability in interlanguage in L2 learners may not only be due to their level of "attention to form" as implied by Wolfram, but also due to pressures deriving from the specific task being asked of the L2 learners (Tarone and Parrish, 1988). Certain communication tasks may place different degrees of communicative pressure on the speaker, and this can result in speech that varies due to the type of task, rather than due to any other reason (Tarone and Parrish, 1988). Some tasks may elicit discourse that is more cohesive than others, and this may be a source of variation itself (Tarone and Parrish, 1988). The authors demonstrated their point by collecting data about use of articles on their L2 learners through three different tasks: 1) a grammaticality judgment task where students were supposed to identify sentences which were grammatically incorrect; 2) an oral interview with an L1

speaker focusing on the learner's field of study, and 3) an oral narration task where participants were asked to describe a sequence of events depicted nonverbally on a video screen (Tarone and Parrish, 1988). The authors found a diversity of error rates in the same speakers depending upon the task as well as the type of error made (Tarone and Parrish, 1988).

Tarone and Parrish's (1988) analysis essentially demonstrated that it may be very challenging to detect the sociological signal as a source of L2 variation when other sources – such as the nature of the task, as well as types of errors made – may exert such strong influences on L2 production that there may be little room left for sociological explanations of the variation. However, this simply means that study designs will need to accommodate this challenge. As in the present study, extra data collection in the form of a semi-structured survey was able to gather information about sociologic influences on production independent of focusing on variables derived from linguistic variation parameters (White, 2009).

Sociolinguistic studies with L2 speakers have explored many topics, including L2 motivation. This includes a study on L2 motivation that was conducted by Polat and Schallert (2013) on Kurdish adolescents acquiring Turkish. The authors were interested in understanding if levels of L2 motivation and identification with L1 and L2 communities predicted accent attainment. In their study, for L2 motivation, the authors measured the ideal L2 self as conceived of by Dörnyei as a separate construct from simply motivation (Polat and Schallert, 2013). For motivation, they subscribed to the Deci and Ryan model of intrinsic and extrinsic motivators (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei, 2009; Polat and Schallert, 2013). In their study, other factors were statistically significantly associated with accent attainment, but not the ideal L2 self independent variable, or the other motivation predictor (Polat and Schallert, 2013). Through analysing interview data obtained from the participants, the authors concluded the intrinsic motivations (other than ideal L2 self and the motivation predictor) rather than extrinsic motivations had more influence on L2 accent attainment in their study (Polat and Schallert, 2013).

Other studies have tried to relate L2 motivation to sociolinguistic parameters. A study in L2 speakers learning Scottish Gaelic for work in Edinburgh and

Glasgow found that results from the interview portion of the data provided more insight into L2 motivation than quantitative models (Nance *et al.*, 2016). These researchers measured L2 motivation according to the concepts outlined by Dörnyei, but through interviews rather than a quantitative instrument (Dörnyei, 2009; Nance *et al.*, 2016). Unfortunately, the authors do not explain what questions they asked in their semi-structured interview, and how they applied the L2 motivation concepts outlined by Dörnyei in their analysis (Nance *et al.*, 2016). While the authors analysed a corpus of data using a multivariate quantitative model, and found both linguistic as well as social predictors, they did not attempt to include motivation as an independent variable in the model (Nance *et al.*, 2016). Through interviews, it was found that depending upon the person, parents could serve as influences shaping the L2 self, but the ideal L2 self may not necessarily be oriented toward target-like models (Nance *et al.*, 2016). This suggests that the connection between L2 motivation and target-like production might not be direct, but subject to mediating factors.

More recently, Nagle (2018) studied L2 motivation in English-speaking learners of Spanish to see if L2 motivation predicted the longitudinal development of L2 pronunciation. Motivation was measured using an instrument and an open-ended questionnaire aimed at measuring Dörnyei's L2 motivation self system factors (Dörnyei, 2009; Nagle, 2018). Ultimately, it was difficult for the author to conduct the analysis, because L2 motivation did not change a lot during the study (Nagle, 2018). Because of the complex and multifactorial nature of L2 motivation, the author concluded that qualitative learner reports may be more useful in measuring L2 motivation than quantitative instruments (Nagle, 2018).

As shown by the recent studies, relating variations in L2 production to aspects of L2 motivation has been challenging. One of the challenges has been in studying multiple aspects of production in one study, such as in the study of the Kurdish adolescents, where variations in 15 linguistic features were studied (Polat and Schallert, 2013). Next, although L2 motivation was collected in these studies, it was collected differently in each study, and none of the studies showed a clear association between quantitatively measured L2 motivation and L2 variation. On the other hand, studies that included a qualitative component usually reported being able to understand nuances of the connection between

L2 motivation, L2 variation, and other factors studied such as identity (Polat and Schallert, 2013; Nance *et al.*, 2016; Nagle, 2018).

This suggests that it is possible to understand a connection between variation in L2 production and sociological influences such as L2 motivation. First, a study relating L2 motivation to L2 production should include both a quantitative and qualitative component measuring the connection between L2 motivation and production, because even if a valid and reliable L2 motivation instrument is used, the resulting measurement may not relate directly to variation in L2 production. This follows the general recommendation for including studies of mixed-methods design in L2 motivation (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011; Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012; Ushioda, 2016).

Second, the specific type of L2 production should be defined such that it could be used as a dependent variable (DV) in a multivariable model, with L2 motivation along with other potential factors as the independent variables (IVs). This will reduce confusion in any regression model about the measurement of the DV, and the true strength of association between the L2 motivation-related IVs and the L2 production DV. Ushioda (2016) claimed that this type of focus is necessary in order to connect specific aspects of SLA or specific features of linguistic development with L2 motivation. For example, the omission of articles might be a specific type of L2 variation which would be of interest in the classroom, and might be subject to various levels of L2 motivation (Master, 2002; Garcia Mayo, 2008; Bayley and Tarone, 2012).

Third, it is much easier to determine relationships between L2 motivation and variations in L2 production if the underlying community being studied is relatively homogenous. The studies of Kurdish adolescents and L2 Gaelic speakers who were looking for work represent a relatively heterogenous underlying population for L1 proficiency, age, and level of education in L1 (Polat and Schallert, 2013; Nance *et al.*, 2016). This is especially true when studying L2 sociolinguistic variation in the classroom. For example, Tarone and Parrish (1988) included both L1 Japanese and L1 Arabic speakers studying English in their study of task-related L2 variation. This can introduce confusion into the study design, because the interlanguage between Arabic and English may be different from the one between Japanese and English. The more homogenous

the underlying classroom population is in L1 proficiency and level of education, the more likely any associations between L2 motivation and variations in L1 production will be seen.

To summarise the hypothesised connection between L2 motivation and L2 production in young university-level L2 learners based on the literature, see the diagram in Figure 4.1.

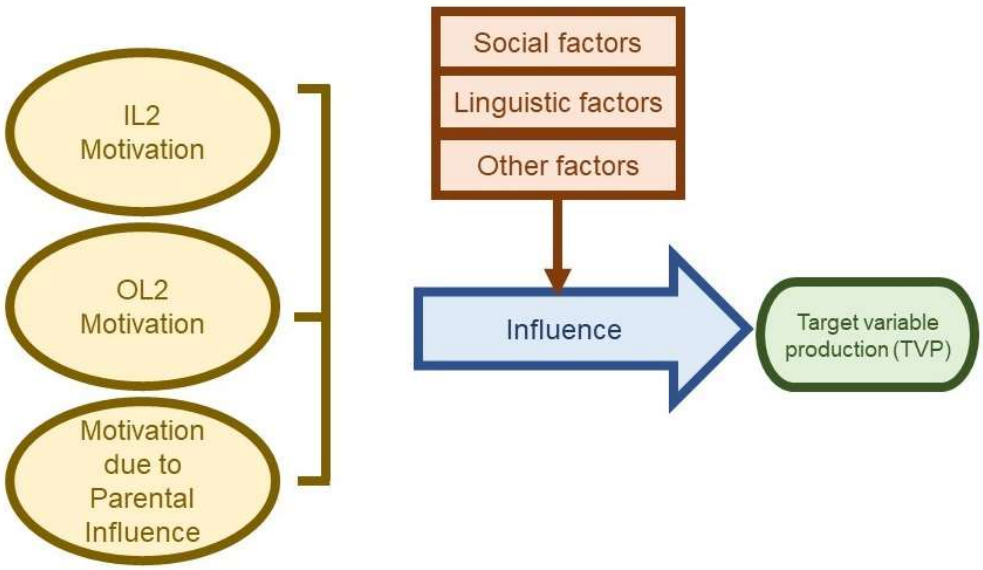

Figure 4.1. Hypothesised relationship between L2 motivation and variation in L2 production in young college-age L2 learners.

As shown in Figure 4.1, IL2, OL2, and parental influence are likely to be motivators, but there will definitely be other factors that influence SLA overall, including linguistic factors related directly to the speech. These factors are likely to mitigate or otherwise modify the influence of L2 motivation on target variable production in the L2. The details of how they do so will depend on the specific details of the situation, but overall, Figure 4.1 provides a framework for studying the connection between L2 motivation and L2 production in college-age classroom L2 learners.

4.4. English articles as targets in L2 production

Studies have shown that among L2 English learners, there is a systematic variability in their production of English articles in many different L1 populations (Young, 1996; Master, 2002; Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004; Garcia Mayo, 2008; Almahboob, 2009; Alzamil, 2015; Ekiert and Han, 2016). These include L1 speakers of Mandarin, a language without articles, and L1 speakers of Arabic, a language that includes articles (Alzamil, 2015).

Many scholars have argued that this variability stems from the complexity of English articles, such that multiple functions (e.g., definiteness and countability) are stacked onto a single morpheme (*a/an, the*, *Ø*), which creates considerable challenges for L2 learners who are searching for a one-form/one-function correspondence. Evidence has demonstrated that English article variability is subject to a task effect, meaning that a forced-choice task will produce different results from a written production task in the same L2 learners (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004; Almahboob, 2009).

Given these attributes, studying English article use in L2 learners provides a fertile opportunity to understand L2 variation in L1 Arabic speakers learning English. This section argues that Arabic L2 learners of English at the same proficiency and education level would provide a homogenous sample in which to understand stylistic variation, identity expression, and other social influences on L2 variation of article use. This is due to the nature of English articles, and the cross-linguistic variation between English and Arabic, both of which will be described here.

4.4.1 Theoretical background on English articles

The study of English articles in L2 production gave rise to a discussion of definiteness and specificity, and led to the development of the Article Choice Parameter (ACP) (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004), which will be described here.

4.4.1.1 The Article Choice Parameter (ACP)

Different hypotheses have attempted to explain the source of variability in L2 English learners in article production. Hawkins (1978) hypothesised Location

Theory, suggesting that the variability had to do with difficulty locating the referent. Prévost and White (2000) developed the Missing Surface Inflection Hypothesis, which comes into play when there is a mismatch in article usage between L1 and L2. Recently, researchers have taken an interest in the parameter (re)setting approach, which accounts for cross-linguistic variation between learners' L1 and L2 based on two semantic properties: definiteness and specificity (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004). According to this approach, all languages have access to these two universal parameters (Ionin et al. 2004), although one complexity is that languages with overt articles mark one of these properties, but not both.

Reflecting upon this, Ionin et al. (2004) proposed that there is an Article Choice Parameter (ACP) with two semantic settings that determine article use in two-article languages. In the first setting, articles are distinguished on the basis of definiteness, whereas in the second setting, articles are distinguished on the basis of specificity. For L1 Arabic to L2 English speakers, this would be a particularly useful way to think about English articles. To illustrate, Standard English marks a definite noun phrase (NP) with the definite article *the*, and marks indefinite NPs with the indefinite article *a/an,* but it does not mark for specificity. Therefore, English has a definiteness setting in that articles are distinguished on the basis of definiteness rather than specificity. The ACP approach therefore attempts to explain article variation patterns based on a potential (mis)match in semantic parameters between learners' L1 and L2. This would be a reasonable framework to use to consider mismatches between an L1 language with articles like Arabic and L2 English, provided that the ACP between L1 Arabic and L2 English was determined prior to study design.

However, the exact definitions of definiteness and specificity have been debated. Therefore, before considering studying English article use in L2 production, it is important to understand the meanings of definiteness and specificity in English, and how they relate to L2 English speech production.

4.4.1.2 Definiteness and specificity in English

definitions of definiteness and specificity have been the subject of debate among many scholars (Christophersen, 1939; Hawkins, 1978; Fodor and Sag,

1982; Huebner, 1983; Lyons, 1999). The debate has concerned many issues, including how to consider the referent, and what logic to use when evaluating noun phrases (NPs) in English that include articles, and determining whether the articles were [±definite] or [±specific]. Ionin and colleagues (2004) proposed applying a Fregean logic to classifying English NPs as [±definite] and [±specific] that builds upon the concept of the ACP.

According to the system of logic employed by these authors, a NP is considered definite [+definite] when the speaker and the hearer presuppose the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP. On the other hand, a NP is indefinite [-definite] if both speaker and hearer do not presuppose the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP. Ionin et al. (2004) argued that a NP is specific [+specific] if the speaker intends to refer to a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP and consider this individual to possess some noteworthy property. Therefore, a NP is nonspecific [-specific] when the speaker does not intend to refer to a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP.

In the article where this logic system was published, the context was providing guidance for classifying English article use in NPs in linguistic variation studies, although it was not absolutely clear how the logic was to be applied (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004). In the article, the authors reflected on the results of coding articles produced by different linguistic exercises, and did not specify which types of production would be most suitable for this classification system (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004). This is pertinent to L2 motivation and sociolinguistic research, because as previously noted, different L2 production tasks can elicit different error rates in the same L2 learners (Tarone and Parrish, 1988).

4.4.1.3 Ionin et al. (2004) classification system

Ionin et al. (2004) observed that definiteness is morphologically marked in English, in that definite NPs take *the* in singular and non-singular form, whereas indefinite NPs take *a/an* in singular form, and Ø in non-singular form. Ionin et al. (2004) suggest that definiteness is conditioned to two discourse features: *uniqueness* and *presupposition* shared by speaker and hearer. This view proposes that when speaker and hearer presuppose a unique referent in the set

denoted by the NP, then the referent is definite, and the definite article is used. In contrast, when there is no presupposition that a unique referent exists in the set denoted by the NP, then the referent is indefinite, and the indefinite article is used. The examples below illustrate this:

(1) [+definite]: *The winner* of the competition will receive a medal.

(2) [-definite]: I saw *a dog* outside.

In example (1), the definite article is used in the NP *the winner* because uniqueness is fulfilled given our world knowledge that a competition typically involves a unique winner. In contrast, in (2), the indefinite article is used in *a dog* since there is no presupposition that a unique dog exists in the discourse given that it is mentioned for the first time, and thus, definiteness is not achieved. However, it is possible that the sentence could be followed by, “I gave *the* dog some water”; in this case, the condition of a unique referent is met in the second mention of this dog, and in that case, the NP is definite and the definite article is used; *the dog*.

Ionin et al. (2004) also observed that English does not mark the specificity feature, so they developed a diagnostic method to ascertain whether an NP denotes a specific entity with a noteworthy property. They showed that when a NP licenses the insertion of the referential demonstrative *this*, the NP is [+specific] with a noteworthy property. Consider the following illustrations from Lyons (1999, p. 76):

(3) Peter intends to marry *a/this merchant banker*—even though he doesn’t get on at all with her.

(4) Peter intends to marry *a/#this merchant banker*; I have no idea who it is.

According to Ionin et al. (2004), the speaker in (3) intends to refer to a particular individual by *a merchant banker* because this particular individual possesses a noteworthy property, which is that Peter does not get on at all with her. In (4), the speaker does not intend to refer to a particular individual by *a merchant banker* because the referent of this NP does not possess a noteworthy property. Ionin et al. (2004) argued that the condition of specificity in (3) is achieved, while it is not achieved in (4). As such, *a merchant ba*nker in (3) would be

classified as specific, while *a merchant banker* in (4) would be classified as nonspecific. For this reason, the colloquial use of the demonstrative *this* can offer a specificity marker in indefinite referential use (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004).

In addition, specificity can be expressed in indefinite contexts and definite contexts can be non-specific. These examples from Ionin et al. (2004: 8-9) illustrate how specificity is expressed in [±definite] NPs:

(5) I'd like to talk to *the winner* of today's race—whoever that is; I'm writing a story about this race for the newspaper.

(6) Peter intends to marry *a merchant banker*—even though he doesn't get on at all with her.

The speaker in (5) does not refer to a particular winner even though the NP is definite, because the referent does not possess a noteworthy property. Hence, *the winner* is non-specific. However, the NP in (6), *a merchant banker,* is specific because it possesses a noteworthy property (i.e., Peter does not get on at all with her). Therefore, specificity is achieved in (6) because from the speaker's viewpoint, this particular individual possesses a noteworthy property. the purpose of these examples is to illustrate that in English the definiteness property is marked morphologically, while the specificity property is unmarked but is expressed through the context.

While definiteness and specificity in English articles have been discussed as topics, one of the main contributions of the discussion developed by Ionin and colleagues (2004) is that it provides clear guidance and test cases to use for classifying definiteness and specificity of articles. Further, it describes clearly how definiteness but not specificity is marked morphologically, and this allows researchers to consider what types of article errors may be made in English L2 learners because of this structural feature.

4.4.2 L2 English article acquisition in L1 speakers of different languages

As described earlier, definiteness but not specificity is morphologically marked in English, and this may influence article errors made by L2 English learners. First, this section looks at the influence of definiteness and adjectivally-premodified nouns in English on patterns of L2 English learners' article errors.

Next, the influence of the L1 language on L2 English learners' article errors will be considered, and a focus will be placed on article errors made by L1 Arabic speakers who are L2 learners of English, noting that Arabic is another language with an article system.

4.4.2.1 ACP and transfer effects in L2 learners of English

Ionin and colleagues (2004) surveyed studies on L2 English article use in learners with various different L1s, and observed that those with L1s that did not contain articles, such as Mandarin, had a greater challenge producing target-like articles in L2 English than those with an L1 that contained articles, such as Arabic. The authors observed that L2 English learners without articles in their L1 tended to exhibit patterns of non-target-like article use that were predictable, and based on the observation formulated the Fluctuation Hypothesis (FH) (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004). The FH held that there are predictable transfer effects from the L1 to the L2 that can explain fluctuation.

Ionin, Zubizarreta and Maldonado (2008) found that there is also a transfer of understanding between L1 and L2 that facilitated target-like L2 article production, provided that the L1 and the L2 had comparable article systems. This suggests that in L2 speakers of languages with articles like English, if the L1 language has articles, there is an L1 transfer of understanding of a restricted ACP based on the understanding of definiteness. This restricted ACP results in a higher probability that the article used by the L2 speaker will be target-like.

4.4.2.2 ACP and adjectivally-premodified nouns

Definiteness and specificity are two features of English articles that confine the L2 English speaker's ACP, and in L1 speakers of a language with articles, such as Arabic, this restriction of the ACP can lead to more target-like production of English articles. However, whether or not the noun in the NP with the article is premodified with an adjective may also play a role in the ACP. This concept was investigated by Trenkic (2007) in 60 L2 English learners whose L1 was Serbian.

The results showed that L1 Serbian speakers learning English omitted articles more frequently when a noun was premodified by an adjective than when it was not (Trenkic, 2007). Because Serbian has no articles, there is presumably no

mismatch between [±definite] or [±specificity] settings between the L1 and L2 (Trenkic, 2007). This study was able to demonstrate that premodification can have on a learner's use of articles by isolating it and examining it directly (Trenkic, 2007).

4.4.2.3 Articles in Arabic

Arabic has only one article, which is the definite article *al*. It is used with all types of nouns, regardless of singular, plural, or uncountable (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Article use in Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Singular	The girl is intelligent.	البنت ذكية.	Al-bint thakiah.
Plural	The girls are intelligent.	البنات ذكيات.	Al-banat thakiat.
Uncountable	The rice is inexpensive.	الرز غالي.	Al-ruz ghali.

When speaking in the generic sense, *al* is required as an article. For example, in the phrase "Camels live in the desert," camels is a generic that would require *al* when translated to Arabic.

Importantly, Arabic lacks an indefinite article, so many noun phrases contain no article. When children are learning Arabic, they tend to make the error of using the article *al* where it is not required.

4.4.2.4 Studies on English article acquisition and errors by L1 Arabic learners

Target-like article production in L2 English learners who speak L1 Arabic has been the subject of a series of studies. These studies are summarised in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. Studies of article production in L2 learners of English with Arabic L1.

First author	Theoretical approach	Data collection	Results
Kharma (1981)	Error analysis	Cloze test	Overuse of *the* and *a/an* with uncountable nouns Omission of the and a/an with singular nouns
Tarone (1988)	Huebner's semantic model	Oral interview and an oral dyad task	Article use is influenced by noun type: accurate article use with previously-mentioned nouns and less-accurate article use with generic nouns
Bataineh (2005)	Error analysis	Written production task	Overuse of *a/an* with uncountable nouns as a result of overgeneralization Omission of a/an as a result of L1 transfer
Almahboob (2009)	ACP	Forced-choice elicitation task and a written production task	Fluctuation between the ACP in controlled output Overuse of a/an with uncountable nouns and omission of the in uncountable nouns in spontaneous production
Alhaysony (2012)	Error analysis	Written production task	Overuse of *the* with indefinite generics as a result of L1 transfer
Elwerfalli (2013)	Error analysis	Written production task	Omission of *the* in premodified noun contexts as a result of L1 transfer
Alsowiliem (2014)	ACP	Forced-choice elicitation task and written translation task	Overuse of *a/an* with uncountable nouns more frequently than plural indefinite nouns

First author	Theoretical approach	Data collection	Results
Alzamil (2015)	ACP	Forced-choice elicitation task	Overuse of *the* across indefinite contexts that required Ø

Note: ACP = Article Choice Parameter (per Ionin (2004)).

As can be seen in Table 4.2, several theoretical models were used in these studies. When the ACP was used as a guiding model, the data collection was generally a forced-choice task. This is probably because in order to determine the definiteness and specificity of the NP, clear context is needed. When studying non-target-like-production of spontaneously formed written text, it might not be possible to adequately determine the definiteness and specificity of the token because the text may not provide enough clues. However, as long as the NP can be identified, whether or not the article is target-like is easier to determine. Therefore, spontaneous written production of L1 Arabic speakers studying L2 English has been studied more often as an error analysis, rather than using the ACP as a guide.

As noted in Table 4.2, four of the studies used error analysis as the theoretical approach. Research by Kharma (1981) is the earliest error analysis study listed in Table 4.2. It investigated article misuse among 128 L1 Arabic English-major students in higher education in Kuwait. The participants were 41 males and 87 females. The study used a gap filling cloze test with 40 items and the participants were asked to fill the gaps with *a/an, the*, or no article. The following errors were observed (adapted from Sarko, 2009, p. 96):

a. Overuse of *the* where *a/an* is required (found mainly with indefinite generic singular NPs).
b. Omission of *a/an* or *the* with singular NPs.
c. Overuse of *a/an* where *the* is required.
d. Overuse of *the* where Ø is required.
e. Overuse of *a/an* with indefinite uncountable nouns.

Kharma (1981) further observed that the overuse of *the* occurred with “plural nouns and plurals used in a general sense” (p.341), proposing that the learners

transferred their L1 semantics and functional categories in this context only (i.e., generic plural nouns which require the use of Ø in English). Furthermore, the overuse of *a/an* with uncountable nouns suggests that Arabic learners of English encounter difficulty in assessing the countability status of nouns.

The second error analysis study in Table 4.2 was done by Bataineh (2005). Because Arabic does not have an overt marker for indefinite NPs, this study focused on a particular type of error, which was how Arabic learners misuse the English indefinite article (Bataineh, 2005). The participants in the study were 209 male and female L1 Jordanian Arabic speakers who were majoring in English in a higher education programme. To produce the data, the participants were given a choice of five writing prompts (reason for studying English; the university campus where the students were studying; violence in movies; car accidents; and the student's favourite author, story, or poet), and were asked to choose one to write about. The results revealed that the majority of errors were related to omission, which the author attributed to L1 transfer, as Arabic lacks a morphological marker for indefiniteness (Bataineh, 2005). The second most frequent error was the overuse of the indefinite article with plural and uncountable indefinite NPs, which the author attributed to overgeneralisation as learners produced the indefinite article in indefinite contexts irrespective of noun countability (Bataineh, 2005).

A third error analysis study by Alhaysony (2012) in L2 higher education of Saudi L1 Arabic-speaking learners of English did not classify article use according to Ionin's ACP system (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004), but instead used the Surface Structure Taxonomies (SST) system. The SST studies omission errors as well as sources of errors (such as interference from the L1 language). Data was collected from 100 female Saudi higher education students in the English Department of Ha'il University at the same academic level, who were asked to write 150 to 300 words in a well-organised essay responding to one of six prompts that were similar to the ones used in Almahboob (2009). Article errors were classified into one of three SST categories: omission, addition and substitution (Alhaysony, 2012).

In contrast to previous error analysis studies, the author identified that omission errors were the most frequent, and addition errors (which are the same as

overuse errors) were not prominent, with substitution being the second most frequent error. Of the omission errors, omission of *a* was most frequent, and the omission of *an* was the least frequent (Alhaysony, 2012). Of the addition errors, unsurprisingly, the most frequent was the error of adding *the* where it is semantically incorrect to add an article, and this was attributed to interference from Arabic, where the definite article is frequently used (Alhaysony, 2012).

The final error analysis study listed in Table 4.2 examined article use in written production and was conducted by Elwerfalli (2013). The participants were Libyan L1 Arabic speakers studying L2 English in higher education (Elwerfalli, 2013). The purpose of the study was to compare teaching approaches in this student group for L2 English, but as part of this evaluation, the author collected spontaneous written L2 English produced by the students and analysed it for article errors (Elwerfalli, 2013). Elwerfalli (2013) administered a written task to 90 students who were asked to write two descriptive essays on the following topics: *What did you do last weekend*?; and *Describe one of your relatives*. The participants were found to omit the definite article in obligatory contexts 31% of the time. Careful examination showed an omission pattern with ordinal numbers and superlative adjectives with singular nouns, where, in Arabic, the definite article is not used. As examples of these errors, participants produced sentences such as (Elwerfalli, 2013, p. 206):

(7) She is third girl.

(8) She is best friend.

(9) First thing I did was sleeping.

Overall, the results of this written-task analysis were consistent with previous studies, in that the percentage of omission of *a/an* was higher than the omission of *the*, and omissions were more common than additions (Elwerfalli, 2013).

Three of the other studies listed in 4.2 used the ACP as the theoretical approach. The first, by Almahboob (2009), observed how L1 Arabic-speaking Saudi learners of L2 English had some of the similar patterns of article misuse as was found in the Jordanian and Kuwaiti studies (Kharma, 1981; Bataineh, 2005). Therefore, Almahboob (2009) hypothesised that these learners would use the definite article in definite contexts, and overuse the definite article in

indefinite specific contexts. The participants in the study were 96 Saudi Arabic speakers who were majoring in English in a higher education programme. Although this study used the ACP as a guiding theory, and therefore the tasks included a forced-choice elicitation task, the author also included a written production task adapted from Ionin et al. (2004).

For the written production task, learners were provided five prompts that were similar in topic as to the ones used in the Jordanian study, but were more descriptive (e.g., "*Talk about the day when you first came to the university. Describe your experiences of that day- what you did, where you went, to whom you talked, etc*." Almahboob, 2009, p. 179). Learners were asked to provide written answers to all five questions, and the NPs in the corpus were classified as to their definiteness and specificity, but a VARBRUL analysis was not conducted (Almahboob, 2009). Ultimately, in this study, it was found there was a lack of production of NPs in the definite context, and this complicated the analysis, although the author stated that no consistent error pattern could be observed in article misuse between the definite and indefinite contexts in the data from this study (Almahboob, 2009).

The other articles that used the ACP as the theoretical guide used forced choice elicitation tasks (Alsowiliem, 2014; Alzamil, 2015). While these approaches can be helpful for some types of research, they are not going to be as sensitive to article overuse as well as other errors as spontaneous written text or speech. Therefore, the results found by Almahboob (2009) include more information than can be obtained by results from a study using the ACP as a theoretical guide but using force-choice elicitation tasks.

To summarise, the studies examined on article use either used the error analysis approach or the ACP as the guiding theoretical model. The findings of these studies on L1 Arabic learners of English demonstrated that they: (1) show target-like article use in definite contexts; (2) show article use variation in indefinite singular and plural contexts, characterised by overusing *the* in indefinite generic contexts and overusing *a/an* in indefinite plural and uncountable contexts; and (3) omit articles more frequently in spontaneous output than in controlled output. Part of the reason that these patterns of misuse

may be predictable has to do with the specific cross-linguistic variation between English and Arabic.

4.4.3 Cross-linguistic variation between English and Arabic

This section will examine differences in definiteness and specificity in Arabic, article distribution in Arabic compared to English, and transfer effects that are likely to happen between L1 Arabic and L2 English.

4.4.3.1 Definiteness and specificity in Arabic

As described earlier, Arabic has one definite article, but no indefinite article. Like English, Arabic encodes definiteness but not specificity. Definite NPs in Arabic are marked with the prefix *al* (ال) whereas specificity is expressed contextually.

4.4.3.1.1 Comparison of article use in definite contexts that are specific vs. not specific in English and Arabic

The examples in Table 4.3 illustrate Najdi Arabic definite NPs marked with *al*, their phonetic transcription, and literal translation in English. In one case, the NP is definite and specific, and in the other case, the NP is definite and not specific.

Table 4.3. Comparison of article use in definite contexts that are specific vs. not specific in English and Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Noun phrase is definite and specific	I would like to congratulate *the winner* of the competition. He is my friend.	حبيت أهنئ *الفائز* بالمسابقة. هو صديقي.	Habet ahane *al-fa'ez* bilmusabaqa. Huwa sadiqi.
Noun phrase is definite and not specific	I would like to congratulate *the winner* of the competition, but I do not know who it is.	حبيت أهنئ *الفائز* بالمسابقة لكن ما أعرف مين هو.	Habet ahane *al-fa'ez* bilmusabaqa laken ma'aref meen hu.

As illustrated in Table 4.3, the speaker and hearer presuppose the existence of a unique referent in the set denoted by the NP of *al-fa'ez* (the winner). Therefore, the two NPs in the two examples are definite and marked with the article *al-* (the). Moreover, in the first example, *al-fa'ez* (the winner) is specific, because it holds a noteworthy property (i.e., he is the speaker's friend), whereas the referent of *al-fa'ez* (the winner) in the second example is nonspecific, because it does not hold a noteworthy property.

Thus, the NP *al-fa'ez* (the winner) in these two examples is not marked for the specificity feature in Arabic. It is the context which gives the different readings of *al-fa'ez* (the winner) as being specific in the first case, and nonspecific in the second case. For this reason, the definite article *al* can co-occur with specific and nonspecific descriptions. This is similar to the examples given earlier in English that demonstrated morphologically marked definiteness but contextually marked specificity.

4.4.3.1.2 Comparison of article use in indefinite contexts that are specific vs. not specific in English and Arabic.

In English, there is an overt marker for indefinite NPs, but this is not present in Arabic. Instead, indefiniteness in Arabic is expressed by Ø. Consider the examples in Table 4.4 which demonstrate that regardless of the specificity, indefinite NPs in Arabic are unmarked.

Table 4.4. Comparison of article use in indefinite contexts that are specific vs. not specific in English and Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Noun phrase is indefinite and specific	I want to buy *a gift* for my friend, but it is too expensive.	ابي اشتري هدية لصديقي لكنها غالية.	Abe ashtari *hadiyyah* lesadigi lakenha ghaliah.
Noun phrase is indefinite and not specific	I want to buy *a gift* for my friend, but I do not know what to get her.	ابي اشتري هدية لصديقي لكن ما اعرف ايش اجيب.	Abe ashtari *hadiyyah* lesadiqi laken ma'aref esh ajeeb.

In both the cases of specific and non-specific NPs in Table 4.4, speaker and hearer do not presuppose the existence of a unique entity by the referent of *hadiyyah* (a gift) and, therefore, the two NPs are indefinite and unmarked. However, the speaker in the second case refers to a specific entity in the set denoted by *hadiyyah* (a gift) because she considers this entity to possess a noteworthy property (i.e., it is too pricey); hence, it is specific. Similarly, the speaker in the second case does not intend to refer to a unique entity in the set denoted by *hadiyyah* (a gift), because she does not know what gift to buy. As such, *hadiyyah* in the second case is nonspecific. Regardless of specificity, however, note that in Arabic, the indefinite NP remains unmarked.

So, while definiteness is marked in Arabic, and specificity is not, it is important to observe that indefiniteness is not marked in Arabic. Therefore, it is the feature [+definite] that is the only one expressed with an article in Arabic. Nonetheless, there is disagreement among scholars regarding the marker of indefiniteness in Arabic. Many grammarians consider that indefiniteness is expressed by Ø in Arabic (e.g., Lyons 1999). Another view, which is barely tenable, argues that indefiniteness is marked by *tanween,* or nunation in English, which are small case markers above or under the last letter of the indefinite noun. However, *tanween* is not used in non-standard spoken Arabic, and is becoming less used in formal contexts such as news reports (Awad, 2011). Therefore, as a practical matter, researchers such as Sarko (2009) recommend coding indefiniteness in Arabic articles as a Ø.

4.4.3.1.3 Comparison of articles in English and Arabic for definiteness, specificity, and obligatory status

Table 4.5 summarises the differences between English and Arabic articles by translating example noun phrase tokens with articles and classifying them.

Table 4.5. Comparison of articles in English and Arabic for definiteness, specificity, and obligatory status.

		English Token		Arabic Translation	
Example noun phrase article token in English	**Definite classifica-tion**	**Specific classification**	**Obligatory classification**	**Arabic example**	**Arabic Transcriptio n**
I would like to meet *the painter* of that picture. I saw her on TV and I really liked her.	+definite	+specific	obligatory *the*	حبيت اقابل الرسامة اللي رسمت اللوحة. شفتها في التلفزيون و عجبتني.	Habet aqabel *al-rasamah* elli rasamat al-loha. Shift'ha fe al-talvizion wa ajabatne.
I would like to meet *the painter* of that picture, but I have no idea who it is.	+definite	-specific	obligatory *the*	حبيت أقابل *الرسامة* اللي رسمت اللوحة لكن ما أعرف مين هي.	Habet aqabel *al-rasamah* elli rasamat al-loha laken ma aref meen he.
I am picking up *a friend* from the airport. We Met at college.	-definite	+specific	obligatory *a/an*	باخذ صديق من المطار. كنا زملاء بالجامعة.	Bakheth *sadeeq* min al-matar. Kena zumala biljame'a.
He said he is picking up *a friend*, but he did not tell me who it is.	-definite	-specific	obligatory *a/an*	قالي انه بياخذ صديق من المطار لكن ما حدد مين هو.	Qali enah byakheth *sadeeq* min al-matar laken ma hadad meen hu.
I am picking up *friends* from the airport. We met at college.	-definite	+specific	obligatory Ø	باخذ *اصدقاء* من المطار. كنا زملاء بالجامعة.	Baketh *asdeqa* min al-matar. Kena zumala biljame'ah.

		English Token		Arabic Translation	
Example noun phrase article token in English	**Definite classifica-tion**	**Specific classification**	**Obligatory classification**	**Arabic example**	**Arabic Transcriptio n**
He said he is picking up *friends*, but he did not tell me who they are.	-definite	-specific	obligatory Ø	قالي انه بياخذ *اصدقاء* من المطار لكن ما حدد مين هم.	Qali enah byakheth *asdeqa* min al-matar laken ma hadad meen hum.

4.4.3.1.4 Transfer effects from Arabic to English

Table 4.5 shows how definiteness and specificity are encoded in Arabic, and how that compares to English. Both languages morphologically encode [+definiteness] and express specificity through context; however, unlike in English, in Arabic, [-definiteness] is unmarked. Therefore, it is reasonable to assume that Arabic learners of English encode L2 English articles based on definiteness, as they would probably transfer knowledge and experience with article production from Arabic to English. Since Arabic only has a definite article, it would be reasonable to predict that when L1 Arabic speakers learn English, as they refer to their native ACP to choose an article, they would be more likely to use *the*, which is the English definite article, than use *a/an,* since there are no indefinite articles in Arabic. Also, it is predictable that L1 Arabic speakers might simply be confused by *a/an*, and this may be expressed through Ø in English. In addition, for [-definite] and plural or uncountable noun phrases, Arabic transfer effects may favour L1 Arabic speakers in that they would be more likely to produce target-like Ø in this situation, as Arabic does not encode [-definite] nouns.

In addition to differences in how definiteness and specificity is expressed in NPs in Arabic and English with respect to article, another important distinction between the two languages has to do with article distribution.

4.3.2 Article distribution in Arabic vs. English

This section describes how article distribution is different in Arabic compared to English. These differences must be considered when studying L1 Arabic

speakers learning L2 English. These differences have to do with handling generics, definiteness, countability, and premodified nouns in the two languages.

Both Arabic and English have definite articles. When it comes to [+definite], in English, NPs can take *the* in singular, plural, and uncountable form. Consider these examples:

(10) I saw *the cat* outside.

(11) I saw *the cats* outside.

(12) *The rice* was delicious.

In examples (10), (11), and (12), the definite NPs, which include *the cat* (singular), *the cats* (plural) and *the rice* (uncountable), respectively, are preceded by the definite article *the*. These examples illustrate that English uses the definite article *the* with definite NPs, irrespective of the number or countability feature of the noun in the NP (Lyons, 1999).

4.3.2.1 Comparison of article use in the [+definite] context in English and Arabic.

Now, consider these three uses of the article in NPs in Arabic in the [+definite] context compared to the English context (see Table 4.6).

Table 4.6. Comparison of article use in the [+definite] context in English and Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Singular definite noun phrase	*The house* was huge.	*البيت* كان كبير.	*Al-beit* kan kabeer.
Plural definite noun phrase	*The houses* were huge.	*البيوت* كانت كبيرة.	*Al-byout* kanat kabeerah.
Uncountable definite noun phrase	*The sugar* was expensive.	*السكر* كان غالي.	*Al-sukkar* kan ghali.

As can be seen in Table 4.6, in all three cases of a singular, plural, and uncountable definite NP, use of *the* mirrored use of *al* in Arabic. The definite NPs in Table 4.6 display the use of *al* in singular (*al-beit* – the house), plural (*al-byout*- the houses), and uncountable (*al-sukkar*- the sugar) nouns. Therefore, the use of the definite article in both English and Arabic is not restricted to the number or countability feature of the noun in question.

However, there are important differences in article distribution between English and Arabic with respect to generics. Generics are defined as NPs in which reference is made to express generalisations about a class as a whole (Lyons, 1999). Here is an example in English:

(13) *The horse* is a majestic animal.

The NP in (13) intends to refer to the class of horses as a whole. Therefore, the definite article *the* is used to express *genericity* in English with singular nouns. A full treatment of the topic of *genericity* is available in the literature, but presenting a comprehensive survey of what it entails is outside the scope of the

present study. Generic referents are generally rare in the input available to English L2 learners and they are infrequent in spontaneous L2 production (Thomas, 1989). Nevertheless, illustrating some examples of the definite article in generic use in English could be helpful to understand the contexts in which Arabic learners of English might use the definite article in a non-target like way.

4.4.3.2.2 Comparison of article use with generic noun phrases in English and Arabic.

In Arabic, the definite article *al* is used with generic NPs. In fact, generic NPs are only expressed by *al-* in Arabic (Almahboob, 2009), which contrasts with English, as the latter allows generic readings for definite singular and indefinite singular, plural and uncountable NPs. The Arabic definite article can be used with singular, plural, and uncountable nouns in generic NPs. Table 4.7 presents some examples.

Table 4.7. Comparison of article use with generic noun phrases in English and Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Singular generic noun phrases	*The cat* has a tail	*القطة* لها ذيل.	*Al-kittah* laha thayl
Plural generic noun phrases	*Cats* have tails.	*القطط* لها ذيل.	*Al-kittat* laha thayl.
Uncountable generic noun phrases	*Milk* is a nutritious drink.	*الحليب* مشروب مغذي.	*Al-haleeb* mashrob mughathe.

4.4.3.2.3 Comparison of article use with adjectives in noun phrases in English and Arabic

Articles are used differently depending upon definiteness in Arabic compared to English with respect to premodification. In English, nominal premodification can

lead to definiteness. In such contexts, premodifiers such as superlatives (e.g., best, biggest, most beautiful) and adjective modifiers (e.g., same, only, last, next, first) give nouns a sense of uniqueness, indicating the noun is [+definite], which requires the use of *the*. The examples in (14) and (15) are illustrative:

(14) She is *the best student* in our class.

(15) He ate *the last cookie*.

In Arabic, adjectives agree with the noun they are describing regarding (in)definiteness. If the noun is definite, then *al* is used with both the noun and its adjective, whereas, if a noun is indefinite and followed by an adjective, *al* is not used with either the noun or the adjective describing the noun. Table 4.8 shows examples of where this can occur.

Table 4.8. Comparison of article use with adjectives in noun phrases in English and Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Definite noun phrase with adjective	The beautiful *city* was selected for the Olympics.	تم اختيار *المدينة* الجميلة للاوليمباد.	Tam ekhtiar *al-madina* al-jameela lilolimbad.
Indefinite noun phrase with adjective	Dubai is a beautiful *city*.	دبي *مدينة* جميلة.	Dubai *madina* jameela.

As can be seen in the above table, in the Arabic transcription, *al* is used with a definite NP that contains both the noun and its adjective, but it is not used with either the noun or the adjective describing the noun if the noun is indefinite.

Furthermore, Arabic uses *al* with some names of countries and cities but the use is idiosyncratic (Almahboob, 2009). For instance, some names of countries use *al* as in *Al-Bahrain*, and *al* can be used with cities such as *Al-Riyadh*. Yet, certain other names of countries never occur with *al-*, as in *Masr* (Egypt), and *Sooria* (Syria). Therefore, the article *al* can be seen as an article in Arabic, or part of a name.

4.4.3.2.4 Comparison of article use in indefinite and generic noun phrases in English and Arabic

Article use for [-definite] nouns is the same in English and Arabic in plural and uncountable [-definite] forms and only differs in singular form. It is easier to understand this contrast by first considering English. In English, indefinite NPs are marked by the indefinite article *a/an* when the noun is in singular form, and realised by *Ø* if the noun is plural or uncountable (Lyons, 1999). That is to say, the number and countability features of the noun in indefinite NPs play a role in the use of the indefinite article *a/an*. Table 4.9 shows examples of these contexts.

Table 4.9. Indefinite noun phrases in English.

Context	Example	Arabic example	Arabic transcription
Singular indefinite noun phrase	I am looking for *a girl*.	أنا أدور على *بنت*.	Ana adoer ala *bint*.
Plural indefinite noun phrase	I saw *students* going to the library.	شفت *طلاب* يدخلون المكتبة.	Shift *tulab* yedkhlon al-maktabah.
Uncountable indefinite noun phrase	She went to the store to get *milk*.	راحت للمحل تشتري *حليب*.	Rahat lilmahal tishteri *milk*.

In the examples in Table 4.9, the noun *girl* in the indefinite NP is in singular form, hence, the indefinite article is used. On the other hand, indefinite plural and uncountable nouns are expressed by *Ø* as in *students* and *milk* in phrases in the table. This shows that, contrary to the definite article *the*, the indefinite

article *a/an* is determined by the number and countability features of the noun in question.

In English, the indefinite article can also be used to refer to generic NPs with singular nouns. On the other hand, uncountable or plural generic nouns are expressed by *Ø,* as shown in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Generic noun phrases in English.

Context	English example	Arabic example	Arabic transcription
Singular definite generic noun phrase	*A horse* is a majestic animal.	*الحصان* حيوان ملكي.	*Al-hesan* hayawan malaki.
Singular indefinite generic noun phrase	*The horse* is a majestic animal.	*الحصان* حيوان ملكي.	*Al-hesan* hayawan malaki.
Plural generic noun phrase	*Horses* are majestic animals.	*الحصن* حيوانات ملكية.	*Al-husun* hayawanat malakiah.

As shown in Table 4.10, all of the examples refer to the class of horses as a whole. Thus, the indefinite or the definite article can be used in singular generic nouns, whereas plural and uncountable generic nouns are expressed by *Ø.* As shown previously, the definite article *the* can also be used with generic singular nouns, but not with plural or uncountable generic nouns.

In contrast, Arabic uses the definite article *al* in singular, plural, and uncountable generic nouns. In terms of indefinite articles, as stated earlier, Arabic does not have a morpheme for indefinite NPs. Singular, plural, and uncountable nouns in indefinite NPs are expressed by Ø in Arabic (Lyons, 1999). For this reason, indefinite NPs in Arabic are realised by Ø irrespective of the noun's number or countability. Table 4.11 illustrates how indefinite NPs in Arabic are expressed by Ø.

Table 4.11. Comparison of article use with indefinite noun phrases in English and Arabic.

Type	English Example	Arabic Example	Arabic Transcription
Indefinite singular noun phrase	My brother bought *a house*	اخوي اشترى بيت.	Akhoy eshtra *beit*.
Indefinite plural noun phrase	I bought *books* from the library.	اشتريت كتب من المكتبة.	Eshtret *kutub* min al-maktabah.
Indefinite uncountable noun phrase	Mohammed is eating *rice*.	محمد يأكل رز.	Mohammed yakel *ruz*.

As shown in Table 4.11, while in English, the indefinite singular noun phrase uses *a* (in *a house)*, but in Arabic, the word for house, *beit*, has no article. However, for the indefinite plural and indefinite uncountable NPs, both English and Arabic do not include an article. Therefore, it may be difficult for L1 Arabic speakers to remember to use an article in English in the indefinite singular NPs.

In summary, this section covered English articles as targets of study in L2 production. First, the background on theories on English articles was presented, along with a discussion of definiteness, specificity, and the ACP. Next, studies of L2 English article production by L1 speakers of different languages including Arabic were reviewed. Finally, this section ended with a comparison of the distribution of articles in Arabic and English, and various differences that might lead to errors in L2 English production of L1 Arabic speakers were highlighted.

The literature reviewed suggested that a study of article errors in L2 English learners speaking L1 Arabic would be feasible, in that it would produce enough variation in the DV in order to see sociolinguistic associations. The study aimed to identify linguistic features associated with target-like article production, and

how target-like production is influenced by sociological variables, such as L2 motivation and SES.

4.5. Methods

This section describes the additional data collection that took place to support the analyses in this chapter. First, it describes collecting written writing samples from participants. Next, it describes how these writing samples were processed into data. A description of how data analysis was conducted to answer the research aims is also presented.

4.5.1 Participants

A total of 147 students from the 207 respondents who completed the questionnaire as reported in Chapter 3 indicated their willingness to participate in future research in a designated section at the end of the questionnaire. This was the sample from which the participants for the written analysis was drawn. The sampling methodology ensured that data collected in the study and analyses completed could be related to measurements of L2 motivation described in Chapter 3.

Data from the sample supported two sets of analyses: the quantitative ones presented in this chapter, and the qualitative ones presented in Chapter 5. A total of ten data collection sessions were required: eight writing task sessions (to support the analyses in this chapter), and two interview sessions (to support the analyses in Chapter 5).

It was anticipated that resources would be available to analyse both quantitative and qualitative data from a maximum of 50 participants; therefore, 50 students were randomly selected from the pool of 147 students who had indicated their willingness to participate in future research, and an email was sent inviting them to take part in the current study. From prior experience, 100% participation was expected, but unfortunately, this was not the case. Of the 50 students e-mailed, only 34 students agreed to participate, and the other 16 students either declined or never replied (response rate 68%). Nine students out of the 34 participants withdrew from participation due to not being able to fulfill the obligations of the study. Recruitment was also constrained by the fact that final exams were nearing. After withdrawals, a total of 25 participants (final response rate = 25/50

= 50%) consented to take part in the study, completed all study activities, and were included in the analyses in Chapters 4 and 5.

Originally, it was felt that the limited recruitment of the first 50 students would yield a large enough sample for this part of the study. When the study started experiencing withdrawals, the researcher realised that it might have been better to target recruiting from the entire pool of students who participated in the data collection described in Chapter 3 who also indicated interest in participation in this next portion of the study.

After the successful recruitment of some of the student participants into this portion of the study, several students withdrew. When the researcher asked them why they withdrew, they explained there was a burden on participants to complete the number of sessions required in the data collection plan. Therefore, as a retention strategy, the researcher decided to amend the study protocol to incentivise the remaining recruited participants who complete all data collection sessions by having their final marks for a class of the student's choosing increased by a nominal amount (three points). The students who had completed all the writing sessions by the time of this decision were therefore not offered this incentive. To compensate for this, the researcher contacted these students and offered a letter of participation to compensate them for this inequity.

Unfortunately, although this change was approved by the C-REC before implementation, not only was this incentive only open to existing participants at the time of the change, not all class professors whose classes were selected by the students agreed to provide the incentive. Overall, 18 participants received the incentive.

As with the participant sample in Chapter 3, all 25 participants were in their second year of their English programme. They spoke Arabic as their first language and shared similar previous formal English-learning experience, with a minimum of seven years of learning English. A brief profile of each participant is presented in Appendix G, and a summary of the participants is displayed in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12. Summary of the participants.

Pseudonym	Age	English major
Ruba	21	Linguistics
Mashael	20	Linguistics
Tahani	21	Linguistics
Lamia	20	Linguistics
Abeer	21	Linguistics
Ahlam	20	Linguistics
Hanan	20	Linguistics
Aisha	20	Linguistics
Amira	22	Linguistics
Ashwag	20	Translation
Rasha	22	Translation
Raneem	22	Translation
Doha	20	Translation
Layla	21	Translation
Jawaher	21	Translation
Amani	20	Translation
Hala	21	Translation
Nada	19	Translation
Huda	20	Translation

Pseudonym	Age	English major
Lulwa	21	Translation
Hind	20	Translation
Nawal	21	English Literature
Uhoud	21	English Literature
Fahdah	19	English Literature
Nora	20	English Literature

4.5.2 Writing task design

The data collection that pertains to the analyses in this chapter was the writing tasks and associated SES interview (eight sessions). The data collection for the qualitative portion will be described in Chapter 5.

As mentioned earlier, to gather spontaneous L2 production from these L1 Arabic participants, writing tasks were employed. Writing tasks were chosen over oral interviews because if there is no interviewer, there is no need to control for the influence of this interviewer's identity or their speech proficiency on the learners' output. It was found in two of the studies reviewed that there was an impact of the interviewer's identity on the variation in L2 speech production, so this potential was eliminated by using writing tasks (Beebe, 1980; Young, 1988).

The writing tasks were designed based loosely on the Labovian approach to stylistic variation, which presumes that language users vary their linguistic production according to the different degrees to which they monitor their output across different social contexts (Labov, 1972). Therefore, the writing tasks were designed to elicit a range of styles by recreating these different social contexts through the type of question wording (see Table 4.13). The unmonitored writing task prompts were designed to elicit spontaneous output that was relatively unmonitored (i.e., vernacular forms) by tapping into personal everyday topics.

To create the monitored condition, the writing tasks were designed to elicit production on the dimensions of thinking about language. Alternatively, the writing tasks in the unmonitored condition were designed to get the participant not to think about language. They therefore asked about the learners' motivation to learn English, and other topics with respect to instrumental uses of L2 English. The wording and content of each prompt were discussed with a group of five female English-major students to ensure that the writing tasks were clear and appropriate. By designing both unmonitored and monitored tasks, it was believed that, stylistically, production elicited from the monitored tasks would include linguistic variants which would be reflective of the participant's motivation to learn English.

Table 4.13. The eight writing prompts and their distribution according to style.

Unmonitored task condition (vernacular style)	Monitored task condition (careful style)
a. What is the best vacation you have ever been on?	e. What can English language help you achieve in your society?
b. Tell the story of one of your best childhood memories.	f. What does learning English mean to you?
c. Write about what you normally do on your weekend.	g. How does your family support you in studying English?
d. Describe your favourite place to visit. This might be in Saudi Arabia, or abroad.	h. What kinds of challenges do you think young Saudi women face when they use English in their own country?

Although stylistic variation has been commonly investigated in spoken L2 output, which is understandable given that spoken features are salient markers for L2 identity (Labov, 1972; Polat and Schallert, 2013), this study is unique in that it attempts to elicit stylistic variation in written output. It gives an opportunity to observe whether stylistic variation can occur in written output, which may offer avenues for further research.

A common disadvantage in language production tasks, as opposed to controlled elicitation methods (e.g., a forced-choice task), is that it is difficult to ensure that the target forms occur frequently (if at all) in the data (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). Therefore, a total of four prompts were included under each condition, in the hope of eliciting enough NP tokens to conduct an analysis.

4.5.3 Data collection

The writing task sessions took place on the PNU campus. The times for administering the writing tasks were organised around each participant's study schedule. At the first session, after the participant was provided with study information and subsequently chose to consent to participate (see Appendices H and I), the participant was asked to complete a short interview about their families' SES (Appendix J). The interview was not recorded; I took notes while interviewing the participants. This gave me the opportunity to probe for further information as they answered the questions. Interviews typically took less than ten minutes and served as a warm up for the participant's first writing task by giving her the opportunity to reflect on her family background.

Both I and the participant were present at all writing task sessions, and participants completed one writing task per session. Tasks were randomised so as not to create an effect of order. At the beginning of each writing task session, I provided the participant with a pen and lined papers, and the writing task was presented on a card. I informed participants that I was not going to grade or otherwise evaluate their responses based on language form; rather, I said that I was interested in reading the content of what they chose to write in response to the question. Participants were told they had 30 minutes to complete the task, and were not discouraged from revising their responses before completing 30

minutes. Most participants took less than 30 minutes to respond to each writing prompt.

After the completion of the eight writing task sessions, each participant had provided eight written responses, yielding a total of 200 writing samples for analysis. This included 100 samples from the monitored task condition (questions e through h in Table 4.13), and 100 samples from the unmonitored task condition (questions a through d in Table 4.13) and comprised the corpus that was later classified.

4.5.4 Procedure for identifying and coding the article tokens

As a first step, I circled all identified NPs on the writing samples with the purpose of identifying all tokens that would be subject to coding. After all NPs were identified, the token was extracted word-for-word as it was written and copied into an Excel spreadsheet. One token was placed on each row of the spreadsheet. A total of 2,924 NP tokens were identified. Coding rules were applied to identify and record attributes of the NP and article use (see next section). The resulting values were entered into the spreadsheet in other columns.

Young (1996) found that even in the interlanguage, co-occurrence of certain restrictions between prenominal modifiers and articles could influence article production. Specifically, this refers to nouns or NPs preceded by possessives, numbers (including one), and quantifiers, such as many, and *wh*-words (Young, 1996). Of the 2,924 tokens, 1,044 met the criteria for removal, and were removed.

Coding was not completely straightforward, because classifying for definiteness and specificity involved some judgement. As both the analyst and the researcher, I am familiar with the backgrounds and L2 learning trajectories of the students I teach at PNU (which were not recruited for the study, but are similar to the participants with respect to their backgrounds). Hence, I was able to evaluate the learners' referential and discourse intentions in most NP environments. For instance, when a participant wrote "the university", I was familiar with this referent, given my knowledge that she is a student at PNU.

However, coding for specificity was especially challenging, since it largely depends on the context. For these reasons, two additional raters were recruited to judge the accuracy of the coding. Both raters are PhD holders and had experience with coding English articles in spontaneous production using the definiteness and specificity approach. They both use English as an additional language, are professors who teach L2 English to L1 Arabic learners, and had lived abroad in Anglophone countries for more than four years. The raters were told that the samples arose from spontaneous written production by L1 Arabic speakers learning L2 English, but no other information about the study design or participants was given. The raters were asked to use the same coding system followed in the study, which was explained to them (although they had experience of coding using this system in prior studies). Neither rater was aware of the other's assessment of the coding.

The two raters were provided the initial coding spreadsheet, and returned their feedback, pointing out the codes they felt needed revision. The codes were compared using Excel, and the result showed that the interrater agreement was 98 percent. The records where both raters and I agreed were included in the final analysis. Where either rater raised an issue, agreement between the two raters was examined. If the two raters agreed but disagreed with me, I accepted the rating of the two raters. Records with such issues were resolved in this way and included in the final analysis.

In the remaining scenarios, one rater agreed with my assessment, and the other rater disagreed. These cases were resolved by having a third rater conduct a blind coding of the contested contexts. The blind rater recruited for this task was a lecturer in PNU who uses English as her main language, and has experience with teaching and researching English semantics. The blind rater was instructed to code the contested NP environments using the same coding system as myself and the raters. If the blind rater agreed with me and the other rater, this value was taken for the token. However, if the blind rater agreed with the rater who did not agree with me, causing a tie, I made the choice to remove the NP, because it was too confusing to code. This happened ten times, so ten tokens were removed for this reason.

As described earlier, originally in the entire corpus, 2,924 tokens were identified. After the tokens were coded and rated, it was decided to remove 1,044 tokens based on the criteria described by Young (1996), and the ten tokens that were removed as a result of the rating process. This meant a total of 1,054 tokens were removed, leaving 1,870 tokens for the analysis.

In addition, tokens with NPs with second nouns were eliminated only when the first noun was preceded by an article. This was because of the difficulty in these cases of assessing whether the scope of the article includes the second noun. Therefore, in (16) *papers* was coded, but *files* was excluded.

(16) He gave me *the papers* and *files*.

Following Young (1996), this analysis did not apply to second nouns when the first noun required Ø marking. For instance, both *shows* and *movies* in (17) were coded.

(17) I like to spend my weekend watching *shows* and *movies*.

To summarise, although 2,924 NP tokens were initially coded, 1,054 (36%) were removed for the reasons described above, leaving 1,870 tokens available for analysis.

4.5.5 Token coding rules

Table 4.14 summarises the coding for each token.

Table 4.14. Token coding framework.

Variable	Description	Coding Levels
Token identifier	Unique identifying number for the token	Number
Participant identifier (Study ID)	Link to study identification number assigned to participant in Chapter 3 data collection	Number
Task identifier	Number indicating which task prompt was used	Corresponds to the alpha identifier in Table 4.13
Token	String of words comprising the noun phrase	Words
Target description	Classification of the target article in the noun phrase	non-target a/an non-target Ø non-target the target-like a/an target-like Ø target-like the
Obligatory classification of target	The obligatory classification of the target article in the noun phrase	Obligatory a/an Obligatory Ø Obligatory the
Production classification of target	Classification of how the target article was produced by the participant	Omission Overuse Substitution Target
Definite classification	Definite classification of noun in noun phrase in token.	+definite -definite
Specific classification	Specific classification of noun in noun phrase in token	+specific -specific
Countability classification	Countability classification of noun in noun phrase in token	plural proper singular uncountable
Premodified classification	Premodification classification of noun in noun phrase in token	Premodified noun Unmodified noun

As shown in Table 4.14, a few variables were collected for administrative purposes. First, each token was assigned a unique token identifier (token ID),

and each token was coded with the Study ID from Chapter 3 that the participant was assigned. The letter identifying the task (see Table 4.13) was included; this carried with it the information about the condition (monitored or unmonitored). The NP token itself was also stored as a phrase in a character-type variable. The coding took place by looking at the NP token stored in the column and assigning values to the remaining variables based on the token. The following sections explain how each of the coding levels was selected for each variable.

The current study is situated within a quantitative variationist framework that views linguistic variation as systematic and constrained by multiple factors. Therefore, the approach to coding the linguistic variants had to follow the principle of accountability (Labov, 1972) which involves identifying and accounting for all the occurrences of the linguistic variable, as well as non-occurrences of it.

It is important to note, however, that I chose to retain NP tokens containing a formulaic expression (e.g., the world, the future) in the analysis, although other researchers have excluded them (Huebner, 1983; Tarone and Parrish, 1988). They observed that these expressions seemed to be acquired as chunks, and therefore, one would not expect L2 learners to show any variation. My experience with the population in this study is that they do not acquire these formulaic expressions as chunks. Here is a typical example of what I have seen from my students (18):

(18) Learning English means *a world* to me.

This statement could not be influenced by an L1 chunk because the idiom *means the world to me* does not exist in Arabic. Because of this observation and the principle of accountability, I chose to retain these NPs in my dataset. As described earlier, after exclusions, the dataset contained 1,870 tokens for analysis. The following sections describe how the tokens were coded.

4.5.5.1 Article production

Table 4.15 describes the article production classifications.

Table 4.15. Article production classifications.

Target production classification	Target production subclassification	Production description	Example from corpus
Target-like	Target-like *a/an*	Target-like article production through the use of *a/an* in obligatory context	My parents brought me *a teacher* to help me.
	Target-like *the*	Target-like article production through the use of *the* in obligatory context	I enjoyed *the weather* in London.
	Target-like Ø	No article provided in noun phrase environments that required no article.	I don't see Ø *female translators* in conferences.
Omission	Non-target-like Ø	Omitting *a/an* in obligatory contexts.	English is *international language.*
	Non-target-like Ø	Omitting *the* in obligatory contexts.	I went to *kitchen* and put her toy on fire.
Overuse	Non-target-like *a/an*	Adding *a/an* in contexts that require Ø.	I love to talk to people with *a different nationalities.*
	Non-target-like *the*	Adding *the*in contexts that require Ø.	He didn't let me come in because *the children* are not allowed.
Substitution	Non-target-like *a/an*	Adding *a/an* in contexts that require *the.*	We all have *a same religion.*
	Non-target-like *the*	Adding *the* in contexts that require *a/an.*	I wore Baha clothes so *the TV interviewer* came to me and ask me about our culture.

As shown in Table 4.15, each token was classified according to four production categories: target-like, omission, overuse, and substitution. Because the overarching aim of the present study is to explore associations between L2 motivation and other social factors as IVs, and associate them with target-like article use as a DV, the four article production categories were collapsed and analysed as binary variables: target-like and non-target-like.

4.5.5.2 Definiteness, specificity, and obligatory articles

NPs were coded and classified based on the semantic features of definiteness and specificity as laid out by Ionin et al. (2004). Recall that definiteness is operationalised as the speaker and hearer's presupposition of the existence of a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP, whereas specificity is operationalised as a speaker's intention to refer to a unique individual in the set denoted by the NP and considers this individual to possess some noteworthy property (Ionin, Ko and Wexler, 2004). In addition to definiteness and specificity, obligatory articles were also classified. The coding framework for definiteness, specificity, and obligatory articles is already presented earlier in the chapter, in Table 4.5.

As can be deduced by reviewing Table 4.5, the act of identifying definite and indefinite NP environments in the written English corpus was straightforward. Because the obligatory classification was based on definiteness, this was also straightforward. However, identifying whether a NP was specific or nonspecific was problematic, as specificity is inferred from the context, and given the written nature of the task, the context was not always clear. For this reason, it was difficult at times to assess whether a NP denoted a specific or nonspecific referent. Consider this example (19) among those rated differently by different raters:

(19) English can help me make a lot of friendships with different *nationalities*.

In this NP, it is not clear whether *nationalities* refers to a specific nationality, or nationalities as a group. Using other raters was helpful in providing guidance as to the most probable interpretation.

4.5.5.3 Premodification

Additionally, NPs were coded for premodification, as research has shown that nominal premodifiers can significantly influence L2 article production (Trenkic, 2007). If a noun in a NP was not preceded by a premodifier, it was coded as unmodified, whereas in the case where a premodifier was inserted before the noun, the noun was coded as a premodified noun. To illustrate, *gifts* in (20) was coded as an unmodified noun, whereas *society* in (21) was coded as a premodified noun because of the position of the noun after an adjective.

(20) I saw all *the gifts* on the bed.

(21) My society is *a Muslim society*.

4.5.5.4 Countability

In addition to coding for semantic features, the countability feature for a given noun was coded into one of the following categories: plural, proper, singular, and uncountable. If a noun was countable, it was coded as either singular or plural. If a noun was either abstract (e.g., progress, development) or mass (e.g., water), it was coded as uncountable, since both types required the use of Ø in indefinite NP environments. Although uncountable nouns were difficult to assess at times, I relied on the context in which they appeared in the data. For instance, *progress* and *water* were coded as uncountable because they appeared as such as there was no number alteration in the data such as ‘progresses’ or ‘waters’.

4.5.5.5. Coding of proper nouns

As described under the last section, NPs were coded as plural, proper, singular or uncountable. NPs were encoded as including proper nouns if they were identified in the NP. NPs with proper nouns were coded as definite and specific entities that required Ø. For example, in the phrase *We traveled to Kuwait,* there is an obligatory Ø, and *Kuwait* is both definite and specific.

4.5.6 Coding the social factors

Quantitative social factors about these participants came from two sources: the L2 motivation measurements given in Chapter 3, and the SES interview from the first written task session. These are described here.

4.5.6.1 L2 motivation

To review, in Chapter 3, an instrument to measure L2 motivation was developed, and was the subject of validity and reliability studies. It was decided that the instrument was valid and reliable, and that three subscale scores would be calculated using the instrument: IL2, OL2, and PE.

In Chapter 3, these scores were calculated for all the participants. The participants in the current analysis are a subset of these participants. Therefore, their IL2, OL2, and PE scores were transferred from the Chapter 3 dataset into this analysis.

4.5.6.2 Other social factors

As described in Chapter 3, SES was found to have an influence on the connection between L2 motivation and SLA (Lamb, 2012, 2013; Iwaniec, 2018). However, in this sample, there is a prevalence of higher SES levels. It was decided based on previous research to gather evidence by asking the student to undergo an SES interview as described earlier at the first session (Lamb, 2012) (see Appendix J). A question was also included about how well their siblings spoke English.

As described earlier, I took notes during their interview, and asked probing questions to be able to classify their answers quantitatively. If the student reported their mother, father, or siblings did not know English, they were coded “cannot speak English”. If they could speak English, they were placed into one of two categories: some competence or high competence. If the participant reported that their parent could only make basic utterances in English, they were coded as “some competence”. If the participant reported that their parent could speak at length in English, they were coded “high competence”.

Because of the confusion over multiple potential siblings, the responses regarding siblings were not included in the analysis. With respect to education levels, both the mother and father were coded into the following categories: no education, school-level, or university-level, based on interview answers. If participants said their parents did not go to school at all, they were classified as “no education”. If they graduated high school or junior high but did not go

further, they were placed in the category “school-level”, and if they said either parent had a degree from higher education, they were placed in “university-level”. Higher levels of English attainment and education were assumed to be associated with higher SES (Davis-Kean, 2005). The other social factor included in the analysis is participants’ English major (English Literature, Linguistics, Translation) to observe whether study major is linked to learners’ target-like article use.

4.5.7 Data analysis

As described earlier, the intention is to associate linguistic and social variables to the production of target-like articles in this sample of L2 English learners. Therefore, as described earlier, the intended DV is target-like article production (yes/no). This provides an opportunity to identify all the IVs that would be hypothesised to be associated with this DV. These IVs are summarised in Table 4.16.

Table 4.16. Overall model specification.

Independent Variable	**Level of Factor**	**Type of Factor**
Definiteness	Token	Linguistic
Specificity	Token	Linguistic
Countability	Token	Linguistic
Premodification	Token	Linguistic
Ideal L2 motivation	Participant	Social - L2 motivation
Ought-to L2 motivation	Participant	Social - L2 motivation
Parental encouragement	Participant	Social - L2 motivation
Mother and father's English levels	Participant	Social - socio-economic status
Mother and father's highest level of education	Participant	Social - socio-economic status
Study major	Participant	Social

In variationist research, analysing the multiple factors that could potentially be responsible for the occurrence of linguistic variable forms is usually carried out

by multivariate analysis. This statistical approach provides the relative strength and influence of each factor on the occurrence of the linguistic variables (Kennedy, 2012).

The most prominent challenge with using multivariate statistics is to specify a model, code a corpus, and then fit the model according to the specification. As described in the Literature Review, earlier studies did not use multivariate statistics because of this challenge, and relied only on bivariate and descriptive statistics. The first attempt to solve this challenge was to take an approach using logistic regression. Logistic regression is typically used to predict the probability of a binary variable being in a particular state (e.g., an article being target-like vs. not target-like) (Bursac *et al.*, 2008).

The DV fitted in a logistic regression model is technically the log odds of the probability of the state being investigated (in this case, occurrence of target-like articles). As with any multivariate regression model, the goal of using software in the present case is to have the opportunity to enter IVs into the model, specify the DV, and have the software return the linear equation that defines the model. This equation will have one slope associated with each IV in the model, and the entire model will have one y-intercept. The analyst must evaluate the contribution of each IV to the model by the p-value associated with the slopes. Any slope without a p-value that falls below a preset α (typically 0.05) is not to be interpreted. In a logistic regression model, the slopes produced are on the log odds scale, so it is helpful to exponentiate these estimates for interpretation.

When using logistic regression to associate token-level IVs with a token-level DV, such as target-like production, it is possible to specify a model that attempts to try all token-level IVs in the model. The question of which IVs to retain or remove has been the subject of debate in the statistics literature about logistic regression, and in the linguistic literature. In the statistics literature, it is agreed that IVs that are not statistically significant (i.e., the p-value on the slope is greater than α) should not be interpreted. However, retaining IVs that are not statistically significant in the model is up to personal preference, although another overriding agreement in the statistical literature is that models should seek to achieve the best fit (Bursac *et al.*, 2008). This would suggest removing non-significant IVs from the analysis. Either way, there is agreement that

whether IVs are retained or not retained, the best model fit should be sought, and only IVs that are statistically significant should be interpreted.

The debate about model specification and interpretation, as well as issue or decision as to which variables to retain or remove from the model, is much more complicated in the linguistic literature, and this arises from an issue with software solutions that had been developed to automate using logistic regression for VARBRUL, or multivariate statistical analysis of a corpus using quantitative methods, as it came to be called (Johnson, 2009).

Many people have used these software applications to perform different linguistic analyses. Gorman (2009) for instance performed a study demonstrating that these software approaches had a few important flaws. First, they did not use a p-value to determine which slope estimates to interpret, and which ones should not be interpreted. Instead, a factor weight was calculated based on the slope that estimated the relative contribution of the slope to the model given the other slopes (Johnson, 2009). Sorting the slopes by factor weight allowed the analyst to order the slopes from contributing the most to explaining the variation in the DV to contributing the least. However, the absence of a p-value α cutpoint to interpreting the slopes that fall above this cutpoint would introduce a Type I error.

Also, it important to consider how IVs are entered into a regression model. Consider the multi-level factor of countability. In order to represent countability as regression IVs, a level of countability would need to be chosen as the reference level (e.g., uncountable), and then indicator variables would need to be made to represent all other levels (e.g., singular, plural, and proper). The resulting slope would represent the log odds of the probability of target-like article production for the particular indicator variable level (e.g., singular) compared to the reference level (in this example, uncountable). In order to compare singular to plural, a formula would need to be used. On the output, the reference group is not reflected; it is only reflected in the model specification. Therefore, the reference group does not have a factor weight associated with it because it does not have a slope. This makes it impossible to order the factor levels for categorical variable by factor weight, because they are being expressed in relation to other factor levels.

Another problem identified in Gorman's analysis (2009) was that the software packages developed may correctly execute a logistic regression model. However, the models that had been specified by Labov and others were hierarchical in nature, and the VARBRUL approach was not hierarchical. To better explain this, imagine that in the current study, one participant produced a large percentage (e.g., 50%) of the tokens in a study. Associating token-level IVs with a token-level DV, such as target-like article production, would be a fair analysis. However, when introducing a participant-level IV into this same analysis, such as participant's major, the tokens for all of this participant would then represent this major, and the major would be overrepresented.

Gorman (2009) actually did an analysis on linguistic data, and showed that the slopes for the social (participant-level) factors were inflated if the model was handled using the VARBRUL approach coded into the software applications. Gorman (2009) showed this by creating a hierarchical model, i.e., a type of fixed-effects model. In this model, the fact that tokens are at a lower level of the hierarchy, and participants a higher level, can be taken into account in modeling, and a set of slopes for "fixed effects" (participant-level IV slopes) are produced, along with a set of slopes for "random effects" (token-level IV slopes). It is through the hierarchical fixed-effects model that Gorman (2009) was able to show that using VARBRUL the way the software did overinflated the slopes for the social factors when analysing data at the participant level.

Using a hierarchical model is one way to fix this problem, but it is only possible if there are enough participants in the study, as the model is operating on two levels of hierarchy (Gorman, 2009). Because only 25 participants completed all sessions of this study, a different approach was used. In this approach, the hierarchical models are formed separately: one at the token level (using logistic regression), and one at the participant level (using linear regression). These will be described here.

4.5.7.1 Regression model specification

The first regression model used logistic regression (in the spirit of VARBRUL). It was determined that this model would not use the tokens from the NPs with

proper nouns (n=408), so they were removed from the analysis, leaving a dataset of 1,462 tokens to analyse. The proper nouns were removed because whether or not an article is required for proper nouns in English is not clear. Table 4.17 shows the differences between the proper noun NP tokens removed and the ones remaining in the dataset.

Table 4.17. Comparison of noun phrases with and without proper nouns.

Category	Level	All n, %	Proper noun n, %	No proper noun n %	Chi-square p-value
All	All	1,870, 100%	408, 22%	1,462, 78%	NA
Target-like	Yes	1,447, 77%	394, 27%	1,053, 73%	<0.0001
Definite	Yes	1,007, 54%	408, 28%	599, 41%	0.0009
Specific	Yes	1,108, 59%	408, 28%	700, 48%	<0.0001

Note: NA = not applicable.

As can be seen in Table 4.17, removing proper noun NPs for this analysis only reduces the size of the analytic dataset by 22%, leaving 1,462 tokens for analysis, and proper noun NPs contain disproportionately fewer [+definite, +specific] tokens that were produced in a target-like way ($p < 0.0001$, $p = 0.0009$, and p < 0;0001, respectively).

To answer the question of whether or not monitoring had an influence on the results, the tokens were split into two datasets: those with tokens from the monitored tasks (writing tasks e through h), and tokens from unmonitored tasks (a through d). Differences between IVs found to statistically significantly influence the DV between the models will shed light on the impact of the monitored condition compared to the unmonitored condition. Table 4.18 shows the model specification for both the monitored and unmonitored VARBRUL models.

Table 4.18. Model specification for VARBRUL models.

Independent Variable	Role in analysis	Coding
Target-like article production	Dependent variable (DV)	Target-like=1 Not target-like=0
Specificity	Linguistic independent variable (IV)	Specific=1 Not specific=0 (reference level)
Definiteness	Linguistic independent variable (IV)	Definite=1 Not definite=0 (reference level)
Countability	Linguistic independent variable (IV)	Uncountable=0 (reference level) Plural=1 Singular=1
Premodification	Linguistic independent variable (IV)	Premodified=1 Not premodified=0 (reference level)
Study Identifier	Control factor independent variable (IV)	Actual study identification entered as a class variable
Task Identifier	Control factor independent variable (IV)	One task was selected as the reference level, and each of the other three tasks were coded 1 in an indicator variable.

The logistic regression model will be fitted in R, and then reanalysed in Rbrul. The presentation of results will use Rbrul standards and output, but the interpretation of the model will follow a logistic regression interpretation rather than factor weights for the reasons given earlier.

4.5.7.2 Model specification for linear regression

For participants, the outcome of interest was still target-like article production, but a participant-level DV would need to be calculated in order for a regression model to be developed associating person-level characteristics (such as L2 motivation and major) with target-like article production. Therefore, an outcome

variable was calculated, which was the proportion of NP tokens produced by the participant that included a target-like article. This proportion used total tokens in the condition (monitored or unmonitored) produced by the participant as the denominator, and the total tokens with target-like articles as the numerator. The approach was similar to the logistic regression approach, in that one model was to be made for each condition, and the models compared to compare conditions.

The proportion of target-like variables produced is continuous, so therefore, a linear regression model must be used instead of a logistic regression model. That is because linear regression models predict continuous DVs. For linear regression models, a linear equation is still produced, but the slopes and y-intercept are interpreted slightly differently than for logistic regression models. In linear regression, the slopes are interpreted such that an increase in the value of the IV by one unit would be associated with an increase or decrease denoted by the magnitude of the slope in the DV.

This is somewhat difficult to interpret with categorical IVs. Imagine a set of IVs for major (Linguistic, Translation, and English Literature). One would be selected as the reference group (e.g., English Literature), and the other levels would have an indicator variable developed for them. Participants in the Translation major would be coded 1 in the Translation indicator variable, but not the Linguistic one; and participants in the Linguistic major would be coded with a 1 in the Linguistic indicator variable, but not the Translation one. The participants in the English Literature major would receive 0s in both indicator variables. This means in the regression model, the Linguistic and Translation variables would be entered, and their slopes would be in comparison to the English Literature majors. Imagine a slope for Linguistic of 0.11; this would mean that theoretically, a change from the English Literature major to the Linguistic major would be associated with an increase of 0.11 in the proportion of articles that were produced in a target-like way in the condition, which is the DV.

After the logistic regression models for VARBRUL for the unmonitored and monitored tasks were developed, they highlighted token-level characteristics associated with the production of target-like articles in the sample that could be

controlled for in the linear regression analysis (to prevent artificial inflation of the slopes for the social variables). These token-level characteristics could be calculated for each participant. For example, if tokens with plural NPs were found to be associated with increased target-like article production, each participant could be assigned a number, such as how many plural tokens they produced in the dataset. These linguistic features could be added at the participant level, and included as IVs in the regression analysis, as described in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19. Model specification for linear regression models.

Independent Variable	Role in analysis	Coding
Proportion of target-like articles produced	Dependent variable (DV)	Continuous variable
Linguistic variables calculated at the person level based upon knowledge from VARBRUL	Linguistic independent variables (IVs)	Continuous variables
Ideal L2 score	L2 motivation independent variable (IV)	Continuous variable
Ought-to L2 score	L2 motivation independent variable (IV)	Continuous variable
Parental encouragement score	L2 motivation independent variable (IV)	Continuous variable
Parental education score	Socio-economic factor independent variable (IV)	A composite score was developed where participant was coded as 0 for having neither parent at the university-level, 1 for one parent at university-level, and 2 for two parents at the university-level
Parental competency in English	Socio-economic factor independent variable (IV)	A composite score was developed where participant was coded as 0 for having neither parent at the some or high competence level, 1 for one parent at the some or high competence level and 2 for two parents at the some or high competence level.
Major	Social factor independent variable (IV)	English Literature=0 (reference level) Linguistic=1 Translation=1

Independent Variable	Role in analysis	Coding
Age	Social factor independent variable (IV)	Actual age in years (continuous variable)

To calculate participant-level linguistic variables, the dataset of 1,870 tokens was used (which included the proper noun tokens removed for the VARBRUL-style analysis).

Prior to conducting both regression analyses, extensive descriptive analysis was performed, and will be presented along with the regression models in the next section.

4.6. Results

A total 1,870 NP tokens containing articles of *a/an*, *the*, and Ø were included in the analysis (see Table 4.20).

Table 4.20. Total tokens for each article variable.

		Article type		
Relation to target	**All n, %**	**the n, %**	**a/an n, %**	**Ø n, %**
All	1,870, 100%	487, 26%	265, 14%	1,118, 60%
Target-like	1,447, 77%	423, 87%	198, 75%	826, 74%
Non-target-like	423, 23%	64, 13%	67, 25%	292, 26%

Note: Top row uses 1,870 as the denominator. Otherwise, percentages reported are column percentages.

Table 4.20 shows that, of the 1,870 tokens, the most common article type was Ø, making up 60% of the article NPs in the corpus (n = 1,118), followed by *the* (n = 487, 26%) and *a/an* (n = 265, 14%). In the entire corpus, over three-quarters of the NPs produced with articles were target-like (n = 1,447, 77%). NPs with *the* were more likely to be target-like (n = 423, 87%) compared to *a/an* (n = 198, 75%) and Ø (n = 826, 74%).

The total tokens produced by participant are summarised in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21. Total tokens by individual writer in monitored and unmonitored task conditions.

Task condition	**Monitored**						**Unmonitored**						
Article use	**non-target-like**			**target-like**			**non-target-like**			**target-like**			**total**
Writer	*a/an*	*Ø*	*the*	*a/an*	*Ø*	*the*	*a/an*	*Ø*	*the*	*a/an*	*Ø*	*the*	
Amani	--	2	--	--	11	5	--	3	1	1	7	10	40
Nawal	1	2	5	2	16	4	1	2	4	3	7	5	52
Jawaher	2	1	1	2	10	3	1	1	--	3	18	12	54
Layla	2	3	--	--	6	7	5	4	5	8	12	4	56
Lulwa	3	--	1	2	23	4	1	--	--	3	14	7	58
Abeer	1	16	--	2	15	2	--	3	1	4	10	4	58
Hanan	3	5	--	3	16	3	--	5	--	--	18	6	59
Hala	--	9	4	1	21	6	--	5	--	1	10	4	61
Mashael	--	--	--	7	23	2	3	3	--	4	21	3	66
Ruba	1	--	--	5	9	19	--	1	--	5	14	13	67
Tahani	--	1	--	6	18	4	--	--	--	13	13	14	69
Nora	1	2	--	2	26	3	--	--	1	8	12	14	69
Raneem	2	4	2	1	8	11	1	3	--	5	17	17	71
Amira	3	5	1	1	16	4	3	4	2	6	19	8	72
Aisha	--	16	4	--	9	10	2	12	1	7	14	6	81
Hind	2	8	3	2	31	9	1	6	--	3	15	6	86
Fahdah	1	5	8	3	22	14	2	2	--	8	16	6	87
Uhoud	1	5	--	5	22	15	--	2	1	9	12	16	88
Lamia	5	15	--	7	19	4	1	8	3	3	11	12	88
Huda	4	6	4	3	19	15	3	4	2	5	15	10	90
Doha	2	7	1	4	13	12	5	4	2	13	21	8	92
Ashwag	2	12	--	2	28	4	--	15	--	--	18	15	96
Rasha	--	20	1	2	29	1	--	18	1	1	22	2	97
Ahlam	--	2	2	16	26	10	1	1	1	4	15	28	106
Nada	1	28	1	1	29	8	--	12	1	2	10	14	107
Grand Total	37	174	38	79	465	179	30	118	26	119	361	24 4	1,870

As Table 4.21 shows, the participants varied in the distribution and frequency of their written article production, and some participants produced certain articles noticeably more often than others. It is important to bear in mind that the writers

responded to four writing tasks in the unmonitored task condition: favourite childhood memory; best vacation; weekend routine; and favourite place to visit. They also responded to four writing prompts in the monitored task condition: parents' role in learning English; what English meant to them; how learning English can help them contribute to their society; and the challenges faced in learning and using English in their country. Therefore, the variability in the tokens could be related to each writer's idiosyncratic understanding of the writing task.

4.6.1 VARBRUL-style results

After the proper noun tokens were removed from the dataset, 1,462 tokens were analysed using the VARBRUL multivariable regression approach described earlier. Table 4.22 presents descriptive characteristics of the tokens.

Table 4.22. Descriptive characteristics of the tokens in VARBRUL analysis.

Category	Level	All n, %	Target-like n, %	Non-target-like n %	Chi-square p-value
All	All	1,462, 100%	1,053, 72%	409, 28%	NA
Monitored	Yes	730, 50%	487, 46%	243, 59%	0.0870
Definite	Yes	599, 41%	424, 40%	175, 43%	0.0009
Specific	Yes	700, 48%	485, 46%	215, 53%	<0.0001
Countability	Singular	716, 49%	447, 42%	269, 66%	<0.0001
	Plural	376, 26%	321, 30%	55, 13%	
	Uncountable	370, 25%	285, 27%	85, 21%	
Pre-modified	Yes	589, 40%	374, 36%	215, 53%	<0.0001

Note: Top row uses 1,462 as the denominator. Otherwise, percentages reported are column percentages. NA = not applicable.

As shown in Table 4.22, in this sample, almost three-quarters (n = 1,053, 72%) of the tokens were target-like, and target-like status was not statistically significantly different depending upon monitoring condition (p = 0.0878). Non-target-like token status was statistically significantly associated with the token

being [+definite] (p = 0.0009) and being [+specific] (p <0.0001). Singular countability was associated with non-target-like status (p < 0.0001), as was pre-modification (p <0.0001).

After this descriptive analysis, the dataset was split into two datasets: one with the tokens from the monitored tasks, and ones with the tokens from the unmonitored tasks. A logistic regression model was applied using the model specification described earlier to each dataset using stepwise selection with α set at 0.05 (Bursac *et al.*, 2008). The logistic regression models are reported in Appendix K. These models were rerun in Rbrul, and the results from the Rbrul analysis are presented here.

4.6.1.1 Regression results for monitored tokens

Table 4.23 presents the results of the Rbrul model for the tokens in the monitored tasks.

Table 4.23. VARBRUL results for monitored tokens.

Role	Factor Group	Factors	Log Odds	Tokens	Proportion Target-like	Factor Weight
Covariates	Premodified	No	0.0000	406	0.78	0.607
		Yes	-0.8722	324	0.53	0.393
					Range	0.214
	Countability*	Uncountable	0.0000	512	0.65	0.597
		Plural	0.5936	200	0.84	0.574
		Singular	-0.7908	340	0.52	0.403
					Range	0.171
Control factors	Study ID	Study ID	-0.0019	NA	NA	NA
	Task**	Task g	0.6306	149	0.75	0.578
		Task h	0.3176	218	0.70	0.540
		Task f	0.2617	146	0.65	0.533
		Task e	0.0000	512	0.65	0.460
					Range	0.118

NA: Not applicable. The variables for definite and specific were not retained in the modeling process due to lack of adequate model fit. Control variables were retained in the model to improve model fit. *The estimate of factor weight, number of tokens, and proportion target-like reported for Uncountable was taken in relationship to Singular. **The estimate of factor weight, number of tokens, and proportion target-like reported for Task e was taken in relationship to Task h.

As shown in Table 4.23 and according to the model specification, the variables for Study ID and for the indicator variables identifying the tasks (Task e was the reference) were entered as control variables in the analysis. Although there have been recommendations to try interactions in VARBRUL models, no statistically significant interactions were found, so they were left out of the model (Gorman and Johnson, 2013). The indicator variables for *definite*, *specific*, *premodified*, and *countability* were entered into a model. Using stepwise selection, the p-value on the slopes for the indicator variables for *specific* and *definite* did not meet the criteria for retention, and the *specific* and *definite* variables were therefore removed and not interpreted.

Log odds estimates were exponentiated into odds ratios (ORs) for interpretation. After model-fitting, only three linguistic log odds slopes remained statistically significant in the models: the slopes for *singular* (vs. uncountable, -0.7908, $p = 0.0002$, factor weight 0.403), for *plural* (vs. uncountable, 0.5936, $p = 0.0250$, factor weight 0.574), and *premodified* (vs. unmodified, -0.8722, $p < 0.0001$, factor weight 0.393). The way that this can be interpreted using ORs (see Appendix K) is to first consider that the OR for *singular* vs. uncountable is 0.45 (95% confidence interval [CI] 0.30 to 0.69), which is a way of saying that tokens with singular NPs were 45% as likely as ones with uncountable NPs to be target-like. On the other hand, the OR for *plural* vs. uncountable was 1.81 (95% CI 1.15 to 3.07), suggesting that when a token was plural, it had 81% higher odds of being target-like compared to uncountable. In short, this suggests that when the token was singular, the students had a hard time producing the target-like article, and when the token was plural, they had a much easier time. Also, it is important to note that the OR for *premodified* was 0.42 (95% CI 0.30 to 0.59), showing that if an NP included a premodification, it was only 42% as likely compared to NPs without premodification to be target-like. This means that when students produced a premodified token, they were more likely to produce a non-target-like article.

The results of the monitored VARBRUL analysis suggested that tokens with singular or premodified NPs were less likely to be target-like, and NPs with plural tokens and NPs from Task g were more likely to be target-like. Therefore, the following continuous linguistic variables were selected for addition as IVs to

the participant-level linear regression analysis: total Task g tokens produced, total singular tokens produced in the monitored condition, total plural tokens produced in the monitored condition, and total pre-modified tokens produced in the monitored condition.

4.6.1.2 Regression results for unmonitored results

Table 4.24 presents VARBRUL results from unmonitored tokens.

Table 4.24. VARBRUL results for unmonitored tokens.

Role	Factor Group	Factors	Log Odds	Tokens	% Target-like	Factor Weight
Covariates	Countability	Plural	0.9840	176	0.875	0.621
		Uncountable or singular	0.0000	556	0.741	0.379
					Range	0.242
	Definite	Yes	0.3271	309	0.790	0.541
		No	0.0000	423	0.761	0.459
					Range	0.082
Control factors	Study ID	Study ID	0.0005	NA	NA	NA
	Task*	Task d	0.1050	204	0.824	0.513
		Task a	0.0000	528	0.754	0.487
		Task c	-0.4173	195	0.728	0.448
		Task b	-0.4498	169	0.734	0.444
					Range	0.069

NA: Not applicable. The variables for Singular, Specific, and Pre-modified were not retained in the modeling process due to lack of adequate model fit. Control variables were retained in the model to improve model fit. *The estimate of factor weight, number of tokens, and proportion target-like reported for Task a was taken in relationship to Task d.

As shown in Table 4.24 (and Appendix K), after application of modeling rules, in addition to the control variables, only the indicator variables for *definite* and *plural* met the criteria for retention in the model. The slope for *plural* was statistically significant at the preset α of 0.05 (p = 0.0001), but it was decided to keep *definite* in the model, even though it did not achieve the preset α, and only approached statistical significance (p = 0.0863). This was done because there were issues in finding an optimal model fit with the variables available.

For the IVs, *plural* was associated with the highest factor weight (0.621), and a log odds of 0.9840 (OR 2.68, 95% CI 1.63 to 4.40), meaning that tokens in the

unmonitored analysis that had a plural in them had approximately 168% higher probability of being target-like compared to those with uncountable or single NPs. *Definite* had the next highest factor weight of 0.541, and was associated with a log odds of 0.3271 (OR 1.39, 95% CI 0.95 to 2.02), meaning that tokens in the unmonitored analysis that contained a definite NP were 39% more likely to have target-like article production compared to tokens with an indefinite NP.

As with the monitored analysis, one of the control variables approached statistical significance. Using the reference of Task a, Task b tokens were associated with a factor weight of 0.444, and a log odds of -0.4498 (OR 0.64, 95% CI 0.38 to 1.08) with the slope approaching statistical significance ($p = 0.0914$). Task b was to tell a story of childhood memories, and this prompt was associated with significantly less target-like tokens than Task a, which was to describe the best vacation the student had taken.

As with the results from the monitored VARBRUL analysis, in the unmonitored analysis, plural tokens were much more likely to be target-like. However, in the monitored analysis, definite tokens were no more likely to be target-like than not target-like, while in the unmonitored condition, definite tokens were more likely to be target-like, although this did not rise to the level of statistical significance ($p = 0.0863$). Another difference from the monitored analysis was that in the unmonitored analysis, premodification did not significantly influence target-like production. But as with the monitored analysis, one of the tasks – Task b – was associated with lower likelihood of target-like output. For these reasons, in the participant-level regression, the following linguistic variables were calculated for each participant to try as a continuous IV in the regression model: number of Task b tokens, total definite tokens, and total plural tokens.

4.6.2 Linear regression results

Before calculating the participant-level linguistic variables to try as IVs in the linear regression models, the tokens with proper nouns were returned to the dataset, so the entire dataset of 1,870 tokens was used to calculate these variables. With examples from the actual NPs in the corpus, it was believed that this method of calculating the variables would be more accurate. Examples of

NPs with proper nouns that did not require the use of *the* in English but occurred with *the* in the data:

(22) My father told me to learn English to explain *the Islam* to others.

(23) We travelled to *the Kuwait* last vacation.

As described earlier, a separate linear regression model was run for the monitored and unmonitored tasks. For each model, the experimental unit was the participant (n = 25), the DV was the proportion of tokens produced with target-like articles in that condition (monitored vs. unmonitored). Each model follows the specification described earlier, and the linguistic variables added as IVs in each model were described under the VARBRUL results.

4.6.2.1 Linear regression monitored results

Table 4.25 presents the final linear regression model following the model specification.

Table 4.25. Monitored linear regression model.

Covariate	Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value
Intercept	2.00	0.97	2.06	0.0618
IL2 score	0.00	0.00	-0.39	0.7031
OL2 score	0.00	0.00	0.08	0.9397
PE score	0.00	0.01	0.24	0.8181
Number of parents with university degree	0.00	0.05	-0.05	0.9597
Level of parents' English competency	0.12	0.06	2.08	0.0600
Linguistic major	0.10	0.10	1.00	0.3370
Translation major	0.11	0.11	0.94	0.3644
Age	-0.06	0.05	-1.25	0.2335
Task g total tokens	0.01	0.01	1.31	0.2139
Total singular tokens	-0.01	0.01	-1.95	0.0745
Total plural tokens	0.00	0.01	-0.15	0.8850
Total pre-modified tokens	0.00	0.01	-0.28	0.7861

Note: IL2 = Ideal L2 motivation score, OL2 = Ought-to L2 motivation score, PE = parental encouragement score.

As shown in Table 4.25, none of the IVs are associated with slopes that are statistically significant at α = 0.05. The only two variables that approach statistical significance are level of parents' English competency (p = 0.0600) and total singular tokens (p = 0.0745). The slope for level of parents' English competency covariate was 0.12, meaning that an advance of one unit in parental English competency is expected to be associated with an average increase of 0.12 in the proportion of target-like articles produced. The slope for total singular tokens is -0.01, meaning that every extra singular token produced was associated with a 0.01 decrease in the proportion of target-like articles produced on average.

4.6.2.2 Linear regression unmonitored results

Table 4.26 presents the results of the linear regression model for the unmonitored condition.

Table 4.26. Unmonitored linear regression model.

Covariate	Estimate	Standard Error	t-value	p-value
Intercept	0.77	1.03	0.75	0.4665
IL2 score	0.00	0.00	-1.13	0.2788
OL2 score	0.00	0.00	0.17	0.8693
PE score	-0.01	0.01	-0.46	0.6526
Number of parents with university degree	0.05	0.04	1.15	0.2694
Level of parents' English competency	0.05	0.05	0.88	0.3948
Linguistic major	0.06	0.12	0.49	0.6324
Translation major	0.02	0.14	0.18	0.8609
Age	0.01	0.05	0.10	0.9182
Task b total tokens	-0.01	0.01	-0.84	0.4144
Total definite tokens	0.00	0.00	0.78	0.4505
Total plural tokens	0.00	0.01	0.18	0.8588

Note: IL2 = Ideal L2 motivation score, OL2 = Ought-to L2 motivation score, PE = parental encouragement score.

Although Table 4.26 presents the best-fitting model considering the r-squared variable, none of the covariates approached statistical significance. This means that none of the variables in the model helped to explain the variation in the DV, which was the proportion of target-like article production.

4.7 Summary

The analysis identified that the linguistic feature of plural NPs was associated with target-like production in NPs produced in both unmonitored and monitored tasks. Singular tokens were associated with non-target-like production more so than uncountable tokens. This is consistent with what has been found about Arabic to English transfer effects described earlier. It was predicted that for English [-definite] and plural or uncountable noun phrases, Arabic speakers would be more likely to produce a target-like article due to transfer effects from Arabic.

In both conditions, one writing task was associated with more target-like production than the others, suggesting an effect of the prompt for the writing task. Also, surprisingly, the unmonitored condition was associated with more target-like article production. This is consistent with what has been found by Tarone and Parrish (1988), in that the communicative demands of the task facilitated target-like article production. These demands involved including specific markers necessary for nouns in order to keep the story they were telling coherent (Tarone and Parrish, 1988),

Sociological variables like L2 motivation and SES influencing target-like article production were not seen in final linear regression models. In the monitored condition, there was a non-statistically significant positive association between parental English competence and target-like article production, but in this case, parental English competence may not serve as a marker for SES, but rather as an instructional exposure that might improve the quality of English use. Other sociologic variables that were hypothesised to be statistically significantly associated with target-like article production in this sample were not found to be significant.

As was shown in the literature review, studies of sociological influences on L2 language production have a number of design challenges, and it is difficult to tell if variation in production relate to the L2 learner's struggle with proficiency with the language, or are reflective of sociological variables such as identity (Drummond, 2010; Polat and Schallert, 2013; Nagle, 2018). In my analysis, none of the sociological variables was statistically significant. This may mean that L2 motivation, SES and other social variables do not have significant influence on L2 production. However, it may also mean that these variables do have influence, but they were not measured properly.

As described earlier, in Figure 4.1, I hypothesised that other factors influencing SLA along with sociological variables like L2 motivation would ultimately have an influence on target-like variable production, but I was not sure how these influences related. Here, in Figure 4.2, I present my revised model based on the knowledge gained from my analysis in this chapter.

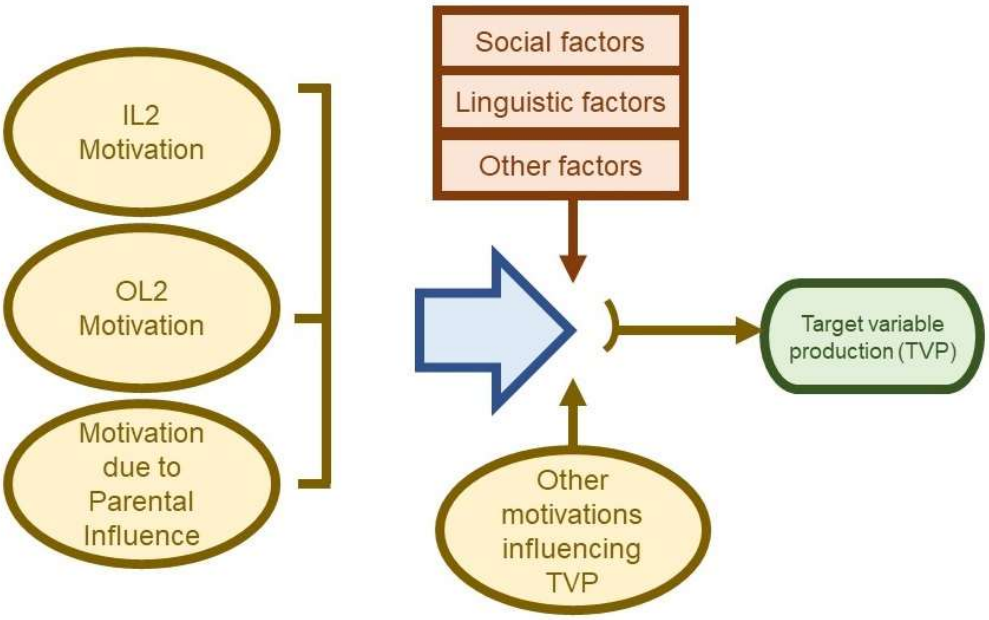

Figure 4.2. Revised hypothesised relationship between L2 motivation and variation in L2 production in young college-age L2 learners.

As shown in Figure 4.2, the revised model takes into account that although some participants may weight target-like production highly as an SLA goal, others may not. Therefore, it may be possible for a person with high L2 motivation to also have low motivation specifically for target-like production. If individuals like those were mixed with individuals with high L2 motivation who place a higher priority on target variable production, this situation would theoretically create the quantitative results seen in this analysis, where no statistically significant effects are found.

To close, this chapter reviewed the literature on sociolinguistic variation research, and how it has been conducted in L2 learners of English. It described how a group of 25 L2 English learners were sampled from the participants studied in Chapter 3, and underwent writing tasks that formed a corpus that was coded for quantitative linguistic analysis, using the VARBRUL programme. Utilising VARBRUL and multivariate linear regression, I was able to identify linguistic characteristics of the NP token associated with target-like article production, but sociolinguistic variables, specifically L2 motivation variables, were not significantly associated with target-like article production. This may represent the diversity of SLA goals inherent in this particular sample. While some highly motivated students may place a high priority on achieving target-like production in English, others may be highly motivated toward other SLA goals. These types of subtle differences in L2 motivation may not be measurable using a quantitative instrument. Therefore, Chapter 5 reports a qualitative study design to more deeply probe at these different types of L2 motivations, and better explain their relationship to L2 English achievement as well as L2 English target-like production.

Chapter 5: A situated approach to L2 motivation

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the qualitative data analysis process and findings of this research. The chapter is divided into two main sections. First, it will introduce the person-in-context relational view of L2 motivation (Ushioda, 2009), which was the analytical framework that was used to analyse the interview data. It then describes the interview data collection procedures, data analysis, and findings.

5.1.1 Person-in-context relation view of L2 motivation

As pointed out in Chapter 3, Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context view of L2 motivation emerged in the current socio-dynamic phase─ the phase that emphasises situated and dynamic aspects of L2 motivation (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011). Ushioda (2009, p. 215) developed her person-in-context relational approach to understand how motivation emerges "from relations between real persons, with particular social identities, and the unfolding cultural context of activity". This is a significant development, since linear approaches tend to treat L2 learners as idealised abstractions in relative isolation from their context. Therefore, a person-in-context view of L2 motivation represents a conceptual departure from traditional views of learners with fixed identities, and the learning context as a stable background variable that might influence motivation. This approach views motivation as dynamic, fluid and individually-specific to each learner.

Drawing on poststructuralist notions of identity and language learning (Norton Peirce, 1995; Pavlenko and Blackledge, 2004; Norton and Toohey, 2011), Ushioda (2009) argues that, as far as L2 motivation is concerned, we need to conceive of learners as real persons with complex identities (e.g., Saudi, female, Muslim, daughter). Being an *L2 language learner* is likely to be just a single facet of their social identity or sense of self. A person-in-context viewpoint offers ways to see language learners' identities as manifold, fluid, and a site of struggle, which at times may intersect and/or conflict when one identity becomes incompatible with another. Moreover, a relational perspective extends

beyond the individual to consider contextual influences. That is to say, motivation does not emerge in a vacuum, but develops through interaction with various events over one's life history. From this perspective, motivation is constructed, and emerges from an evolving network of relationships and interactions, which are characterised by idiosyncratic elements and complex social relationships.

From an analytical perspective, a person-in-context approach seems to provide a general theoretical guideline, rather than a proscription for the specific use of analytical tools for exploring socially contextualised aspects of L2 motivation. Ushioda (2009) calls for the employment of theoretical and analytical frameworks that may support a person-in-context analysis of L2 motivation. In essence, establishing what is meant by *context* when analysing motivation from a person-in-context framework becomes a key challenge for researchers. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) and Ushioda (2015), researchers need to find a principled way of defining and delimiting what is relevant to 'context' for purposes of analysis.

As shown in Chapter 4, quantitative variationist sociolinguistics provides a useful framework to support a person-in-context analysis of L2 motivation. This was done by examining how the participants performed monitored and unmonitored situations, because it reflected upon their own self-concept and how they wanted to present themselves. In particular, where style and identity construction are concerned, a key motivational interest is to explore the extent Saudi female learners were encouraged or enabled to construct a particular social identity that they would like to express using article forms (e.g., an educated Saudi female vs. using English for service encounters), and how their identity shifts across social contexts.

5.1.2 Influence of significant others

The person-in-context view focuses on the influence of context, and Chapter 3 discussed how significant others can influence L2 motivation. In presenting the analysis of the interview data, it was felt that presenting more information about

the influence of relationships on L2 motivation as well as SLA should be highlighted in more detail.

Shoaib and Dörnyei (2005, p. 31) consider relationships with significant others as one of six “motivational transformation episodes”. Depending on the degree of intimacy, contact time with learners, and social backgrounds, significant others are salient social resources for learners’ cognitive and affective development. Parents and teachers are usually considered the most common significant others that shape students’ motivation (Williams and Burden, 1997). However, the potential contribution to L2 motivation and SLA has widened to include parents, siblings, extended family members, and social others in the community (Lamb, 2012, 2013; Pham, 2016).

5.1.3 Influence of significant others in Saudi Arabia

Alhawsawi (2013) studied how Saudi parents’ involvement shaped learners’ learning experience in higher education. He found that the level of parents’ educational background shaped, directly and indirectly, the way students approached their language learning in higher education. Parents with a university education were able to pass on to their children appropriate study skills, such as practising English, helping with homework, and providing educational resources. Also, these parents were able to discuss topics about English with their children, and talk about the importance of being a well-educated person.

Although not all educated parents in the study were directly hands-on, they nevertheless served as role models for their children (Alhawsawi, 2013). On the other hand, the study found that students from homes with less-educated parents struggled to find sources of support outside school to improve their learning and progress in their academic studies. For this reason, their learning experience was negatively affected. Al-Qahtani (2015) studied the motivation of Saudi male sojourners, and found that learners pursued their studies because it was their parents’ decision. In reality, in Saudi, the parents’ decision is led by the father’s decision, given the male-dominated nature of Saudi society. The students’ decision to study English was also shaped by the advice and

encouragement of their extended family members, such as uncles and cousins, to study abroad and improve their future job prospects (Al-Qahtani, 2015). The author observed that, given the sociocultural and religious norms of Saudi society, these students internalised their significant others' decisions as their personal aspirations. In other words, the views of their community shaped their ideal L2 selves, causing a merging between the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self.

To summarise, in the context of L2 motivation and L2 learning, significant others provide students with different affordances for language learning. In Saudi Arabia, significant others who exert influence are mainly the Saudi family; although the parents (especially the father) arguably exert the most influence (Al-Qahtani, 2015). The reviews above are just part of a body of research which presents the relationships between significant others and language learners as either direct or indirect, and discusses their impact on language learning motivation. While there is plenty of research on the relationship between the role of significant others in learner motivation in other contexts, little attention has been paid to the role significant others play in shaping Saudi female learners' motivation.

The purpose of the analysis in this chapter was to determine the socio-cultural factors that shape these Saudi female English learners' L2 motivation and identity development, and to relate this to what I have already discovered about the relationship between L2 motivation and target-like production through the analysis in Chapters 3 and 4.

5.2 Methods

This section presents the methods used to collect and analyse the interview data in this chapter. First, the development of the semi-structured interview questions is described, along with data collection, transcription, and analysis. At the end, I reflect upon my role as the researcher. This is because I am a Saudi female researcher who learned English, and now teaches it at PNU as an instructor.

5.2.1 Selection of semi-structured interview approach

Interviews can be “an indispensable component of mixed methods research” (Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011, p. 237) since they help generate qualitative data that can be integrated with quantitative data to obtain “a rich holistic analysis of motivation-in-context” (Ushioda and Dörnyei, 2012, p. 402). In the context of this study, interviews were used to elicit in-depth descriptions of learners’ motivational trajectories, motivational experiences, and contextual influences. Therefore, interviews were chosen as the data collection method for the qualitative component of the present study.

For the purposes of this study, the interview design was semi-structured (rather than structured or unstructured) since semi-structured interviews allow researchers to maintain their focus on key objectives while giving respondents leeway to expand and provide more details. In addition, semi-structured interviews allow the respondents to comment on related issues that the researcher might not have thought about (Rose, McKinley and Baffoe-Djan, 2019). They allow other themes to emerge and provide more in-depth understanding about the phenomena.

5.2.2 Data collection

As described in Chapter 4, the participants in this portion of the study were the same participants who took part in the writing tasks and other data collection in Chapter 4. In the Chapter 4 data collection, participants met with me eight times to undergo writing tasks, the data of which were analysed in Chapter 4.

For the qualitative data collection in this chapter, I met with each student at least once, and interviewed them using a semi-structured interview approach (see Appendix L). The interviews took 30 to 40 minutes. The interviews were conducted in Arabic in order to allow the participants to express their views without difficulty. I met with all of the students except two in my office; those two I interviewed by phone because due to their educational obligations, they were too busy to meet with me face to face. With some students, I met an additional time to get clarification on their answers.

I recorded every interview. Since the participants had been consented already prior to the writing tasks in Chapter 4, I immediately started asking questions from the interview guide. I asked the questions in Arabic, and the aim was to speak in Arabic, although occasionally, an English word would be said. When interviewing students in my office, the students could not see the notes I was taking, as my arms were obscured by the desk. I also recorded and took notes for the participants I interviewed on the phone.

At the time of recruiting the participants, I had not been teaching for two years as I had time off to complete my doctoral studies. Because of this, none of the participants had met me before, so when we were introduced, I explained I was an instructor at the college who is seeking my doctorate. This was helpful for the interview, because they could refer to aspects of the curriculum and the learning context with which I would be familiar. However, it did create awareness in them that I was an authority figure in the university and not their peer, although I had no direct authority over them.

The interview guide in Appendix L involved a list of prepared questions that aimed to elicit greater discussion about the learner's motivational and social reasons for learning English, and the role of family influence. These questions are listed in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1. Semi-structured interview questions.

Question Number	Question in English	Question in Arabic
1	What does learning English mean to you?	ماذا يعني لك تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية؟
2	Was it your personal desire to major in English or someone else's? Please give reasons.	هل كانت رغبتك الشخصية ان تتخصصين باللغة الإنجليزية ام هي رغبة غيرك؟ اذكري الاسباب.
3	Do you imagine yourself using English in the future? Where? Or why not?	هل بامكانك ان تتصورين نفسك وانت تستخدمين اللغة الانجليزية في المستقبل؟ أين؟ أو لم لا؟
4	How is learning English important for your future? In what ways?	كيف تربطين اهمية اللغة الانجليزية بمستقبلك؟ ما هي الجوانب؟
5	What do you think would happen if you did not learn English? What would be the consequences?	ماذا تعتقدين سيحدث ان لم تتعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية؟ ماذا ستكون العواقب؟

Question Number	Question in English	Question in Arabic
6	Is there any pressure on you to study English? Please give reasons.	هل تشعرين أن هناك ضغط لتعلم اللغة الإنجليزية؟ اذكري الأسباب.
7	Do your parents have a role in your language learning? What is their role? Or why not?	هل والداك لهم دور في تعلمك للغة الإنجليزية؟ ما هو؟ أو لم لا؟
8	Do you have siblings that speak English? Do you use English with them?	هل لديك أشقاء يستخدمون اللغة الإنجليزية؟ هل تمارسين اللغة معهم؟
9	Do you experience any difficulties in learning and using English in your country? Please give reasons.	هل تواجهين صعوبات في تعلم و استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في بلدك؟ اذكري الأسباب.
10	How do these difficulties influence your English language learning?	اذكري كيف الصعوبات تؤثر على تعلم للغة الأنجليزية.

To conduct the semi-structured interview, I began by asking the first question in the interview guide. The participant would then respond, and I would probe the response. By this, I mean I would repeat back part of their response, and ask them to elaborate or provide more details. The probing was done focusing on what the respondent said in order to elicit more information. Because of the completeness of the responses, sometimes other questions in the semi-structured interview list got answered inadvertently. As a result, the semi-structured interview at times seemed to resemble a conversation or discussion, but a careful listening of what I said during the interviews will show that most of my words were taken either directly from the questions or from what the respondent had already said.

Participants were encouraged to expand their answers in order to elicit as extensive information as possible about each of the points discussed. The open-ended nature of the questions facilitated the collection of substantial information about the salient motivational forces behind the learners' L2 learning. The discussions were focused on understanding the phenomenon of students' L2 motivation while remaining open to other issues being raised. After the interviews, I reviewed the recordings, and added to my notes, which were mostly in Arabic.

5.2.3 Transcription and translation

The recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim in Arabic, so that all the material was available in textual form for data analysis. The transcriptions were imported into a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software package called Atlas.ti for Windows version 8 (*ATLAS.ti*, 2017) which helped me manage, sort, and code the large volume of textual data.

The interview analysis was conducted on the transcribed interview texts in the source language, which was Arabic. A decision was made not to translate the entire material into English, due to the large amount of time and effort required. Also, since the original interviews were in Arabic, conducting the thematic analysis in Arabic would be truer to the text. The analysis was performed in Arabic, and the themes were derived from the Arabic using my English notes. The excerpts from the original Arabic transcripts that were translated into English for this study are present in Appendix M.

Themes were identified and reviewed, and will be presented in the Results section. The parts of the interviews that were to be used for reference and quotation were selected from the original Arabic text. These excerpts were the only parts of the Arabic that were translated into English. As an Arabic speaker who developed competency in English, I translated the interview excerpts from the original Arabic transcriptions into English myself. This was a challenging task, particularly due to the vast linguistic and cultural differences between Arabic and English (Alhawsawi, 2013). Therefore, it was necessary to translate the meanings of sentences and statements rather than individual words in order to preserve the essence of what the interviewees were trying to convey. For issues of trustworthiness, two bilingual academics checked the excerpts to verify the accuracy of translation. This was done by providing the academics the set of Arabic sentences and statements along with some context, and asking them to provide English translations. These translations were compared against the ones I had done. There were no meaningful differences in their translations, so I felt the translations I was using were trustworthy.

5.2.4 Data analysis

I chose to do a thematic analysis of the textual data, as described previously, because I could use this approach to summarise the thick descriptions provided into themes (Holliday, 2015; Ushioda, 2020). The first stage of data analysis involved pre-coding the data. At this stage, the researcher aims to make sense of first impressions by noting them down and reflecting on them. Although this stage is preliminary, it enabled me to read and re-read the data very carefully to get a general sense of the participants' views and experiences. It also helped pave the way for more structured coding processes (Dörnyei, 2007; Holliday, 2015)

The next stage involved coding the data; converting relevant segments (words, phrases, sentences, paragraphs) into codes and examining how these codes were distributed throughout the data. The codes were partly derived from the L2 motivation literature and the motivational constructs used in the questionnaire, and partly from new ideas that emerged from the data. After that, the codes with similar characteristics were grouped under a broader theme, understood to be "a pattern in the information that at minimum describes and organises the possible observations, and at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon" (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 161). Finally, the codes were reassessed to refine and interconnect the important themes that emerged from the data.

5.2.5 The role of the researcher

Beinhoff and Rasinger (2016) maintain that when researchers collect data in a way that involves interacting with participants, those researchers' own identities become a fundamental part of the data collection and generation process. Consequently, I had to be aware of the potential advantages and disadvantages surrounding my multifaceted identity during the interviews. On the one hand, I realised that my role as an instructor who is a bilingual Saudi female researcher interviewing female students in their academic institution about their motivation to learn English could influence the participants to present themselves favourably, by giving desirable answers rather than their own personal views. On the other hand, my position as an insider to the community (i.e., sharing the

same language, culture and gender as the informants) helped me establish a rapport with the participants, which in turn encouraged them to express their personal views freely. I was also aware that my positionality as an insider could influence the data interpretation.

5.3 Results

The final codes derived from the analysis are presented in Table 5.2

Table 5.2. Final coding framework.

Hierarchy	Code	Code definition
1	Family-related	Includes reference to any member of family (mother, father, siblings, etc.). Includes anything about their roles, influence, opinions, or anything the respondent spoke as an opinion about them. Includes attitudes about members of family, and family members attitudes about respondent (with respect to English or any other topic).
2	Saudi identity-related	Anything to do with Saudi values (with respect to parents, role in family, Islamic values, other cultural values).
3	Self-concept	Anything to do with the way the respondent sees themselves, or about how anyone could see themselves. Statements or expressions of self-concept that may or may not be related to English or L2 learning.
4	Job-related	Related to having a job or occupation, both for the respondent and anyone else. This includes learning or using English for the purposes of a job.
5	Learning environment	This includes anything to do with formal education experience (teachers, curriculum, classroom activities associated with L2 learning, etc.). Does not include learning outside of the classroom or formal education programme.
6	L2 learning outside classroom	This refers to any discussion of English learning outside of the classroom or a formal programme. This includes mentoring by others in the community including family, and practising English outside of school.
7	L2 attitudes	This refers to any expression of an attitude toward English, whether it be from the respondent, or about another person's attitude toward English. Can be positive, negative, or more complex attitude.

As is seen by the framework, there were seven themes that ultimately arose from the analysis. The column titled Hierarchy refers to the order in which codes were assigned. Originally, the plan was to apply two codes to any concept that

fell under both codes, but this was not a useful framework for summarising these themes, as most of the concepts had multiple codes. Therefore, it was decided to take the most commonly-occurring code, which was Family-related, and place that at the top of the hierarchy, then Saudi-related as the next most common, and so on. This is how the order of themes was determined.

Appendix N gives a summary of the final level of coding which was translated into English. Each subcode was given a primary code from Table 5.2. If there were two codes that applied to the subcode, they were both attached, but they were attached in a hierarchical order as seen in the Hierarchy column in Table 5.2. For example, if a phrase was coded as both Family-related and L2 attitudes, Family-related would be the primary code, because it was higher on the hierarchy than L2 attitudes.

Each of these themes was associated with different insights into the L2 learning and L2 motivation of these students. The insights are described here.

5.3.1 Family-related

Looking at Saudi Arabia as a collectivist society, it was expected that the learners' motivation to learn English would be strongly related to the social obligations imposed on these learners by their parents or other important people in their life. As mentioned previously in Chapter 2, Saudi people emphasise group membership, e.g., maintaining family relations, and have high levels of integration, collaboration, and interdependence (Al-Johani, 2009; Alrahaili, 2018). In Saudi Arabia, as described in Chapter 2, members of the extended family – not only the parents - have a lot of influence over children, even when these children are young adults attending university. Unlike Western cultures, it is not expected for a Saudi woman to develop a completely independent career without support from her family, especially her father. While fathers have equally strong influence on their sons, because the sons have more opportunity, the father will often guide the son to study abroad instead (Al-Qahtani, 2015). The father in the Saudi family is the leader, and daughters may be close to their fathers, while at the same time regarding them as a formal authority. Therefore, their reputations with their fathers are of utmost importance, beyond the other members of the family.

5.3.1.1 Influence of family on participant's choice of an English major

When asked about their career aspirations, most of the participants said that they avoided focusing on a career choice and are learning English mainly because it was a requirement in the labour market. The data suggest that university-educated fathers shaped their daughters' approach to learning English, namely to prevent personal difficulties in the future such as becoming jobless. They also seem to exert pressure on their daughters because of the high expectations they place upon them. Therefore, the first area where family influence was clearly seen was with respect to actually choosing a programme of English to study, or choosing a different occupational direction. The participants highlighted the role their parents played not so much in influencing their decisions of what they ought to become in the future, but rather in encouraging them and supporting them to reach their own goals. They rarely warned their daughters about the negative outcomes of not learning English, or set expectations for their daughters to follow.

The daughter's choice of selecting a major in English generally had to do with her having already developed some English proficiency. For example, **Jawaher** noted in her interview:

> *My parents didn't encourage me to major in English because they believed I had already knew (sic) English. They tried to convince me to choose another major. But I'm glad I chose English because it's the best choice for me. Now they have changed their minds and became proud of me since they saw me studying hard and doing my best.*

Jawaher was independently motivated towards learning English, and brought her parents along with her. Here, she shows an example where ideal future selves are not clearly articulated, and the parent is not showing a strong influence in any particular direction for or against learning English. This suggests that **Jawaher's** level of L2 motivation might be lower. From the instrument subscales in Chapter 4, her Ideal L2 score was 27 (out of a maximum of 50), her Ought-to L2 score was 15 (out of a maximum of 45), and

her Parental Expectations score was 3 (out of a maximum of 15). These scores suggest lower L2 motivation. Yet, for the writing tasks in the monitored condition, her rate of target-like article production 78%, and it was even higher at 94% for the unmonitored writing tasks. **Jawaher** is a case of someone who clearly expresses she is motivated to learn English, and shows it through achieving target-like article production, but she does not seem motivated by the image of future selves given her subscale scores.

5.3.1.2 Parental influence on choice of English major

On the other hand, some parents pushed their daughters to major in English. This was mainly the case for parents who did not possess a higher level of education or English competence. It may seem that these parents realised the concrete benefits of learning English for their daughter's future, but the reality is much more complex than this. For instance, in a much more agentive style if compared with the previous speaker, **Amani** starts her report in the first person:

> *I chose to study English because it was both my desire and my parents'. My parents supported me, because they themselves couldn't learn English and they wanted me to learn it.*

From **Amani's** account, there is a sense of social responsibility to follow her parents' expectations since her parents did not have the opportunities to learn English, which was a motivator for her. This could speak to her concept of the Ought-to L2 self – a daughter who achieves fluent L2 English speech because she owes it to her parents, who worked to provide her this opportunity that they did not have.

Several participants commented that they felt they had to follow their parents' desires, even if they wanted to pursue a different major, because they explicitly stated that gaining their parents' approval was more important than following their aspirations. Again, this reflects the high status of parents in Islam; Islamic teachings advise sons and daughters to show their parents utmost respect and never go against their desires. This puts the participants in a social position in which they cannot resist their parents' wishes. For instance, **Hala** initially

wanted to major in law, but her father disapproved of her choice and encouraged her to major in English instead. She commented:

> *I didn't choose law because my father's approval is more important to me. After I graduate, I want to complete my master's in English. If I don't get accepted in the programme because of my low proficiency, I would have no problem choosing a field other than English.*

Due to the social responsibility placed upon these students, many stated that they were torn between choosing what they wanted and choosing what their parents wanted, so they found a compromise. They would try to make a show of interest in the direction of what their parents wanted, as **Hala** suggested with trying to get accepted into the programme. However, it is clear that she was not very enthusiastic or motivated about the programme.

5.3.1.3 Challenges to studying English

The data revealed that students studying English who were in **Hala's** position faced difficulties in their academic courses, and contemplated changing their major or dropping out. Their motivation toward L2 learning was low, and mainly came from trying to fulfil their parents' wishes. However, even with such low L2 motivation, their feeling of responsibility towards their parents was a motivational force to encourage them *not* to change their major. As an example, **Nawal** reported that her mother pressured her to major in English. She explained that she dislikes her English courses because she was experiencing difficulties, which was affecting her school performance, and led her to consider changing her major many times. **Nawal** said in her interview:

> *I want to become an English teacher in the future because it's not a tough profession to achieve. It's not an impossible dream because it doesn't require high English proficiency. I just have to make the lessons enjoyable for my students.*

Nawal clearly expresses an expectation that learning English should be easier for her. She says it is not a difficult job in which to excel because English teachers do not actually need very high proficiency, in her opinion. This

provides one point-of-view of Saudi English grade school teachers – that they are not very competent at English, and just need to make the lessons fun. Her future L2 self was ill-defined, and seemed to be a reflection of past English teachers she had had when growing up.

Nawal's case shows tension between what her mother wants for her, and what she wants for herself. To cope with this tension, these students developed ideal L2 selves that were qualitatively similar to their current L2 selves. This accommodation creates a small discrepancy between the two self-dimensions, making it more manageable and achievable, because it requires less effort to minimise the gap between the two self-dimensions (Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015).

Once students chose to enter an English programme, many also felt enormous pressure to perform. For many students, living up to their fathers' expectations was a serious responsibility, despite the tension they experienced due to the perceived discrepancy between their own expectations and their father's high expectations. They revealed that they were motivated not because they wanted to avoid punishment, but rather, to prevent disappointing their fathers. For example, **Amira** exhibited a strong desire to live up to her father's high expectations of her as a student of English. She stated in her interview:

> *Whenever I get a bad grade, I conceal it from my father. Not because I'm afraid of him, but you know how fathers want their daughters to excel. He wants me to be excellent in English. To me, I think it's normal to get a bad grade because I don't expect to perform well all the time.*

Here, **Amira's** L2 identity is challenged due to her and her father's conflicting expectations. This puts pressure on her to learn English to please her father. Because most of these fathers were required to use English in their jobs (e.g., in business meetings), they commonly reminded their daughters about the difficulty of finding a job if they did not learn English, rather than highlighting the rewards of learning English. For example, **Doha** said:

> *…my father would always remind me and my siblings that English is needed everywhere we go. So if we didn't learn it, we wouldn't succeed in life.*

Fathers exerted unique pressure on these students, but they also felt pressure coming from other members of their families. Sometimes, this pressure would be direct, in that family members would encourage the students to learn English. But the pressure could be indirect, or a result of the participant's own feeling of social responsibility. This is because some students saw their role as learning English so they could help other family members, especially those who did not know English.

Most participants who had university-educated fathers with high English competence reported that their fathers were directly involved in their language development by always looking for strategies to improve their English such as practising English together and building their daughters' vocabulary. Because most of these fathers worked in environments where they were required to use English (e.g. international corporations), they constantly warned their daughters about the negative outcomes of not learning English instead of helping their daughters see the rewards of learning English. When asked about their future English-related aspirations, most participants said that they were learning English to avoid personal difficulties in the future such as becoming jobless.

Many participants with involved, university-educated fathers avoided imagining themselves in future desired end-states out of fear that they would not achieve them due to low linguistic abilities; they preferred to keep them as vague as possible for their own personal security. Therefore, it might have been difficult for learners with directly involved fathers to develop their future L2 identities with the vividness necessary for these identities to serve as self-guides. For instance, the participants **Abeer**, **Hala**, and **Amira** produced the lowest percentage of target-like articles (64%, 71%, 75%). They have university-educated fathers, but reported significant pressure to learn English to secure their personal safety or to meet their parents' high expectations. They may be having trouble envisioning a clear future L2 self due to this tension between what their parents want and what they feel they can reasonably do. By contrast, participants **Ahlam, Nora,** and **Tahani** reported parents who are both university-educated, and have a similar learning history and motivational profiles. However, they did not feel pressure from their parents, as their ideal L2 selves seemed perfectly aligned with the ought-to L2 self generated by their

parents. They were the participants who produced the highest proportions of target-like article tokens (93%, 94% and 99% respectively). But they were also not necessarily very motivated.

When students who are not enthusiastic about learning English are placed in this situation, they may see of helping others as a social burden, because of the perceived disparity between their current abilities in English language, and their relatives' high expectations. Even so, they would be motivated to help family members with English inquiries, because failure to meet their expectations would mean exposing their weakness in English and losing face in their social community. This reflects the collectivist nature of Saudi society in the sense that maintaining strong family relations and a positive self-image are socially emphasised (Al-Johani, 2009).

For instance, **Lulwa** said doubtfully:

> *…my family members refer to me because they probably see me as an English expert.*

To contextualise this quote, it is important to remember that the choice for the student to study English is more of a family-based choice than an individual one. Therefore, the family then has an expectation that the work of speaking English in the household (e.g., for service encounters) will fall to the specialist who was designated to major in it, which is the daughter. Many participants expressed this situation, and explained how this family-constructed identity for the daughter can be a significant source of pressure, especially when they are starting the English programme and have low proficiency.

Nonetheless, she acknowledged that she had only a basic English proficiency, which put significant pressure on her to meet her family's expectations and maintain a positive self-image and avoid being humiliated. She reported:

> *When I first started university, family members started to ask me to help them with English. I told them that I didn't know because I was still in my first year of study. They told me: "Why did you major in English, then?". They thought I knew everything now that I'm studying English, and I want to be perceived in that way. I don't even tell them that I use a*

> *dictionary when I help them just so they think I know everything they ask me.*

It can be seen how **Lulwa's** identity as a beginner learner of English is overvalued in her social environment, as the members of that environment expect her to be competent just on account of having chosen to major in English. This seems to motivate **Lulwa** to invest diligently to construct an identity that is congruent with what her family members expect of her despite the pressure brought with it. This may explain **Lulwa's** motivation to learn English.

These students often stated that their family members (e.g., aunts, uncles, cousins) expected them to be highly knowledgeable in English, and sought them for English-related support, such as translating reports and helping with English assignments. The participants typically reported that they were motivated to assist family members for various yet interrelated social gains, such as gaining social approval, showcasing their accomplishments, garnering social respect for themselves and their parents, and maintaining a positive self-image.

Some participants stated that their family members sought their help, even though they initially disapproved of their choice to major in English, as they thought it was an unsuitable choice for their social identity as future mothers and caretakers of their families. This gives an example of how Saudi culture can weigh traditional Saudi identities against the social gain that can be seen in English language learning. Many Saudis are open to the construction of a new identity of the accomplished and educated Saudi woman. The praise and celebration of their accomplishment appeared to be a motivational source for this group of learners. To illustrate, **Ruba** said in her interview:

> *My sister flaunts my English ability by offering others my English expertise. One time at our house, she called me to help out our cousin with her English assignment. All my aunts and uncles were present. I helped her and I became the centre of attention. Everyone was praising me for knowing English. I felt*

> *proud of myself and for my family. This motivates me to study harder and become better in English.*

This shows that students may be motivated to study English and speak fluently not only to impress members of their family, but to increase the reputation of their family in the community. A family's social standing in their community could be increased by a daughter's English proficiency and her willingness to help support her family through using her English skills. This would increase the value of the family socially.

Given the high status of parents in Islam, these participants have developed an ought-to dimension to make their parents proud of their achievements since they received their parents' praise for their achievements, and because it also elevates the family. Parents enjoy advertising their children's accomplishments, especially their English achievements and use as part of their profession. In her interview, **Tahani** stated:

> *My parents did not show much interest in my language learning, but they were proud of me after I majored in English. Now that I teach level one English in my department's multilingual club, my father told all our relatives about it.*

It is interesting to observe that over all the interviews, the words for *parents*, but especially the word for *father*, came up often. The fact that these learners developed an ought-to L2 orientation after they received their parents' praise highlights how motivation is dynamic and relational, rather than static and linear (Ushioda, 2009).

In some cases, the family clearly wanted the student to learn English; in others, the student sought to persuade the family, who eventually agreed. In the cases where university-educated members of the family already knew English, participants would report that members would actually help them with their English learning. In the sample, if any of the students had a university-educated mother, the father was also university-educated, so these parents were inclined to help their daughter with English language learning. This pattern reflects the social status of Saudi women in that tertiary-educated women prefer to marry

someone from the same educational background and socioeconomic status in order to increase their chances of leading a better life (Assulaimani, 2015).

Most of these university-educated fathers also spoke good English and used it in their occupations, so they were able to use practical strategies in an effort to develop their daughter's English language proficiency. For example, **Abeer** described the strategy adopted by her father to improve her language. She stated:

> *My father often asks me: "what is the meaning of this word in Arabic?". He would ask me about the meaning of a word on the spot and I have to immediately give him the correct answer. But if I don't know the answer, I just tell him that I don't know.*

Some students suggested that they experienced tension in developing their L2 identity because of a mismatch between their own expectations and their fathers' high expectations, reflected in their active and strict approach. For example, **Mashael** mentioned that her father used to pressure her to learn English when she was young by making her watch English programmes and then asking her to give him a summary of the programme in English. Moreover, she reported that her father constantly corrected her English mistakes in a critical way when they would practise English together, which in her view reduced her confidence to use English with her teachers and classmates out of fear of making mistakes. Since fathers are regarded as the more authoritative figures due to the patriarchal nature of the family structure (Al-Johani, 2009), **Mashael** reported that she could not resist her father's strategy or challenge him about his debilitating approach. She said:

> *…my dad is like that with everyone. He is controlling. He even decided me and my brother's future, like where we're going to work.*

In Saudi culture, the mothers are the ones who help their children with homework. Therefore, outside of these particular anecdotes, for the most part, fathers did not play a structured role in helping their daughters learn English. Fathers generally have reduce time for interaction with children in Saudi Arabia, because they are the public figure in the family and are the one to generally be

out of the house (Al-Qahtani, 2015). It might be that these fathers relied on their educated wives to take care of their daughters' language learning given their expertise and background knowledge. Yet, most participants did not report their mothers were actively-involved either. Rather, these mothers facilitated their daughters' language learning by providing moral support and encouragement, and exposing their daughters to English material at home such as media, books, and online resources.

There were qualitative differences between households where there were parents with higher education and/or English proficiency, and households where parents had a lower level of education, and were not English proficient. In both types of households, expectations were high for their daughters learning English. However, in the lower SES households, these expectations were highly instrumental toward career or practical applications, such as helping family members. Two participants mentioned earlier, **Amani** and **Hala**, were from low SES families. As shown by their quotations, the type of pressure they received from their parents was to study English because they had the opportunity, but aside from that, their parents did not apply any specific type of pressure. By contrast, **Jawaher** and **Tahani**, also mentioned earlier, were from high SES families. In the quotes from **Jawaher**, she reports having an intellectual tussle with her parents about studying English, and was able to eventually convince them to support her direction. She was able to get them to support her when she demonstrated early evidence of English proficiency. **Tahani** reported in her quotes how her father brags to relatives about her activities speaking English and teaching in her department's multilingual club. This shows that in higher SES households, the parents seemed to see themselves in their daughter, and feel a sense of involvement in their university success, which may have had even more impact than those in the lower SES households.

5.3.2 Saudi-identity related

The data analysis also revealed that some participants regarded the socioeconomic reforms in the tourism sector and international investment as a motivational force to learn English for the purposes of informing English speakers about their country and its achievements. These participants perceived English as a tool to contest misconceptions about the *true* Saudi

identity to the rest of the world. Their English-related patriotic aspirations focused on defending and promoting the image of their country.

Yet ironically, the majority of participants also reported that learning English is necessary to be able to communicate with non-Arabic service workers in various public contexts in Saudi Arabia, such as hospitals, restaurants and shops. This is due to the fact that Saudi Arabia draws a significant portion of its workforce (e.g., restaurant staff, nurses, physicians) from foreign countries such as the Philippines, India, and Bangladesh (Al-Seghayer, 2011). In many of these workplaces, English is the official language, so the workers all speak English. These two features of Saudi Arabia – that it is becoming a global tourist destination, and that many of the service workers are English-speaking – will undoubtedly impact Saudi identity in the future. Saudi identity will need to find a way to accommodate being a fluent English speaker while also being a member of the mainstream Saudi community. This seems reasonable, as Saudi's Vision 2030 emphasises evolving to meet global standards, and this would include learning English.

During the interviews, some participants showed a strong desire to develop an ambassadorial identity that shows tourists and others outside Saudi culture the competence of Saudi youth. Many stated their desires to work in organisations that would send them overseas with the aim of engaging in cultural dialogue and knowledge sharing in an international community. They constructed their ideal L2 selves as competent users of English who are promoting the *true* image of the Saudi identity by presenting their country's social and economic accomplishments in an international forum that can be consumed by all.

For these participants, the motivation to connect with an international community did not emerge in a vacuum, but rather was shaped by the media or past interactions with English users. During our discussions, **Doha** mentioned that she used an online language learning tool that offered direct communication with English tutors over a video chat. She said that she often needed to correct some of her tutor's "shocking misconceptions" about Saudi culture. Her experience seems to have had a strong impact on her desired L2 self:

> *I want a job that will allow me to travel and talk to a big audience about my culture, like traditions, social norms, anything, and share my interactions with English speakers and how I changed their shocking misconceptions about my culture.*

For other participants who did not envision travelling or leaving the country, the aspiration to inform others about the *true* image of Saudi culture and religion arises from the perception that the current economic changes would expand the expatriate community of foreign investors and tourists. These participants reported their motivation to learn English as a vehicle to renegotiate their religion and Saudi identity. For instance, **Hanan** revealed that she aspired to work in tourism to have direct encounters with Western people. She envisioned engaging in a healthy cultural dialogue with Western tourists to negotiate her Saudi identity. **Hanan** commented:

> *Most Western countries have inaccurate perceptions about our religion, Saudi Arabia, and Arabs in general. So, working in tourism would be a good opportunity for me to present the positive aspects of our society to Western tourists and change their perceptions.*

It appears that the current economic and social reforms are a salient motivational factor in the learners' accounts for their career and national aspirations. The participants were motivated to grab the opportunities to construct unique, competent, and ambassadorial identities, and expand on the narrower social identities which are imposed on them by their social circle of family and relatives.

Some participants highlighted other instrumental needs for learning English that did not relate to future job prospects, but did relate to negotiating daily life in Saudi Arabia. As **Nora** reported:

> *English is a necessity in every aspect of our daily life, not just in the workplace.*

Interestingly, some participants who made this point seemed to be motivated to learn English for service encounters because of their experience with helping other Saudis (e.g., strangers and relatives) in service situations, by acting as

their interpreters, or placing orders on their behalf. **Uhoud**, for instance, reported that she once helped an elderly Saudi woman communicate with a non-Arabic hair stylist in a beauty salon by acting as her interpreter. She stated:

> *I was glad that I was able to help the woman, but I was surprised that she didn't know any English. Doesn't she need it? How does she run errands or go about her day not knowing any English?*

From the above extract, there is an undertone of the participant's motivation to construct the identity of the competent user of English who was self-sufficient and did not need help with English from an outsider. Similarly, **Doha** mentioned that her younger sisters do not speak English and rely on her to communicate on their behalf with non-Arabic restaurant staff. She was motivated to take these opportunities to construct her L2 identity as a self-sufficient woman who did not need help with English. She stated:

> *When my sisters ask me to order on their behalf, I feel sorry for them that they don't know English. So I place orders on their behalf just to let them see what it's like to be independent.*

The students' motivation to learn English for service encounters seems to be to construct their identities as agents who are self-sufficient in their everyday affairs. While this may be about identity construction, it also has an instrumental component. Since speaking English as a daily activity in Saudi offers an opportunity to help and impress others, it can also be seen as part of the newly evolving Saudi identity.

5.3.3 Self-concept

Aside from a theme of Saudi identity, some participants made specific connections between L2 motivation, target-like production of English, and self-identity as an ideal English speaker (Drummond and Schleef, 2016; Nance *et al.*, 2016). The issue was not whether they engaged in target-like production; rather, it was that they connected their ability to engage in target-like production in particular situations to their self-concept and identity. These participants perceived that because they were majoring in English, they were expected to possess high linguistic abilities.

These students aimed for target-like variants when speaking in English with highly proficient Saudis (e.g., a proficient relative or a classmate) in order to construct the identity of an English-major student who could speak flawless English. According to the participants, however, this overwhelming pressure drove them to concentrate on their spoken production, which led them to make gaffes, despite their effort to avoid mistakes. **Ahlam,** for instance, reported her motivation to avoid making mistakes when using English with her proficient uncle. She mentioned:

> *My uncle speaks good English and every time we meet, he wants me to speak to him in English. So, I pay attention to my speech because if I make a mistake, he'll correct me, and I feel embarrassed when making mistakes. But even though I pay attention to my speech, I still feel nervous and make mistakes.*

While the students' motivation to construct the identity of the English-major student manifested in their avoidance of making mistakes, the data showed that they shifted their identity in contexts where they thought they may not be judged for their mistakes. For example, **Fahdah** reported:

> *I don't have to worry about not making mistakes when I'm talking to a classmate who is at the same level as me, because we can make mistakes together when we use English. But I try to check what I say, like my grammar and sentence structure, when I'm talking to a proficient classmate. But I still get nervous and make mistakes.*

These findings suggest that while the participants aimed for target-like linguistic forms, especially when speaking with certain proficient speakers, this was not always the case, depending upon the pressure they felt toward target-like production. While this pressure would not be felt with written production as was evaluated in Chapter 4, which could be checked for errors, it could influence speech, which is spontaneous. This supports Type 3 variation approaches to identity and variation (Nance *et al.*, 2016) which aims to demonstrate that learners are active agents in their use of linguistic resources and exploiting these for socio-stylistic purposes. These resources include self-monitoring. One

way to interpret this is that the level of participants' focus on target-like forms represents a stylistic expression of the interlanguage between L1 Arabic and L2 English (Bayley, 2005).

5.3.4 Job-related

Some learners said they saw learning English only as a tool that would enable them to find a job easily. This reflects the fact that both local and international organisations in Saudi Arabia prefer to hire English-speaking Saudi applicants (Al-Seghayer, 2011). The participants perceived that English was currently a necessary skill for the labour market, and were aware that an adequate level of English proficiency is essential, given the competitiveness of the job market. Conversely, participants recognised that a low command of English might lead to personal difficulties, such as not finding a job, which would have a negative impact on sustaining their motivation to continue learning English. This kind of instrumental orientation has been conceptualised traditionally as the learner's desire to learn the L2 for the practical purposes, such as employment, although the practical purpose of simply being able to communicate in English with English-speaking service workers in Saudi was also previously mentioned.

In sentiments revealed under the job-related theme, the majority of the participants expressed their desire to learn English to access novel fields of employment. As described in Chapter 2, the Saudi Vision 2030, created by the crown prince of Saudi Arabia Mohammad bin Salman, has established several country-wide goals related to economic and societal advancements for the Kingdom by the year 2030. Amongst the many developments outlined in the plan, the inclusion of women in the modern vision of the country's evolution is a major point of interest. Saudi Arabia's Vision 2030 has created new opportunities for women to enter into the workforce within a myriad of employment venues. It has also addressed barriers in women's everyday life such as lifting the decades-old driving ban and abolishing male guardianship as mentioned in Chapter 2.

Through developments such as these, Saudi women have been granted greater access to occupations that were previously exclusive to male members of

society. The participants' future career-desired end states were mirrored in their optimism for the encouraging steps in the Kingdom's social and economic changes leading to women's participation in the workforce without constraints. Two participants expressed that working in mixed-gender environments should no longer be the normative obstacle it currently is, especially in the eyes of their parents, in their hunt for jobs, given the social and economic changes taking place in Saudi society. Optimistic undertones are found in this excerpt from **Layla**.

> *We are now in an era that supports women. No one has a say in our business that we cannot pursue jobs. We are a modern nation now and everything is pro women.*

Although **Layla** expresses ideas around Saudi-identity, as well as ideas around her ideal future self as a type of self-concept, she is specifically talking about these ideas in relation to her future job prospects and occupational participation. The job becomes the instrumental focus around these various themes. It is important to draw a line between women's acquisition of L2 English in Saudi Arabia and the current track toward modernisation of the country. Before Vision 2030, in general, there was a low priority on putting women through higher education because jobs were not available. Working outside the home was not the role intended for women at the time. But with Vision 2030, a new role for women is seen, and this has been paralleled by the Saudi educational system. Because Vision 2030 focuses on internationalising Saudi operations, it has a keen focus on English adoption as an international language (Swaantje, 2018). So when women are seeing themselves as L2 English speakers in a career, potentially playing an ambassadorial role, they see a type of women's liberation and women's right in Saudi Arabia.

Although job prospects are opening up for women in Saudi, the situation is still dynamic, and women are often faced with challenges when trying to choose exactly what to study such that they end up in a suitable profession. Hence, they would often target the type of job they want after they graduate, and then would choose their higher educational experiences (including college majors, internships, and other training) around these goals. Among the most sought-after jobs for the participants were working as translators for hospitals or

international companies, at conferences, for embassies, and working in jobs in the field of tourism.

5.3.4.1 Attitude towards traditional careers

The participants also expressed their desire to reach out for new opportunities granted to them by the current social and economic reforms inasmuch as to avoid 'traditional and conventional' jobs (as stated by **Lulwa**) such as teaching, which is known to be a feminine profession in the Saudi context (Al-Hazmi, Hammad and Al-Shahrani, 2017). The participants' desires to pursue professional careers other than teaching reflects a clear break from the past when Saudi women preferred to work in the education sector because of the fully ensured gender segregation complying with Islamic values and cultural norms (Al-Hazmi, Hammad and Al-Shahrani, 2017). These participants expressed a desire to break from traditional and conventional careers in line with the changing Saudi social norms and Saudi women's contemporary empowerment for full participation in the workforce. Further, English teaching was not seen as a very difficult or high level profession, as expressed earlier by **Nawal**.

For this group of learners, the current changes in the Kingdom represent more than just changes in policies; they represent an opportunity to break out from the identity that her social environment had prescribed for them as future English-degree holders. **Ahlam** expressed this sentiment in her interview:

> *All my relatives assume that I want to become an English teacher. They don't even ask me if I want to pursue something other than teaching. But this is going to change now that there are more career choices for women.*

Current economic changes in Saudi Arabia are salient factors in shaping learners' future aspirations and identity development. As mentioned previously, Saudi Arabia is undergoing rapid socio-economic reforms with the launch of the Vision 2030 which seeks to decrease the country's sole dependence on oil, diversify the economy, and explore more sustainable business sectors to ensure the economy's wealth in the long term. The inclusion of well-educated Saudi women in the workforce and the expansion of their professional

opportunities in a wide range of fields are important features of re-balancing the economy.

The participants in this study understood that for them to access these professional opportunities, they needed to acquire high English proficiency. The participants expressed their optimism that these changes would allow them to develop future professional identities that would defy the societal expectation that every Saudi woman (at least those in English majors) is bound to become a teacher. Indeed, the latter occupation, is perceived by society as a *fitting* career choice with women's social identity because it is gender-segregated and hence compliant with cultural and religious norms that resist mixed-sex work environments (Al-Hazmi, Hammad and Al-Shahrani, 2017).

For some participants, a teaching career was conceptualised as an unfulfilling and undesirable end state that they wished to avoid in the future. it would be the outcome of having low English proficiency. From the participants' accounts, it seems that a significant component of their motivation for learning English was to develop a distinct professional identity only available to L2 English speakers, while breaking away from a teaching career and pursuing something unique that would distinguish them in their social environment.

Consequent to the participants' envisioning themselves in particular future careers, during their educational experience, they reported deliberately aligning their linguistic objectives with their professional aspirations. They cared about developing specific language aspects that they perceived would facilitate their achieving professional goals while also showcasing their English competency. These areas were different, and included fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and sociolinguistic competence. They reported pursuing proficiency in these particular areas because they felt that if they developed that set of language aspects, it qualified them for their future professions through their effective use of English.

To illustrate, **Jawaher** stated that she aspires to become an interpreter in the health care setting, someone who facilitates communication between patients and health care providers who do not share the same language. In her view,

health care interpreting is a competitive and demanding job which would require her to provide interpretations effectively. **Jawaher** said:

> *I want to become a healthcare interpreter and I have to focus on improving my grammar, because I need to be as effective as possible when I interpret for doctors and patients.*

Because of her belief that grammar is important for being a health care interpreter, **Jawaher** reported that she was going to learn about English grammar in her summer vacation. To achieve her plan, she reported collecting her older sister's grammar textbooks to learn more about grammar. This suggests that she had begun to formulate a detailed strategy that would enable her to achieve her goals. It also points out that these students will often be highly motivated toward perfecting particular aspects of L2 production that they see as being connected with their final career, regardless of whether this connection exists in reality.

Rasha reported a similar aspiration, and that was to become a health care interpreter who delivers effective interpretations. Unlike **Jawaher**, **Rasha's** linguistic trajectory was oriented towards interpreting the meaning, which in her view would not require accurate grammar. She stated:

> *I want to focus on interpreting the meaning of the communication between doctors and patients. So, if I focus on delivering the meaning, I won't need to use perfect grammar.*

The levels of importance placed on different types of L2 achievement illustrate how even though **Jawaher** and **Rasha** desired the same career, they emphasised mastering different aspects of the L2.

Rasha's linguistic trajectory appeared to be shaped by her interactions with non-Arabic service providers, such as restaurant staff, who represent a significant portion of the Saudi workforce (Al-Seghayer, 2011). In her interactions with these service providers, **Rasha** stated that she could successfully communicate in English and get her message across without the need for target-like grammar. Her experience seems to have influenced how she aligned her linguistic goals with her future profession. It may be argued that for L2 production, **Rasha's** future L2 self has been defined as not qualitatively

different from her current L2 using self, and therefore, she might not perceive any discrepancy between the two selves. In this case, to return to Dörnyei's theory, the ideal L2 could not serve as a self-guide, because **Rasha** already perceived that she was at her ideal L2 self, and therefore did not feel motivated to move toward it (Dörnyei, 2009).

Whereas some participants seemed to regard developing certain linguistic abilities as central to their future professional objectives, and therefore presumably increased their efforts to minimise the discrepancy between their current and ideal L2 selves, others appeared to have an unclear relationship with their goals and future self. That is to say, even though there appeared to be a relatively large gap between L2 achievement and their current state, they did not envision a clear ideal L2 self, and this large gap did not serve as a motivator. According to Dörnyei's theory, if the participant had a clear vision of their future L2 self, then this large gap should have served as a motivator (Dörnyei, 2009). Dörnyei's theory implies that if a person can clearly envision their ideal L2 self, they feel they have the confidence to achieve it (Dörnyei, 2009). Instead, because many did not have a clear vision of their ideal L2 selves, this large gap seemed to serve as a demotivator.

L2 English learners in the study who had a large gap between their current and future ideal L2 selves did not focus on a specific career aspiration, though not because they did not have a specific profession in mind. They seemed to be avoiding forming an ideal L2 self. There is some evidence that participants who felt this way feared that if they developed career-related visions and things did not work out as anticipated, they would ascribe this to some failure on their part arising from a lack of competency in English. They reported that this perception of failure could have a negative impact on their motivation to learn English and their hunt for jobs. By not developing concrete future visions, they were protecting themselves from negative consequences, including failing at learning English, even though this might lead to failure career wise, and bringing about a poor reputation for their family. For example, **Abeer** said in her interview:

> *I don't want to pin all my hopes on a specific job because I might not achieve it and then I might feel that there was*

> *something wrong with my abilities. If this were to happen, I might stop learning English or seeking other jobs.*

It became evident that these participants regarded learning English as a tedious process, and they only expected to experience the fruits of their labour once they graduated and began the job-hunting phase. This general goal was reflected in their avoidance of a specific career choice, as this enabled them to avoid the negative consequence of not achieving that career goal. That outcome would force them to perceive that all the effort and time devoted to learning English was in vain, and certainly, their families would be disappointed.

On the one hand, it can be easily argued that these students lacked a vivid ideal L2 self (i.e., internalised hopes and aspirations) which, according to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), is a necessary condition for the ideal L2 self to become an effective motivational force as described in Chapter 3. In this simplistic view, a mentor could simply prompt them to form a reasonable ideal L2 self, measurably but not drastically different from the current L2 self, and have that serve as a motivational self-guide.

However, with Saudi women in an undergraduate programme, this might be too superficial an interpretation. The deliberate action by these students to avoid formulating an ideal L2 self – essentially, avoiding nailing down a concrete goal – was a strategy to prevent negative social consequences in lost or reduced reputation of self and/or family should a goal be set and not achieved. This is not to say that these students lacked motivation; it was their personal decision not to formulate a vivid ideal end-state, which supports the approach of Ushioda (2009), which is to conceptualise learners as persons with an identity, rather than as individuals participating in an activity. In this sense, it is hard to imagine what the actual differences are between ideal L2 self and ought-to L2 self, because many of these students were majoring in English simply because they thought that's what their parents wanted. Yet, they were not succeeding, and this meant that at some point, their parents would probably intervene and suggest a different direction that might be more successful for the student. Given that the student may have cared more about what her parents think than what she herself thinks, this lack of a well-formulated L2 self could be a strategy

to enable her to maintain good standing with her parents, while waiting for them to help her reshape her ideal future self.

5.3.5 L2 attitudes

Although this theme was not prominent, from time to time, participants expressed an attitude about English in general, not related to themselves or any particular self-concept. For example, **Amani** stated:

> *You need English wherever you go, wherever you travel.*

Many commented that English has a reputation for being the "common language of communication" (as expressed by **Layla**), and this showed that English was associated with travelling and being worldly.

5.3.6 Learning environment

Another theme that arose in the interviews had to do with experiences in the formal learning environment. The participants spoke about this theme differently with respect to high school L2 learning compared with L2 learning in their university experience.

5.3.6.1 School learning experience

Most participants commented that their biggest challenge was learning English in high school. They emphasised that their previous learning experience was unsatisfactory, as it did not develop their English proficiency or prepare them well for their undergraduate English courses. They highlighted two key classroom-related factors that were responsible for their low English proficiency when they got to the university: the quality of the teacher and the quality of the English curriculum.

The students were dissatisfied with the level of sophistication of their school teachers, and blamed their own poor English skills on having been taught by unqualified teachers in high school. They explained that teachers lacked English competency, and were not capable of answering students' language-related questions. Other participants explained that ineffective teaching practices prevented them from reaching proficiency. They explained that their teachers were mainly concerned with finishing the textbook on time, rather than establishing meaningful learning.

Also, some students revealed that their teachers focused on preparing students for examinations in order to pass the subject, rather than creating meaningful learning activities that focused on developing proficiency. The participants realised their teachers' ineffective practices caught up with them at the university level, because they ended up not having the language skills necessary to complete their university-level course tasks without difficulty. **Aisha**, for instance, reported:

> *At school, I used to know the composition task in my exam beforehand, because teachers used to give us paragraphs to memorise for the exam. They didn't even teach me how to write properly. Now I don't know how to write a simple paragraph in my writing course.*

Another factor that the participants identified as a barrier in preparing them for university was the high school English curriculum that was used. The students perceived various limitations in curriculum design, namely presenting redundant content over the school years, being too simplistic to enhance their language skills, and being disconnected from their actual interests, goals and needs. This was not a surprising finding, given that curriculum design is considered a major challenge in English education in Saudi Arabia (Alrabai, 2018). School learners are often required to undergo instruction with a prescribed curriculum with minimal linguistic features that ultimately fails to meet the needs of students (Rahman and Alhaisoni, 2013). These limitations not only mean that students are inadequately prepared for university learning, but they also lead the students to underestimate what is involved in learning English at university level.

Later, when the students attend university, the expectation of easier learning created a disappointing experience in their English courses, such as struggling to absorb the lesson explanation during lectures. It also created challenges with accurately envisioning future selves. **Layla** stated:

> *The English curriculum at school was so easy. I was excellent in English and my grades were high. That's why I chose to major in English and my family supported me because they*

> *thought I was excellent in English. Now I'm facing difficulties because the course material is hard, and it keeps getting harder. I keep getting low grades.*

5.3.6.2 University teachers

Although the students did not report any issues in relation to their university teachers' English proficiency as they did with school teachers, their main complaint was that university teachers set their expectations for English achievement among English majors too high. The students suggested that their Saudi teachers' high expectations were manifested in their behaviour, especially during instruction and when interacting with their students, which created challenges for some students in the classroom.

In at least one case, this high level of expectation manifested itself in the teachers' lack of readiness to help. **Hind** explained how her teachers' lack of support impacted her learning:

> *I could never ask my teachers questions for clarifications in class or by email because they either tell me to ask my friends, or reply that they would not explain something that they had already explained in class. So, I ask my colleagues instead, and they don't even know the answer sometimes.*

Some students also complained about teacher bias in the classroom, and how this affected their language development. They stated that their teachers were biased towards the more proficient students because they valued their high linguistic abilities. For example, **Raneem** thought that her teachers were more invested in the learning progress of proficient students by giving them constant feedback on their progress, whereas students who were less proficient were not given the same learning opportunity. She stated:

> *I see how some teachers are biased towards the good students and how they monitor their development because they're already excellent in English. Teachers give them feedback on how to further improve their English and I don't get the same attention on my work. How am I supposed to improve if I'm left to feel that I have a defect for having poor English?*

All in all, the students believed that their university teachers' behaviour could play a role in making it more difficult for them to improve their proficiency, and this would demotivate them. It should be noted that the students mainly highlighted the role of teachers in relation to their university learning experience due to the teacher-centred rather than student-centred learning environment that characterises the Saudi learning context (Alkubaidi, 2014; Alrabai, 2018)

5.3.7 L2 learning outside classroom

Another theme that was reported less often was L2 learning outside the formal classroom setting. When this theme arose, it was either with respect to how the dominance of the Arabic language in Saudi can limit the ability of English L2 learners to practise their English, or with respect to how English L2 learners in Saudi receive limited exposure to English.

5.3.7.1 The dominance of the Arabic language

The participants complained about the lack of interest in practising and using English from other Saudis who know English, like their siblings or peers, outside the classroom. They explained that even though they knew other Saudis who were learning English and could practise with them, they reported feeling awkward asking to do this, since they also both know Arabic and that is the primary language. This is a common challenge for Saudi learners seeking to use and practise their English, because of the dominance of Arabic as Saudi Arabia's official language, and as the main medium of communication among Saudis (Al-Qahtani, 2015; Alrahaili, 2018).

Consequently, when the participants became bolder and attempted to use English with other Saudis, they often reported getting discouraged. To illustrate, **Huda** stated:

> *I find it hard to practise English at home because my siblings get irritated with me when I speak English to them. They ask me why I'm using English when everyone around me speaks Arabic.*

Therefore, the participants' difficulty initiating dialogue in English with other Saudis posed barriers for the students to practise their English and improve their proficiency when outside of the classroom. A similar sentiment was

expressed by **Doha**, who mentioned that her brother knows English from watching movies and English programmes, but he does not try to practise his English with her. She reported:

> *My brother knows English, but he doesn't encourage me to use English at home. He thinks that I'm trying to flaunt my English.*

The participants reported that their siblings could pose challenges for their learning and use of English by discouraging them from practising their English at home.

5.3.7.2 Limited exposure to English

The analysis identified that limited exposure to English in Saudi Arabia was a major sociocultural factor that negatively impacted students' motivation to learn English. Although there is an expatriate community in Saudi Arabia, its members are not integrated into Saudi society (Alsubaie, 2014), which means access to a pool of English users is heavily circumscribed. As a result, learners have seldom found opportunities to use English in authentic situations. This means that even the most motivated L2 English learners may not easily achieve target-like article production because it is hard to practise speaking English in the Saudi community.

5.4 Discussion

The interview analysis identified themes related to socio-cultural factors that shape Saudi female English learners' L2 motivation and identity. These themes worked together in complex ways. The strongest resounding themes had to with family interactions, expectations, and even proscriptions. Many participants seemed to be deferring the formulation of an ideal L2 self to her parents or family in general. It was actually difficult to see the differences between an ideal L2 self and an ought-to L2 self unless the student was talking about a specific tension between the two. Otherwise, it seemed that every formulation of a future self that could serve as a self-guide was made under the heavy influence of family reputation, and a concept of the future family and the daughter's role in it.

Other themes influenced L2 motivation and formation of future selves, but not as much as family expectations. Nevertheless, Saudi-identity, self-concept, and how the student saw their future self in relation to being in a job or being

successful with obtaining a high-level job was connected with L2 achievement. Students also reported the influence of the learning environment in Saudi, both inside and outside the classroom. Unfortunately, both these settings served to demotivate the student more than motivate them, and they complained about the quality of teaching, and the inability to practise their English, given the social environment in Saudi.

This complex network of mutually-influencing motivations is reflected in the revised model which I presented at the end of Chapter 4 (see Figure 5.1).

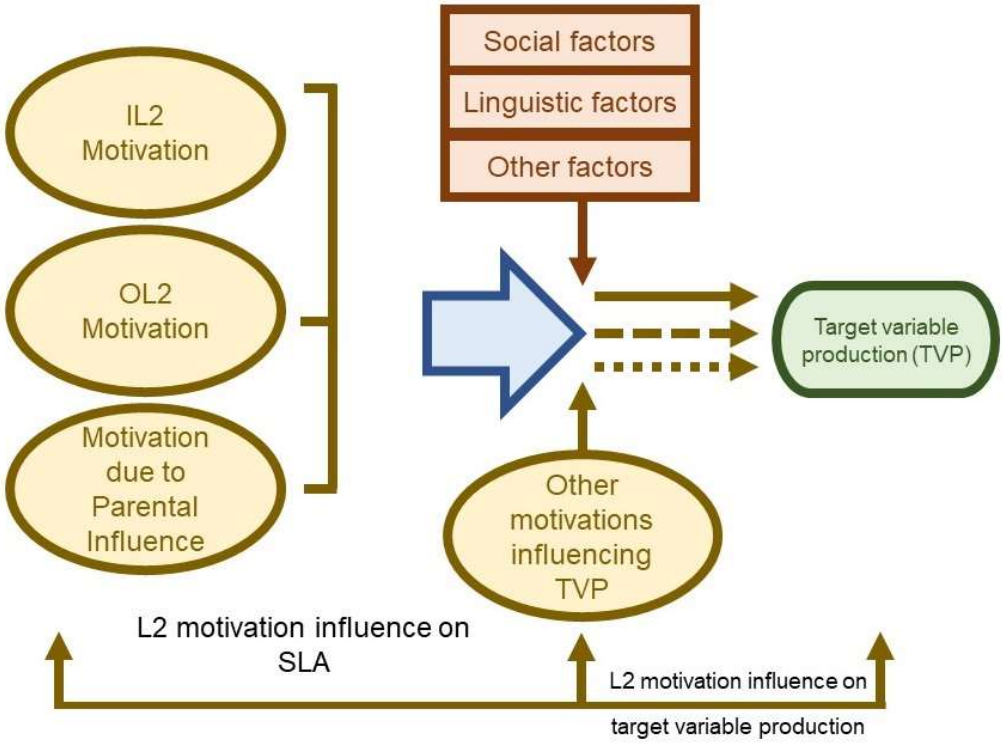

Figure 5.1. Revised hypothesised relationship between L2 motivation and variation in L2 production in young college-age L2 learners.

In Figure 5.1, I depict the fact that while in Chapter 3, it was reported that many participants were highly motivated toward L2 achievement by their scores on the instrument I developed. In Chapter 4, it became evident that this motivation did not directly translate into target-like article production. I hypothesised that other motivations influencing target variable production would intervene, and

though the students might be motivated, their motivation might not translate directly into target variable production.

This type of relationship was clearly revealed under the job-related theme, where students who had well-developed ideal L2 selves described their future careers, and also described what types of L2 language achievement or proficiency they were emphasising or prioritising in their studies as a complement to this. First, it is important to note that the students were not necessarily accurate in their assessments, in that focusing on the particular feature they identified might not improve their L2 learning to allow them to participate in their desired occupation. But regardless of this, they clearly prioritised certain aspects of L2 language learning because they felt they related directly to their interest in future career prospects, and deprioritised learning other features because they felt these were less important to that goal.

In Figure 5.1, the three brown parallel arrows describe these different levels of motivation as they relate to target variable production. The top arrow, which is solid, represents the connection between a student who is motivated to improve a particular type of target-like production (such as written target-like article production) and improvement in target-like production. The dotted arrows describe situations where students are motivated toward L2 learning and being able to master tasks in the L2, but they are not specifically motivated toward target-like production. This could explain why a strong relationship between L2 motivation and target-like production was not found in the quantitative analysis in Chapter 4. As shown in evidence from interviews in this chapter, in some cases, a strong relationship may exist, but in other cases, L2 motivation may be more strongly related to some other task achievement in the L2 rather than target-like production.

Another complication with applying the L2 motivational self system to this particular population is that they appear to be in a position where it is difficult to differentiate the different selves. It seems that in this group, ideal and ought-to L2 self might be effectively the same, and not separate until later in life. When reflecting on the results from the current chapter, it is easy to see why collections of statements meant to measure three different self-guide

motivational constructs – ideal L2, ought-to L2, and parental expectation – seemed to be impossible to separate, as if they were measuring the same thing.

5.5 Summary

This chapter presented the qualitative data analysis results from the mixed-methods study design. First, Ushioda's (2009) person-in-context relational view of L2 motivation was introduced as the guiding framework for the study, then data collection and analysis methods were described. Finally, seven themes were presented that arose from the analysis, and shed light on the interconnection between the different social influences on the formulation of the current and future L2 selves, and how this results in L2 motivation and its relationship to target-like production.

These young Saudi female university students clearly saw their identities as tightly entwined with their families' views of them, as well as their self-concept as women situated inside the Saudi social context. This perspective did not always provide a useful motivational self-guide to these L2 learners. When the student felt very attached to the future L2 self that was crafted collectively by their family, them, and their social environment, this resulted in L2 motivation. However, when the student did not feel as attached to the collectively-developed L2 future self, the future self was kept deliberately vague, and could not serve as a motivator. Further, even highly motivated students were not necessarily motivated specifically toward target-like production, and this variety of specific linguistic or language-related goals developed by this group impacted their performance, in that they were more motivated to achieve the goals they set than necessarily the goal of producing target-like variables.

This finding – that L2 motivation is particularly complex in female Saudi L2 English learners in a university English programme, and that members of this group tend to have a collectively-developed relatively vivid future L2 self - could be used to motivate Saudi L2 learners in the classroom. Chapter 6 will suggest possible applications.

Chapter 6: Discussion

6.1 Introduction

This study explored the issue of language learning motivation by examining Saudi female English learners' L2 motivation and specific production features in the target language. Additionally, with emphasis placed on L2 motivation as a dynamic construct (Ushioda, 2009; Dörnyei and Ushioda, 2011), the study utilised both quantitative and qualitative approaches to arrive at a better understanding of the complex relationship. It was possible to develop an instrument to measure L2 learning motivational profiles for these students, although neither these profiles nor other socio-linguistic features were significantly associated with target-like article production in multivariate models. Therefore, the understanding of how L2 motivation and L2 achievement are linked in this group came from the qualitative portion of this mixed methods study.

The study's data forms have yielded different yet complementary insights. The quantitative results obtained from the questionnaire instrument will be reviewed first, followed by the key findings from the multivariate analysis. Then, the qualitative analysis will be discussed to arrive at a better understanding of the patterns that emerged from the quantitative data. Both data sets were interpreted with the help of the existing literature and a grasp of the sociocultural context of Saudi Arabia.

6.2 The Motivational Profiles of English-major Saudi Female Learners

The quantitative part of this mixed-methods study started with the development of an instrument to measure IL2, OL2 and PE in female Saudi L2 English learners majoring in English at PNU. Although the instrument clearly measured three constructs – IL2, OL2, and PE – and their subscale scores were all significantly positively correlated, the correlations were weak. The weak relationship between the IL2 and OL2 suggests that the instrument measured two separate motivational sources. The strong correlation between the OL2 and PE suggests that parents constitute a significant source of motivation on the formation of the OL2 than the IL2. They were all positively correlated because

they were measuring constructs that should be moving in the same direction together, because they are different facets of motivation.

Further, although the mean of each of these subscales was compared between majors, while the means were all relatively high for the subscale, no statistically significant differences were found in means between majors. So, while these instruments appeared to be measuring legitimate motivational constructs, it was not clear how these different constructs spoke specifically to L2 motivation. Also, it was not clear what other types of L2 motivation might have gone unmeasured, and therefore be missing in multi-variate models. Potential important constructs that were not measured include the L2 learning experience, levels of instrumental motivation, or even a more accurate measurement of the collective IL2 identity. These factors might have better explained the variability in regression models in this career-oriented sample of students.

6.3 The association between L2 motivation and target-like article production

In the VARBRUL analysis, it became clear that for these Arabic L1 speakers, linguistic features of NPs including plural and singular forms caused predictable production patterns, both in monitored and unmonitored contexts. Plural NPs were associated with target-like article production, and singular NPs were associated with non-target-like article production. These linguistic features were influential and even had a weak impact in the linear regression analysis, in that producing more singular tokens was associated with lower probability of target-like article production in the monitored condition. Hence, it is important to consider linguistic features of the L2 language that may influence target-like production and control for them in the analysis in order to accurately see the influence of sociolinguistic factors. If they are not held constant in the analysis, we may erroneously attribute sociological reasons for variation when they are due to morphosyntactic attributes, such as placement in the sentence.

The linear regression analysis went on to reveal that L2 motivation was not associated with learners' use of target-like article forms. This finding is consistent with a previous study that observed only a weak relationship

between the IL2 and OL2 and L2 proficiency among tertiary Saudi learners of English (Moskovsky *et al.*, 2016). But this conclusion may not apply to the collective nature of the Saudi context, where parents, significant others, and local authority figures like teachers shape learners' motivation (Eusafzai, 2013; Al-Qahtani, 2015; Alshahrani, 2016), highlighting that a lot more is at play in the motivation-acquisition link than sociocultural factors. Upon reflection, Dörnyei's model relies on the existence of others, and these others being well enough differentiated from the self such that the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self could be different selves (Dörnyei, 2009). In these participants, although there was clearly a perception of others, the vision of the participants the others put forth was not materially differentiated from the vision of the participant of themselves. This suggests that Dörnyei's model does not work when a collective self is perceived by the participant, and this could be a result of living in a collectivist society, of the participant being young and not having fully-differentiated their personality from their parents, or both.

So perhaps the regression model based on Dörnyei's concept included specification errors, or the measurement of L2 motivation was not accurate. Or – as speculated earlier – it may be that competing motivations superseded the ones directly related to target-like article production. Because these individuals were low proficiency L2 speakers, even if their L2 motivation was high, it would be hard to detect a signal because their target-like article production was so low. Later, it was found that many highly-motivated students are not specifically motivated to produce target-like articles. So, while motivation could have remained high, it may not have resulted in target-like article production.

This analysis was intended to test Labov's concept of monitored compared to unmonitored production, but this became challenging in the context of written tasks. The Labovian approach is to create a setting where speakers become more aware of their speech, and therefore make an effort to monitor it. With the written tasks, the topic of the question was meant to induce a type of self-monitoring, but it is not clear that this indeed took place. If these writing tasks are used in another study, they could be followed by a multiple-choice or Likert statement style survey where the participant could self-report their level of monitoring when answering the various writing tasks. In both the VARBRUL and

the linear regression analysis, it counterintuitively appeared that fewer target-like articles were produced in the monitored condition compared to the unmonitored condition.

When compared to previous results using Labov's model, it is important to note that most of the results come from studies of monitored and unmonitored oral speech. In this case, writing tasks were used. Assuming that the approach used to create the monitored and unmonitored condition with the writing tasks succeeded, it may not actually be illogical that the monitored condition produced fewer target-like articles than the unmonitored condition. Writing is qualitatively different than speech, in that speech is spontaneous, whereas writing can be corrected. Participants were given ample time to correct their writing, so it may be that they hypercorrected on the monitored tasks, leading to lower target-like article use. The monitored tasks may have produced anxiety in them, leading to such behaviour, because of the topic of the writing task (e.g., "How does your family support you in studying English?"). This interpretation is supported by what was reported in the interviews, in that participants expressed nervousness when trying to produce target-like speech, although they did not draw a distinction between written and oral speech.

Another finding was the unmonitored condition was associated with a greater frequency of production overall, which seems consistent with the reasoning behind the high rate of non-target-like articles in the monitored condition. Participants apparently felt freer with their writing in the unmonitored condition, and produced more. However, all of these interpretations need to be tempered against a few limitations. Challenges with establishing a monitoring condition, as well as identifying who the speaker is with reference to coding definiteness of articles, were issues that arose using a written task approach. Therefore, the methodologic features of this study need to be re-evaluated in future study designs.

In this quantitative analysis, a weak SES signal was seen in the association of parental English proficiency and target-like article production in the monitored condition, but this may not actually have been a function of SES. It may have been that a parent in the home who knew English actually provided support and resources to the student that other students without English-speaking parents

did not have. This will be revisited when integrating these findings with the results from the interview portion.

6.4 A situated approach to L2 motivation

As described earlier, one of the inherent weaknesses with the questionnaire instrument used to measure learners' L2 motivation was its lack of capacity to explore the complex interplay between L2 learners and the context in which they operated. Therefore, the questionnaire data were complemented with interview data because the interviews provided the opportunity to explore L2 motivation from a person-in-context (Ushioda, 2009) framework in which learners as persons with manifold identities (e.g. Saudi, Muslim, daughter, English-major student) who shape and are shaped by their context become the units of analysis.

The goal of the interview portion of this mixed-methods approach was to help explain the complex findings that had arisen from the quantitative analysis. First, although motivational profiles had been developed, they did not seem to relate directly to target-like production. They also did not seem to differ by major. In further quantitative analysis, it was found that there was a diversity of target-like production of written articles in this group, and no strong socio-linguistic predictors. Yet, the interview data suggested that many participants were actually highly motivated for L2 learning and achievement, and described many sources for this motivation.

The interview data analysis produced the following themes: family-related, Saudi-identity-related, self-concept, job-related, L2 attitudes, learning environment, and learning outside the classroom. These themes directly related to sources of motivation. For example, family-related represents the main motivational theme listed. This is consistent with findings of past research that Saudi female learners' future aspirations (ideal L2 self) correlated with their motivation to meet others' expectations (Assulaimani, 2015). Previous research has also established that the level of parental encouragement in L2 learners depends on many factors such as SES (Kormos and Kiddle, 2013; Lamb, 2013) and certain components of SES, such as parents' educational backgrounds and English proficiency (Lamb, 2012; Assulaimani, 2015). The interview findings

demonstrated that the parents' levels of English competence and educational background significantly shaped learners' motivational trajectories and L2 performance as well.

The family-related theme was the overarching motivation for L2 learning. The family, led by the father, would form an opinion about L2 English learning, and usually this had to do with some sort of future career aspirations. The daughter would adopt this ideal future L2 self as a person working using L2 English. In this way, the ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self, and instrumental motivation for L2 learning appeared to collapse into one multi-faceted source of motivation.

The family-related theme was so strong in this study for L2 motivation, that it is surprising that this specific theme or influence has not risen prominently in the study of L2 motivation. One way to reflect on this is recognise the foundation of L2 motivation research, which started with Gardner's studies in Canada of teaching Anglophones how to speak L2 French (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). By necessity, these studies were extremely situated in the Canadian context, where all provinces speak English and only Quebec speaks French (Masgoret and Gardner, 2003). As others including Dörnyei (Dörnyei, 2009) attempted to generalise out from this model, the fact that the line of inquiry arose in Canada, which is not a collectivist society, may have led the literature down this winding path.

As noted earlier, Papi and colleagues (2019) had difficulty separating ideal L2 self (IL2) from other sources of motivation, especially ought-to L2 self (OL2), because they felt that IL2 was also socially-constructed, the way OL2 is. Their observation was that in many studies that included measurement of both IL2 and OL2, neither was found to be associated with L2 achievement, but the IL2 and OL2 measurements were often associated with each other (Papi *et al.*, 2019). They observed that this dichotomy was more prominent in countries like Japan and Iran, which have a more collective culture (Papi *et al.*, 2019).

This observation may explain why in the current study, measuring a quantitative future L2 self with an instrument was challenging. I assumed that there would be multiple selves, but given the results of the study, it is worthwhile to entertain that in more collectivist cultures, there may be only one future L2 self, shaped

by the self and others. This is in contrast to the approaches taken by Papi and colleagues (2019) and Teimouri (2017), both of whom went on to further stratify L2 selves into multiple measurements. Instead, when studying collectivist cultures, instruments should seek to accurately measure one future L2 self, and see if that can relate to outcomes associated with L2 achievement.

What further supports this collective identity found in this study of the future L2 self is what was learned through the interviews. When the student and her family agreed on her future L2 self, she was clearly more motivated. When the student and her family felt tension surrounding her future L2 self (generally through either the family or the student having a stronger desire for the student to pursue an English major), motivation was decreased. This strongly supports that a collective future L2 self is formed, and that the more the student and family agree with the direction, the stronger the motivation.

For example, another theme – Saudi-identity related – had to do with L2 learning in relation to Saudi identity. However, this theme often connected back to career aspirations. Several participants described playing a role in the tourist industry, both internationally and domestically, and in using their L2 English in an ambassadorial role to teach others about Saudi culture. This finding supports previous research, which suggests that Saudi English learners do not consider learning English a threat to their social identity, or a sign of a lack of patriotism (Alrahaili, 2013, 2018). Instead, they simply refuse to adopt Western cultural norms, values, and ways of life that conflict with their national and cultural values (Alrahaili, 2013). Recent economic changes appear to invite learners to imagine themselves going on foreign trips for work and breaking social expectations which fear young women, who travel abroad without their families or a male guardian, will be vulnerable to moral and physical harm (O'Sullivan, 2007). But in this case, ideal and ought-to L2 motivation are being combined with instrumental motivation partly due to Saudi's current economic situation. Therefore, when participants expressed any opinions about English in general, they tended to be positive, or associate it with increased opportunities.

Perhaps the greatest sense of self expressed by these Saudi female university students had to do with their identity as English learners and speakers within Saudi Arabia's educational system. Regardless of instrumental motivation or

career aspirations, most expressed that simply being an English major made them feel like they should be able to speak proficient English when at home and dealing with English speakers in and around the family. They also spoke at length about their educational experiences with English, both in Saudi high schools and at PNU, and expressed frustration with many aspects of these experiences. A few also expressed frustration at the challenge of trying to practise English outside the school context.

Although L2 learners connected their lack of quality L2 English curriculum in the past and present with challenges to L2 motivation and achievement, they never expressed any interest in sharing this information with their family as a way of perhaps explaining issues of motivation or achievement. They seemed to see the educational context as a place where they could form an ideal L2 self, but they did not feel they had license to form a future ideal L2 self that would be out in the world without consultation from their family. Therefore, the strongest evidence expressed of the students' ideal L2 selves was in the context of the educational setting.

Many participants talked at length about the influence of English teachers, both at the high school and university level. Because Saudi learners have limited exposure to English outside the classroom many learners primarily depend on teachers for language input (Alrabai, 2018). As such, language instructors have a variety of roles and responsibilities in the classroom because—unlike learners who are the passive recipients of information—teachers are the primary providers of language input, and they are the ones who control their students' learning processes (Al-Seghayer, 2011; Alrabai, 2018). The participants complained that English teachers in grade school had low English proficiency, were only motivated to complete the curriculum and demonstrate high levels of outcomes, and did not show concern for students who were especially interested in learning English. English teachers' low proficiency meant they could not respond to student queries. Students also complained of ineffective instructional practices. Al-Shehri (2013) found that Saudi English learners valued motivational strategies that promoted their communicative capabilities because those skills enabled them to use English outside the classroom, but

teachers tended to presume that a student's goal was academic achievement, and consequently adopted strategies to promote this outcome.

The participants in this study generally agreed that in addition to challenges with English teachers, the English school curriculum in Saudi Arabia was unsatisfactory in developing their English language. They highlighted that the content of the material was rather repetitive over the school years. Another limitation pertained to the material being basic and below their level and irrelevant to the students' goals, interests, and needs. This finding was in line with studies that considered English curriculum design a major challenge in Saudi English Language Education (Al-Seghayer, 2011; Alrabai, 2018). Students in this context are often required to undergo instruction with a prescribed curriculum, with no choice but to participate in preselected activities. Al-Hajailan (2006) maintains that English curriculum designers in Saudi Arabia define and describe the learning material based on their personal perceptions rather than on learners' actual needs and interests.

The poor instruction and curriculum at the high school level caused the learners to be unprepared for university level learning, and many struggled. Even though it seems that people in Saudi have many practical reasons to learn English, there was a lack of ability for the students to practise English outside of the school domain. As mentioned earlier, the dominance of Arabic as the official language of the country and the primary medium of communication among Saudis correspondingly undermines the value of practising English among Saudis (Alrabai, 2018). Some participants complained that when they tried to speak English with family for practise, it was perceived as showing off; others complained about being overcorrected by family. Alqahtani (2011) believed that due to the dominance of Arabic, Saudi students are insufficiently motivated to use English as part of their social lives, but it may also be due to family influence outside the school domain that counterintuitively values English language learning but discourages English use while in Saudi Arabia.

6.5 Synthesis

This study looked at L2 motivational profiles of Saudi female university-level L2 English learners who were L1 Arabic speakers, and sought to associate these

with target-like article production. The study was intended to investigate socio-linguistic variations in L2 production in this group. Although the choice of such a homogenous group of L2 English learners was favourable to a study design, in that they were at a similar level of competence, and operating in the same interlanguage as proposed by Young (1988), there still may have been issues with the design of the study. Although questions still remain about whether there is an L1 Arabic/L2 English interlanguage, it is clear that in order for an interlanguage to be identified, patterns of speaking must emerge, and these can only come from speakers with at least basic proficiency in the L2. Target-like production in the written tasks appeared to be very challenging for many of the participants, even though they had had many years of instruction. This may have been due to issues with the quality of teaching, but nevertheless, they did not have very high levels of accuracy in the written tasks. Because they found the task challenging, the errors made may not have been indications of socio-linguistic variation but simply a reflection of their competency. Quantitative analyses found stronger relationships between linguistic factors (e.g., plural NP) and target-like production and social factors (e.g., parents' level of English competency). This again provides evidence that the participants may not have been proficient enough to complete the task accurately so that any variation could be attributed to social factors. However, the fact that linguistic factors were found to have strong relationships with target-like production supports the concept of an L1 Arabic/L2 English interlanguage, and that L1 transfer may be taking place. While this was revealed through written tasks, a different finding may have been seen if oral production had been measured.

It is worthwhile to note that this study applied Labov's theory to written material, whereas past studies of sociolinguistic variation have concentrated on oral speech. This probably has to do with the primacy of spoken over written language in linguistics due to the natural development of speech compared to the fact that written language has to be taught. In this way, spoken language may be more deeply connected to the mental and cognitive systems than written language. After all, Labov's original work was inspired first through hearing accents from oral speech, and desiring to relate them to sociological constructs (Labov, 1963).

Conversely, written tasks were chosen for this study in order to avoid some of the issues seen with collecting oral speech data, but it had the unintended effect of highlighting the differences in sociolinguistic inquiry when a written corpus is used rather than recorded speech. The immediacy of oral speech should be contrasted with the deliberateness of written text. These functions use different parts of the brain, so it is reasonable that the same sociological constructs might manifest differently in writing compared to oral speech. As was described with interpretation of the monitored and unmonitored conditions, for future studies using Labovian theory, it is important to distinguish between written text and oral speech. This is because how the same sociolinguistic variation may present itself will likely be different in writing compared to oral speech, which has been the subject of most of the literature on the topic.

While the interview results showed an overwhelming influence of parents on L2 learning and motivation, and the instrument validity and reliability studies showed that it was measuring aspects of L2 motivation, the motivational subscales used in the quantitative analysis did not reveal a direct connection between L2 production as measured in the writing tasks. Certainly, just because quantitative analysis did not see a connection does not mean there is no connection, because the interview findings and other studies show a significant role of parents in the formation of the ought-to L2 self among Saudi learners of English (Eusafzai, 2013; Al-Qahtani, 2015; Assulaimani, 2015; Alshahrani, 2016).

The explanation behind this finding is multi-faceted, but probably has to do with the following list of causes: lack of differentiation between selves in the speakers that was not reflected in the instrument, the challenge of measuring socio-linguistic variation in the interlanguage, and the correction of estimates through the use of hierarchical modeling. First, Dörnyei's theory assumed that the ought-to L2 self would be different from the ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei and Ryan, 2015) but this is not always the case in a collective society like Saudi Arabia, especially among young adults. As shown in the factor analysis, even though the three subscales appeared to be measuring different sources of motivation, these sources could not easily be separated and mapped onto the themes that arose from the interview data. In fact, the interview results

suggested that these three constructs – ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and parental encouragement – were essentially one factor operating with internal tension. For example, if the family wanted the student to study English, and she really did not have an opinion but was not excelling, she would still stay in the programme just to please her family. It is difficult to identify the boundaries between future L2 selves when describing such a situation.

According to Dörnyei (2009) and Dörnyei and Ryan (2015), when a situation occurs where there is a large discrepancy between the ideal L2 self and the ought-to L2 self, the L2 learner seeks to reduce the discrepancy through various strategies. For example, the L2 learner may change the goal, and therefore change their vision of what is expected of them (the ought-to self) as well as what they expect to achieve (the ideal L2 self), and this adjustment makes the discrepancy manageable (You and Chan, 2015). However, in the case of this sample, the ideal selves appeared to be combined, so when there was tension within this combination, the student did not have much of a strategy to employ for adjustment. For example, many students who felt pressured into their L2 English programme by their family, or specifically their fathers, and were not succeeding simply felt that it was their responsibility to keep on trying until some other decision was made for them. This was seldom an efficient strategy, as it may have delayed the student's pursuit of more suitable education for her undergraduate degree. Worse, she may have been set up to fail, and therefore, her learning environment would include others like her, with motivational challenges and internal tension about self-concept. This would not be an ideal learning cohort or learning experience.

The intention of this study was to look for socio-linguistic factors associated with target-like variable production, and these included both L2 motivational profiles and SES variables. Although only one variable, parents' level of English competency, was almost statistically significant in one model, from the interview results, it was clear that parents' educational profiles were connected to both positive and negative levels of parental influence on L2 learning and motivation. Participants with more highly-educated parents or parents who had more English competency reported receiving encouragement in a different way from those with parents with less education. Those with highly-educated parents

often heard their parents talk about their education and express high expectations, or observed them trying to impose L2 learning strategies on the student. Students with parents of lower educational status received more generic pressure to succeed. Regardless, parents with a high level of education have been shown to shape their children's learning motivation because of the parents' ability to provide for their children with support for their academic needs, especially regarding language learning (Alhawsawi, 2013). In the case of non-educated parents, the lack of influence arising out of their low literacy may serve as a motivational force for their daughters to learn English to make their parents proud of their achievements and garner social respect for their parents. These differences may have been responsible for the lack of a strong relationship between the parental variables and L2 production in models.

The quantitative models did not show strong relationships between socio-linguistic variables and L2 target-like article production for the reasons of measurement as described earlier, but also because more recently it was realised that placing social variables in a VARBRUL model at the same level as linguistic variables can artificially over-inflate the estimates for the social variables. Authors in the articles reviewed before 2009 often did not realise this error, because it was only described in a proof published in that year (Gorman, 2009). Several articles published afterwards made the same error, so part of the reason that the results here are inconsistent with the literature may have to do with incorrect inflation of some previous estimates.

It may have been possible to measure L2 motivation and associate the measurements with target-like production in this sample, but the motivational sources and the production measurement would have to be reconsidered. First, motivation would have to be measured directly relating to production (e.g., motivation to pronounce a particular variable in a target-like way). Second, the linguistic variation measure should have sufficient statistical variation in the mode where it is being measured among the learners being measured (e.g., pronouncing the variable in a target-like way during speech). If there is variation, but it is not sufficient statistically, models will not be able to predict it. Third, source of the motivation (ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, or any other)

should be defined. Then, specific items could be developed that are calibrated directly to the type of production being studied.

In the case of this particular group, however, future L2 selves appeared to be merged. Even when there was tension between the student's self-concept and how her parents saw her, this was expressed as an unclear or not vivid future L2 self, rather than two distinct selves. Therefore, there was probably only one overarching L2 self in these participants' L2 motivation. What might have been an unmeasured construct that would have added to the understanding of L2 motivation would have been an instrumental motivation to get a particular job or start a particular career. This instrumental motivation may have even covered certain school-level achievements, such as getting good grades or graduating. But because of the collectivist nature of Saudi Arabia and the youth of this particular group, the selves were not obviously differentiated, and did not seem to serve as useful self-guides for L2 motivation.

6.6 Summary

In conclusion, this mixed-methods study showed that it was feasible to develop an instrument to measure L2 motivational profiles in a sample of female Saudi English major students, but these profiles were not statistically significantly associated with written target-like article production in multivariate models. In fact, the approach used for instrument development was later found to have not been ideal for the target sample. Other sociolinguistic variables were also not statistically significantly associated with target-like article production, but this may have been due to measurement issues, and choices made during study design. Analysis of interview data revealed that the Saudi educational system may be ineffective at preparing L2 English learners for university-level learning, and therefore, the proficiency of the participants was too low for their production to reveal any sociolinguistic variation. The study also revealed that conceiving of a future L2 self for Saudi women is somewhat complicated, and may reflect a collective future L2 self, rather than separated selves.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter first reviews the central findings of the study, then discusses the key theoretical and methodological contributions. Next, the limitations of the study are reviewed, and recommendations made for future research and improvements in Saudi L2 education.

7.2 Central findings of the study

This thesis aimed to answer the following research questions: 1) What are the motivational profiles of English-major Saudi female students at a public university in Saudi Arabia? 2) To what degree can motivation predict learners' use of target-like article (TLA) forms? and 3) What are the socio-cultural factors that shape English-major Saudi female English learners' L2 motivation and identity?

To answer the first research question (Chapter 3), an instrument to measure L2 motivation was successfully developed, piloted and underwent validity and reliability analysis, and was found to be adequate to use in research. Nevertheless, it was later found that this measurement did not accurately represent the narrative behind these learners' experience. The instrument measured three subscales: ideal L2 self (IL2), ought-to L2 self (OL2), and parental encouragement (PE). A total of 207 students completed the instrument, and were found to have high levels of L2 motivation on all subscales. It was also found that L2 motivation levels did not differ statistically significantly by major.

To answer the second research question (Chapter 4), 25 students who were drawn from the sample of 207 and consented to participate in the second part of the study underwent eight writing tasks, four that were intended to produce monitored output, and four that were intended to produce unmonitored output. From these writing samples, NPs were identified, and articles use was coded. This produced a dataset about the corpus that was used in a VARBRUL analysis, which found that in both monitored and unmonitored conditions, plural NPs were associated with increased probability of TLA, and singular NPs were associated with decreased probability of TLA. Linear regression was used to

explore the association of social factors with TLA production, and an association was found between higher levels of parental English competency and greater probability of TLA, but it only approached statistical significance. L2 motivation was not significantly associated with TLA production.

To answer the third research question (Chapter 5), the same 25 students underwent a semi-structured interview that asked questions about their L2 motivation, production, and future L2 selves. The interviews were recorded and transcribed, and underwent a thematic analysis. It was found that family had a very strong influence on the formation of the L2 self in this group, and the students had formed a collective L2 self led by their family (mainly the father). Interview data revealed that when there was tension within this collective L2 self, it reduced motivation, but did not impact whether or not the student remained in the English programme. It also revealed that although some students may have high levels of L2 motivation, they may not be focused on TLA production. Only those who saw target variable production as instrumental in reaching their L2 achievement goals specifically channeled their L2 motivation toward target variable production.

7.3 Key contributions

This study makes a number of theoretical and methodologic contributions, which are discussed here.

7.3.1 Theoretical contributions

This study makes two theoretical contributions. The first has to do with L2 motivation theory. This study was based on the L2MSS theory of future L2 selves. A main pillar of that theory has to do with the concept of the ideal L2 (IL2) self opposed to the ought-to L2 (OL2) self. The idea is that the difference between the current self and these future selves serves as a self-guide to motivate the L2 learner. This research found that the L2MSS cannot be directly applied in the case of the Saudi female university-level L2 English learner because she has no separated IL2 and OL2; rather, she has a collective family-led future L2 self that may contain internal tension. If it does, it serves as a poor motivator, but if the internal tension is lacking, it can serve as a reasonable self-guide for L2 motivation in this group.

The second theoretical contribution this study makes is it provides an explanation as to why individuals with high L2 motivation may not demonstrate it in TLA production. Students who are generally motived toward L2 achievement in general may not be specifically motivated toward certain types of L2 tasks, such as written target-like article production. Students will be more motivated toward target-like production if they connect it with their overall SLA goals (such as getting a job where English is used).

7.3.2 Methodologic contributions

This study makes a number of methodological contributions. First, a reliable and valid instrument was developed for measuring L2 motivation in Saudi female English-major higher education students. This process had the unintended effect of revealing that the traditional approach to developing measurement instruments for L2 motivation was not optimal in collectivist societies like that of Saudi Arabia. Next, the hierarchical nature of the VARBRUL model was identified, and a solution outlined whereby two regression models were developed, one at each level of the hierarchy. This is an alternative to other fixed-effects models that can be difficult to use with small sample and also unintuitive to interpret. Third, in collecting data about TLA, several additional features were added which provided additional insight via quantitative analysis. Fourth, this study experimented with creating monitored and unmonitored conditions through written prompts rather than speech by an interviewer. It was found to be somewhat challenging to control for monitoring in written data collection. Finally, this study was unique in that it controlled for type and level of L1 knowledge and proficiency, as well as L2 knowledge and proficiency through restriction to a very specific sample of Saudi female university students.

7.3.3 Implications of contributions

First and foremost, the results of these multiple studies on a sample of female Saudi university L2 English majors suggest that for this group, L2 motivation is the result of what could be seen as a collective image of self. This is a component of their identity, but it is ever-changing. At any given time, it represents the agreed-upon image of the student’s future L2 self, taking into account her family’s perspective, especially her father’s. This collective L2 self

could change as the social environment changes (e.g., grades drop or soar, success in English speaking is seen or not seen, etc.). If this collective future L2 self moves into a space of tension, the motivational value is decreased. The tension is relieved by either the student turning herself around and excelling in the English programme, or transferring to another programme her family has gotten behind.

Secondly, while evidence from interviews in this study show that this collective L2 self definitely serves as a self-guide, especially when the student's and family's perspectives are aligned, it does not necessarily guide each student to the same destination. While Gardner's idea of integrativeness might be seen as relevant when the students in this study speak of working in the tourism industry, in reality, these students maintain a strong Saudi identity when learning and speaking English, seeing themselves in an ambassadorial position. Unlike Gardner's integrativeness, their future L2 selves generally do not place a high value on target-like article use, or even target-like speech or written text. In the interviews, topics associated with the concept of being target-like (e.g., fitting in, speaking accurately, sounding native, etc.) did not come up very often at all. Only one student expressed interest in working on her grammar.

Given these two overall findings, future research designs in the area of L2 motivation and L2 production should make a few considerations. First, the quality of the ideal L2 self should be identified (either through interviews or some other way) prior to the construction of an instrument. Simply building off of past instruments may not work, depending upon the underlying culture. Next, when studying production, it is important to consider the differences between oral and written production with respect to monitored and unmonitored conditions. There are also important linguistic differences given the immediacy of oral speech compared to the timely but slower execution of written tasks. Finally, when studying the connections between L2 motivation and L2 achievement, it is important to reasonably operationalise the variables to be used in the analysis. Although that was done in this study, it was realised later that target-like article production in written tasks may not have been as sensitive to socio-linguistic influences as originally anticipated for this sample. Nevertheless, there are likely types of oral or written production that relate to

socio-linguistic influences in female Saudi L2 English majors, so this remains an open area for research.

7.4 Limitations of the study

There are several limitations to this study. First, because the study sample included Saudi female university students, the results cannot be generalised to other populations. The issue of generalisability pertains mostly to the type of population selected for the study. The results might be more pertinent to others in the Saudi context compared to outside of it, but care should be taken to generalise the findings to other populations. In terms of sampling, for the instrument development, the sample drawn was adequate, and likely another sample would show similar results. However, for the writing tasks portion of the study, there were issues with recruitment and retention that resulted in withdrawals. This limited the sample to 25 individuals who may have been biased toward high-performing. In that sense, care should be taken to interpret the writing task results as they may pertain specifically to higher-performing students.

However, it should be noted that L2 motivation is highly context-sensitive. In this study, the L2 learning context was not measured and included in models, and this may have compromised the ability for models to explain the association between L2 motivation and target-like production. Next, although the L2MSS is a reasonable choice of a guiding theory, it may not have been the best choice on which to base the instrument developed in this study. Perhaps using an instrument that focused more on instrumental L2 motivation, given that the students were career-minded, would have been more suitable. An instrument developed that was highly context-specific, like Gardner's AMTB, would probably have been more appropriate for this group. Third, the quantitative models did not fit very well, and this was probably due to the lack of appropriate IVs to fill out the model. L2 motivation is only one of several factors that influences L2 production. Other IVs may have been needed to develop a better fitting model and form a clearer picture of quantitative relationships. Next, although the same size for the study on the instrument was adequate, the sample size for the regression models was too small. This was due to limited

resources, but could have been avoided by making different study design choices, such as gathering less data from more people.

7.5 Recommendations for Future Research

This thesis has focused entirely on morphosyntactic features in its linguistic analysis, leading to some interesting conclusions about the nature of linguistic variation and its use in identity negotiation., The analysis of phonological features would further illuminate the study of L2 variation and motivation to capture a different and potentially contrasting perspective of research, though it might also produce inconclusive results. Also, future studies investigating the topic from various perspectives will help to better understand the complex relationships between motivation and the L2 learning and teaching process.

In studying L2 motivation and relating it to L2 production, it is necessary to design the L2 motivation instrument specifically to measure motivation for production. Instrument designers should determine how to map the domains of L2 motivation specifically to L2 production. They both must be considered together when developing items for the L2 motivation instrument. This will ensure that the instrument measures motivation for L2 production specifically – not generic L2 motivation, or motivation for achieving a specific L2 state or task.

Future research could also consider studying student L2 motivation in higher education English programmes in Saudi universities from the professor's perspective. The students in the study identified many issues with the learning environment, both at the high school and at the university level. If teachers at the university level can better understand how to motivate their students within this learning context, it could help students better acquire the L2. After collecting these data and doing these interviews, I already have ideas about ways to improve L2 learning. Simply creating more English-speaking spaces for the students to spontaneously practise English conversation would help, because this need was explicitly expressed. Saudi universities should consider also doing research into the optimal learning environment for this unique population. As the students complained about the quality of English in grade school teachers, an enriching and remedial environment would be immediately necessary in the higher education L2 classroom.

Because the participants discussed handling service encounters for themselves and family, and feeling proud when they were successful, it is likely that a study around a situation like this would show sociolinguistic variation in this group, because in the interviews, they expressed not focusing on accuracy of speech during such interactions. This would need to be done after they had gained enough proficiency for sociolinguistic variations to be apparent in their speech. As an example, a measure could be developed to determine how intense the participants' identification with Saudi identity was (assuming it is on a scale of medium to high intensity, given the reports in Chapter 5). This could be used as an independent variable (IV), and the dependent variable (DV) could be whether or not the student pronounces target-like /b/ and target-like /p/ (and does not reverse them or confuse them). I have observed in my students that differentiating in English speech between /b/ and /p/ is an early sign of L2 achievement. The hypothesis would be that higher levels of intensity of Saudi identity would be associated with lower levels of production of target-like speech of /b/ and /p/ during a service encounter. The concept behind this hypothesis is that L2 English is counter to Saudi identity, and this can serve as a obstacle to adoption. In addition, the importance of properly honouring hierarchical data when applying the VARBRUL approach cannot be understated. If the hierarchical nature of the data is not honoured, the estimates for the social IVs will be artificially inflated leading to errors in interpretation (Gorman, 2009).

In terms of future research closer to the specific findings, at PNU, professors could turn their attention to gaining skills specific for teaching these L2 learners who have been exposed to a less-than-optimal L2 learning experience throughout their academic careers. Research could be done on better methods to more successfully teach this student body. Given the barriers to PNU students in practicing conversational English, professors could recommend applications, study services, tutors, and other resources to compensate for this specific deficit, and research could be done on optimal study supports.

7.6 Recommendations for Saudi L2 education

There are three areas where Saudi L2 English education can improve: in the ways teachers and the curriculum motivate students, and in the ways the family of the student can motivate the students, and keeping the student perspective in

mind when making any improvements. Firstly, the results from the qualitative data collection show that Saudi professors play a crucial role in the success or lack thereof of their students. University teachers could take into consideration that they are receiving learners who had a low-quality educational experience in school. Many students reported frustration when trying to get teachers to answer their questions. University teachers therefore might benefit from realising they need to adopt strategies that would accommodate all learners, such as using Arabic to explain difficult concepts. This educational approach is actually recommended in research in the Saudi context that has demonstrated that students prefer Arabic when learning about complex concepts in lessons (Almohaimeed and Almurshed, 2018). Teachers might see their efficacy improve if they take into consideration their learners' hopes and wishes, and adapt activities that centralise around them. Students also seem to need some exposure to English outside the classroom. Teachers could consider different educational solutions by recognising that students need to have more such opportunities, and could guide their learners on technological resources and other strategies to increase their opportunities.

In addition to being motivated by teachers and curriculum, students are also motivated by their families. Students would benefit if teachers acknowledged this, and it would be helpful if they encouraged a family-level approach to L2 English learning. Parents have a role to play as well. Parents could be in the position to present a positive role model for the learners, and family members – especially those with English competency – have the option of adopting effective support strategies that would enhance the learners' motivation. Parents could also find constructive ways to maintain their daughters' motivation to learn English, and continue to encourage them after they choose their major. Family members can also promote positive attitudes towards their daughters' learning experience.

Finally, it is crucial for educational policy makers to regularly survey learners' views and recommendations regarding the learning experience, and ask about ways to enhance the curriculum and teaching methods. One of the challenges for education in Saudi Arabia is that students are assigned a pre-defined curriculum that does not reflects learners' interests and needs (Rahman and

Alhaisoni, 2013), which can be a source of demotivation for learners. Surveying learners' opinions about the various components of the learning experience might improve the L2 learning outcomes, and would provide teachers a stronger foundation on which to base their pedagogy.

7.7 Conclusion

In conclusion, this mixed-methods study of female Saudi L2 learners of English at a public university found that although the students were motivated toward L2 learning, the L2MSS was not the appropriate model to apply, as the students had developed a collective future L2 self heavily influenced by family desires and cultural considerations. This collective self-concept could both serve to motivate as well as demotivate students, depending upon their specific circumstances. While students were motivated, their motivation toward target variable production was mitigated by how important they saw the achievement of this task to their future L2 goals, which typically involved identifying a career that involved L2 English usage on a regular basis. If the students felt that they needed to achieve target variable production in order to meet these goals, they prioritised this. However, even highly motivated students did not produce TLA reliably if they did not see target variable production as important to achieving their future L2 selves.

Finally, in order to improve L2 motivation in female Saudi English language learners at the university level, the learning context and experience deserves a complete evaluation. Teacher behaviour, curriculum design, and family interactions could all be modified in practical ways to improve L2 motivation in this group. This would inevitably lead to improved L2 learning in these female Saudi English language learners, many of whom are dreaming of a career that includes English. This would be consistent with the national goals of Saudi's Vision 2030, as well as with the personal goals of every Saudi family.

References

Al-Abed Al-Haq, F. and Smadi, O. (1996) ‘Spread of English and Westernization in Saudi Arabia’, *World Englishes*, 15(3), pp. 307–317.

Alamer, A. and Lee, J. (2019) ‘A Motivational Process Model Explaining L2 Saudi Students’ Achievement of English’, *System*, 87, pp. 1–21. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2019.102133.

Albahlal, F. (2019) ‘Motivational and Self-identity Changes Experienced by Saudi EFL Students in USA’, *Journal of Applied Linguistics and Language Research*, 6(1), pp. 113–136.

Albalawi, F. (2017) *L2 Demotivation among Saudi Learners of English: The Role of the Language Learning Mindsets*. PhD thesis. University of Nottingham. Available at: http://eprints.nottingham.ac.uk/52351/ (Accessed: 3 July 2020).

Al-Braik, M. (2007) ‘Performance of Major English Students at King Faisal University: General Trends’, *Scientific Journal of King Faisal University*, 8(2), pp. 221–235.

Al-Hajailan, T. (2006) *Teaching English in Saudi Arabia*. Aldar Alsalwatia. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/335310685_The_Future_of_Teaching_English_in_Saudi_Arabia (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alharbi, F. (2017) *The Dynamics of the L2 Motivational Self System among Saudi Study Abroad Students*. PhD thesis. University of South Florida. Available at: https://scholarcommons.usf.edu/etd/6672.

Alhawsawi, S. (2013) *Investigating Student Experiences of Learning English as a Foreign Language in a Preparatory Programme in a Saudi university*. PhD thesis. University of Sussex. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/292869477_Investigating_Student_Experiences_of_Learning_English_as_a_Foreign_Language_in_a_Preparatory_Programme_in_a_Saudi_university (Accessed: 28 July 2020).

Alhaysony, M. (2012) ‘An Analysis of Article Errors among Saudi Female EFL Students: A Case Study’, *Asian Social Science*, 8(12), pp. 55–66.

Al-Hazmi, M., Hammad, M. and Al-Shahrani, H. (2017) ‘Obstacles of Saudi Woman Work in the Mixed Environment: A Field Study’, *International Education Studies*, 10(8), pp. 128–144. doi: 10.5539/ies.v10n8p128.

Al-Hoorie, A. (2016) ‘Unconscious Motivation. Part II: Implicit Attitudes and L2 Achievement’, *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(4), pp. 619–649. doi: 10.14746/ssllt.2016.6.4.4.

Alhoorie, A. H. (2016) ‘Unconscious motivation. Part II: Implicit attitudes and L2 achievement’. Available at: https://core.ac.uk/reader/154446486 (Accessed: 23 June 2020).

Al-Jarf, R. (2008) ‘Impact of English as an International Language (EIL) upon Arabic in Saudi Arabia.’, *Asian EFL Journal,* 10(4), pp. 193–210.

Al-Johani, H. (2009) *Finding a Way Forward: The Impact of Teachers’ Strategies, Beliefs and Knowledge on Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia*. PhD thesis. University of Strathclyde. Available at: http://oleg.lib.strath.ac.uk:80/R/?func=dbin-jump-full&object_id=11539 (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alkubaidi, M. (2014) ‘The Relationship between Saudi English Major University Students’ Writing Performance and Their Learning Style and Strategy Use’, *English Language Teaching*, 7(4), pp. 83–95. doi: 10.5539/elt.v7n4p83.

Almahboob, I. (2009) *The L2 Acquisition of English Articles by L1 Speakers of Saudi Arabic*. PhD thesis. University of Essex. Available at: https://ethos.bl.uk/ProcessOrderDetailsDirect.do?documentId=1&thesisTitle=The+L2+acquisition+of+English+articles+by+L1+speakers+of+Saudi+Arabic&eprintId=510489 (Accessed: 16 July 2020).

Almansour, S. (2015) ‘The Challenges of International Collaboration: Perspectives from Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University’, *Cogent Education*, 2(1), pp. 1–13. doi: 10.1080/2331186X.2015.1118201.

Almohaimeed, M. and Almurshed, H. (2018) ‘Foreign Language Learners’ Attitudes and Perceptions of L1 Use in L2 Classroom’, *Arab World English Journal*, 9(4), pp. 433–446. doi: 10.24093/awej/vol9no4.32.

Al-Mutairi, N. (2007) *The Influence of Educational and Sociocultural Factors on the Learning Styles and Strategies of Female Students in Saudi Arabia*. PhD thesis. University of Leicester.

Al-Nafisah, K. (2000) *A Study of the Curriculum and Methodology for the Teaching of English in Saudi Arabia with Particular Reference to Learning Difficulties Encountered by Students*. PhD thesis. University of Wales. Available at: https://ethos.bl.uk/OrderDetails.do?uin=uk.bl.ethos.635703 (Accessed: 27 July 2020).

Al-Otaibi, G. (2004) *Language Learning Strategy Use among Saudi EFL Students and its Relationship to Language Proficiency Level, Gender and Motivation*. PhD thesis. Indiana University of Pennsylvania. Available at: https://search.proquest.com/openview/62448815d40582ef3eec3dd99b6640a6/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y (Accessed: 23 June 2020).

Al-Qahtani, A. (2015) *Relationships between Intercultural Contact and L2 Motivation for a Group of Undergraduate Saudi Students during their First Year in the UK*. PhD thesis. University of Leeds. Available at: http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk/8279/ (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Al-Qahtani, A. (2017a) ‘A Study of the Language Learning Motivation of Saudi Military Cadets’, *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 6(4), pp. 163–172. doi: 10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.6n.4p.163.

Al-Qahtani, A. (2017b) ‘The L2 Motivational Self System and Religious Interest among Saudi Military Cadets: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach’, *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 7(5), pp. 86–94.

Al-Qahtani, A. (2018) *English Language Learning Motivation and English Language Learning Anxiety in Saudi Military Cadets: A Structural Equation Modelling Approach*. Rochester, NY: Social Science Research Network. doi: 10.2139/ssrn.3258767.

Al-Qahtani, A. (2020) ‘The Relationship between the Saudi Cadets’ Learning Motivation and their Vocabulary Knowledge’, *English Language Teaching*, 13(4), pp. 1–10.

Alqahtani, M. (2011) *An Investigation into the Language Needs of Saudi Students Studying in British Postgraduate Programmes and the Cultural Differences Impacting on them*. PhD thesis. University of Southampton. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/277875733_An_investigation_into_the_language_needs_of_Saudi_students_studying_in_British_postgraduate_programmes_and_the_cultural_differences_impacting_on_them (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alrabai, F. (2014) ‘A Model of Foreign Language Anxiety in the Saudi EFL Context’, *English Language Teaching*, 7(7), pp. 82–101.

Alrabai, F. (2016) ‘Factors Underlying Low Achievement of Saudi EFL Learners’, *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 6(3), pp. 21–37. doi: 10.5539/ijel.v6n3p21.

Alrabai, F. (2018) ‘Learning English in Saudi Arabia’, in Moskovsky, C. and Picard, M. (eds) *English As a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia: New Insights into Teaching and Learning English*. Routledge, pp. 102–119. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/327034885_Learning_English_in_Saudi_Arabia (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alrabai, F. and Moskovsky, C. (2016) ‘The Relationship between Learners’ Affective Variables and Second Language Achievement’, *Arab World English Journal*, 7(2), pp. 77–103. doi: 10.24093/awej/vol7no2.6.

Alrahaili, M. (2013) *Predictors of L2 Attitudes and Motivational Intensity: A Cross-sectional Study in the Saudi EFL Context*. PhD thesis. The University of Newcastle.

Alrahaili, M. (2018) ‘Cultural and Linguistic Factors in the Saudi EFL Context’, in Moskovsky, C. and Picard, M. (eds) *English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia: New Insights into Teaching and Learning English*. Routledge, pp. 85–101. doi: 10.4324/9781315688466-4.

Alrashidi, O. and Phan, H. (2015) ‘Education Context and English Teaching and Learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: An Overview’, *English Language Teaching*, 8(5), pp. 33–44. doi: 10.5539/elt.v8n5p33.

Alresheedi, H. (2014) *Motivation of Female Students Learning English as a Foreign Language at Qassim University*. MA Thesis. State University of New York at Fredonia.

Al-Sadan, I. (2010) 'Educational Assessment in Saudi Arabian Schools', *Assessment in Education*, 7(1), pp. 143–155.

Al-Seghayer, K. (2011) *English Teaching in Saudi Arabia: Status, Issues, and Challenges*. Hala.

Alshahrani, A. (2016) 'L2 Motivational Self System Among Arab EFL Learners: Saudi Perspective', *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 5(5), pp. 145–152. doi: 10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.5n.5p.145.

Al-Shehri, E. (2013) *Motivational Strategies: The Perceptions of EFL Teachers and Students in the Saudi Higher Education Context*. PhD thesis. University of Salford. Available at: http://www.macrothink.org/journal/index.php/ijele/article/view/11727 (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alshehri, M. (2018) *Potential Changes in Saudi Students' Motivations and Attitudes towards Learning English as a Foreign Language after Immersion in an L2 Learning Environment*. PhD thesis. University of Southampton. Available at: https://eprints.soton.ac.uk/426442/ (Accessed: 3 July 2020).

Alshoaibi, M. (2018) *Identity Negotiation, Saudi Women, and the Impact of the 2011 Royal Decree: An Investigation of the Cultural, Religious, and Societal Shifts among Women in the Saudi Arabian Public Sphere*. PhD thesis. Duquesne University. Available at: https://dsc.duq.edu/etd/1729/ (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alshuaifan, A. (2009) *Key Elements of the ESL/EFL Teacher Preparation Program at the University of Ha'il, Saudi Arabia: EFL Practitioners and Faculty Perceptions*. PhD thesis. University of West Virginia. Available at: /paper/Key-elements-of-the-ESL%2FEFL-teacher-preparation-at-Alshuaifan/88bc1120a8339873c25161ba2e7d46416344f452 (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Alsowiliem, A. (2014) *The Acquisition of Definite and Indefinite Articles in English by L1 Speakers of Saudi Arabic*. PhD thesis. University of Sheffield.

Alsubaie, M. (2014) *An Exploration of Reading Comprehension Challenges in Saudi Arabian University EFL Students*. PhD thesis. The University of Exeter. Available at: /paper/An-exploration-of-reading-comprehension-challenges-Alsubaie/be183d82a038dbcf14084ffe3825bbfdf7f440f0 (Accessed: 1 August 2020).

Alyami, R. (2016) *A Case Study of the Tatweer School System in Saudi Arabia: The Perceptions of Leaders and Teachers*. PhD thesis. University of Reading.

Alzamil, A. (2015) *The Second Language Acquisition of English Indefiniteness and Genericity by L1 Saudi Arabic and L1 Mandarin Speakers*. PhD thesis. University of Newcastle.

Ames, C. (1992) 'Classrooms: Goals, Structures, and Student Motivation', *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 84(3), pp. 261–71.

Assulaimani, T. (2015) *The L2 Motivational Self System among Saudi Learners of English*. PhD thesis. The University of Newcastle.

Atkinson, J. (1957) 'Motivational Determinants of Risk-taking Behavior', *Psychological Review*, 64(6), pp. 359–372. doi: 10.1037/h0043445.

ATLAS.ti (2017). ATLAS.ti Scientific Software Development GmbH. Available at: https://atlasti.com/2020/01/31/citing-atlas-ti-in-your-research/#:~:text=It%20is%20quite%20common%20to,ti%20Scientific%20Software%20Development%20GmbH.

Awad, D. (2011) *The Acquisition of English Articles by Arabic Speakers*. PhD thesis. Lancaster University. Available at: https://ethos.bl.uk/ProcessOrderDetailsDirect.do?documentId=1&thesisTitle=The+acquisition+of+English+articles+by+Arabic+speakers&eprintId=618333 (Accessed: 16 July 2020).

Bajaber, A. (2020) *The Impact Of Cultural Values In Advertising On Saudi Consumers' Loyalty*. Doctor of Philosophy. University of North Dakota. Available at: https://commons.und.edu/theses/3090.

Baki, R. (2004) 'Gender-Segregated Education in Saudi Arabia: Its Impact on Social Norms and the Saudi Labor Market', *Education Policy Analysis Archives*, 12(28), pp. 1–15.

Bandura, A. (1993) 'Perceived Self-Efficacy in Cognitive Development and Functioning', *Educational Psychologist*, 28(2), pp. 117–148. doi: 10.1207/s15326985ep2802_3.

Bataineh, R. (2005) 'Jordanian Undergraduate EFL Students' Errors in the Use of the Indefinite Article', *Asian EFL Journal*, 7(1), pp. 56–76.

Bayley, R. (2005) 'Second Language Acquisition and Sociolinguistic Variation', *Second Language Acquisition*, XIV(2), pp. 1–15.

Bayley, R. and Tarone, E. (2012) 'Variationist Perspectives', in Gass, S. and Mackey, A. (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. Routledge, pp. 41–56.

Beebe, L. (1977) 'The Influence of the Listener on Code-Switching', *Language Learning*, 27(2), pp. 331–339. doi: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1977.tb00125.x.

Beebe, L. (1980) ‘Sociolinguistic Variation and Style Shifting in Second Language Acquisition’, *Language Learning*, 30(2), pp. 433–445. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1980.tb00327.x.

Beinhoff, B. and Rasinger, S. (2016) ‘The Future of Identity Research: Impact and New Developments’, in Preece, S. (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Identity*. Routledge, pp. 572–585. Available at: https://www.routledge.com/The-Routledge-Handbook-of-Language-and-Identity-1st-Edition/Preece/p/book/9780367353896 (Accessed: 28 July 2020).

Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z. and Ryan, S. (2015) ‘L2 Motivation Research 2005-2014: Understanding a Publication Surge and a Changing Landscape’, *System*, 55, pp. 155–157.

Boyatzis, R. (1998) *Transforming Qualitative Information: Thematic Analysis and Code Development*. SAGE Publications. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/242364922_Transforming_Qualitative_Information_Thematic_Analysis_and_Code_Development (Accessed: 28 July 2020).

Brown, H. (1990) ‘M&Ms for Language Classrooms? Another Look at Motivation’, in Alatis, J. E. (ed.) *Linguistics, language Teaching and Language Acquisition: The Interdependence of Theory, Practice and Research*. *Georgetown University Round Table on Languages and Linguistics*, Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.

Bursac, Z. *et al.* (2008) ‘Purposeful Selection of Variables in Logistic Regression’, *Source Code for Biology and Medicine*, 3(17), pp. 1–8. doi: 10.1186/1751-0473-3-17.

Christophersen, P. (1939) *The Articles: A Study of Their Theory and Use in English*. Munksgaard.

CIA (2020) *Middle East: Saudi Arabia — The World Factbook - Central Intelligence Agency*, *Central Intelligence Agency*. Available at: https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/geos/sa.html (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Covington, M. (1992) *Making the Grade: A Self-Worth Perspective on Motivation and School Reform*. Cambridge University Press. Available at: https://books.google.com/books/about/Making_the_Grade.html?id=oNiUqagKCiwC (Accessed: 23 June 2020).

Covington, M. (2000) ‘Goal Theory, Motivation, and School Achievement: An Integrative Review’, *Annual Review of Psychology*, 51(1), pp. 171–200. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.51.1.171.

Csizér, K. (2019) ‘The L2 Motivational Self System’, in Lamb, M. et al. (eds) *The Palgrave Handbook of Motivation for Language Learning*. Cham: Springer International Publishing, pp. 71–93. doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-28380-3_4.

Csizér, K. and Kormos, J. (2009) ‘Learning Experiences, Selves, and Motivated Learning Behaviour: A Comparative Analysis of Structural Models for Hungarian Secondary and University Learners of English’, in Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 98–119.

Davis-Kean, P. (2005) ‘The Influence of Parent Education and Family Income on Child Achievement: The Indirect Role of Parental Expectations and the Home Environment.’, *Journal of Family Psychology*, 19(2), pp. 294–304. doi: 10.1037/0893-3200.19.2.294.

Deci, E. and Ryan, R. (1985) *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. Plenum Press.

Deci, E. and Ryan, R. (2000) ‘The “What” and “Why” of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behavior’, *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), pp. 227–268. doi: 10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01.

Dickerson, L. (1975) ‘The Learner’s Interlanguage as a System of Variable Rules’, *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(4), pp. 401–407. doi: 10.2307/3585624.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994) ‘Motivation and Motivating in the Foreign Language Classroom’, *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(3), pp. 273–284. doi: 10.2307/330107.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: Quantitative, Qualitative, and Mixed Methodologies*. Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009) ‘The L2 Motivational Self System’, in Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 9–42.

Dörnyei, Z. *et al.* (2012) ‘How to Design and Analyze Surveys in Second Language Acquisition Research’, in Mackey, A. and Gass, S. (eds) *Research Methods in Second Language Acquisition: A Practical Guide*. Routledge, pp. 74–94.

Dörnyei, Z. and Ottó, I. (1998) ‘Motivation in Action’, *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 4, pp. 43–69.

Dörnyei, Z. and Ryan, S. (2015) *The Psychology of the Language Learner Revisited*. Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, D. E. (2009) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (2011) *Teaching and Researching Motivation*. 2nd ed. Longman.

Drummond, R. (2010) *Sociolinguistic Variation in a Second Language: The Influence of Local Accent on the Pronunciation of Non-native English Speakers Living in Manchester*. PhD thesis. The University of Manchester. Available at:

http://search.proquest.com/docview/1314569311/abstract/FF17FA4676214461PQ/1 (Accessed: 15 July 2020).

Drummond, R. and Schleef, E. (2016) 'Identity in Variationist Sociolinguistics', in Preece, S. (ed.) *The Routledge Handbook of Language and Identity*. Routledge, pp. 50–65.

Ebad, R. (2014) 'The Role and Impact of English as a Language and a Medium of Instruction in Saudi Higher Education Institutions: Students-Instructors Perspective', *Studies in English Language Teaching*, 2(2), pp. 140–148.

Eckert, P. (1989) *Jocks and Burnouts: Social Categories and Identity in the High School*. Teachers College Press.

Eckert, P. (2012) 'Three Waves of Variation Study: The Emergence of Meaning in the Study of Sociolinguistic Variation', *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 41(1), pp. 87–100. doi: 10.1146/annurev-anthro-092611-145828.

Edgar, D., Azhar, A. and Duncan, P. (2016) 'The Impact of the Saudization Policy on Recruitment and Retention: A Case Study of the Banking Sector in Saudi Arabia', *Journal of Business*, 1(5), pp. 1–14. doi: 10.18533/job.v1i5.51.

Ekiert, M. and Han, Z. (2016) 'L1-Fraught Difficulty: The Case of L2 Acquisition of English Articles by Slavic Speakers', in Alonso, R. (ed.) *Crosslinguistic Influence in Second Language Acquisition*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 147–172. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/316158381_L1-Fraught_Difficulty_The_Case_of_L2_Acquisition_of_English_Articles_by_Slavic_Speakers (Accessed: 16 July 2020).

Ellis, R. (2015) *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. 2nd ed. Oxford University Press. Available at: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318736250_Understanding_second_language_acquisition_2nd_edition_Rod_Ellis_Oxford_University_Press_Oxford_2015_x_365_pp (Accessed: 19 July 2020).

Elwerfalli, I. (2013) *The Acquisition of the English Article System by Libyan Learners of English: A Comparison between Deductive Teaching and Textual Enhanced Input Strategies*. PhD thesis. University of Northumbria at Newcastle.

Eusafzai, H. (2013) 'L2 Motivational Selves of Saudi Preparatory Year EFL Learners: A Quantitative Study', *Arab World English Journal*, 4(4), pp. 183–201.

Falout, J., Elwood, J. and Hood, M. (2009) 'Demotivation: Affective States and Learning Outcomes', *System*, 37(3), pp. 403–417. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2009.03.004.

Faruk, S. (2013) 'English Language Teaching in Saudi Arabia: A World System Perspective', *Scientific Bulletin of the Politehnica University of Timişoara Transactions on Modern Languages*, 12(1), pp. 73–80.

Fasold, R. (1991) 'The Quiet Demise of Variable Rules', *American Speech*, 66(1), pp. 3–21. doi: 10.2307/455431.

Fodor, J. and Sag, I. (1982) ‘Referential and Quantificational Indefinites’, *Linguistics and Philosophy*, 5(3), pp. 355–398. doi: 10.1007/BF00351459.

Garcia Mayo, M. (2008) ‘The Acquisition of Four Nongeneric Uses of the Article the by Spanish EFL Learners’, *System*, 36(4), pp. 550–565. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2008.08.001.

Gardner, R. (1985) *The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: Technical Report*. Ontario, Canada: University of Western Ontario. Available at: http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/AMTBmanual.pdf.

Gardner, R. (1986) *Social Psychology and Second Language Learning: The Role of Attitudes and Motivation*. Hodder Arnold.

Gardner, R. (2000) ‘Correlation, Causation, Motivation, and Second Language Acquisition’, *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie Canadienne*, 41(1), pp. 10–24. doi: 10.1037/h0086854.

Gardner, R. and Lambert, W. (1972) *Attitudes and Motivation in Second-Language Learning*. Newbury House Publishers.

General Authority for Statistics (2020) *General Authority for Statistics*. Available at: https://www.stats.gov.sa/en (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Gorman, K. (2009) ‘Hierarchical Regression Modeling for Language Research’, *IRCS Technical Reports Series*. Available at: https://repository.upenn.edu/ircs_reports/202.

Gorman, K. and Johnson, D. (2013) ‘Quantitative Analysis’, in Bayley, R., Cameron, R., and Lucas, C. (eds) *The Oxford Handbook of Sociolinguistics*. Oxford University Press, pp. 214–240.

Hagler, A. (2014) ‘A Study of Attitudes toward Western Culture among Saudi University Students’, *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives*, 11(1), pp. 1–12.

Hawkins, J. (1978) *Definiteness and Indefiniteness: A Study in Reference and Grammaticality Prediction*. Routledge.

Hickey, D. (2003) ‘Engaged Participation versus Marginal Nonparticipation: A Stridently Sociocultural Approach to Achievement Motivation’, *The Elementary School Journal*, 103(4), pp. 401–429. doi: 10.1086/499733.

Higgins, E. (1987) ‘Self-discrepancy: A Theory Relating Self and Affect’, *Psychological Review*, 94(3), pp. 319–340.

Higgins, E. (1998) ‘Promotion and Prevention: Regulatory Focus as A Motivational Principle’, *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 30, pp. 1–46. doi: 10.1016/S0065-2601(08)60381-0.

Higgins, E. and Spiegel, S. (2004) ‘Promotion and Prevention Strategies for Self-regulation: A Motivated Cognition Perspective’, in Baumeister, R. and

Vohs, K. (eds) *Handbook of Self-regulation: Research, Theory, and Applications*. The Guilford Press, pp. 171–187.

Higher Education Statistics (2016) *Ministry of Education*. Available at: https://pbs.twimg.com/profile_images/882666205/mohe_new_logo_400x400.png (Accessed: 3 August 2020).

Holliday, A. (2015) 'Qualitative Research and Analysis', in Paltridge, B. and Phakiti, A. (eds) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource*. Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 49–62.

Holmquist, J. (1985) 'Social Correlates of a Linguistic Variable: A Study in a Spanish Village', *Language in Society*, 14(2), pp. 191–203. doi: 10.1017/S004740450001112X.

Huebner, T. (1983) *A Longitudinal Analysis of the Acquisition of English*. Karoma Publishers.

Ionin, T., Ko, H. and Wexler, K. (2004) 'Article Semantics in L2 Acquisition: The Role of Specificity', *Language Acquisition*, 12(1), pp. 3–69. doi: 10.1207/s15327817la1201_2.

Ionin, T., Zubizarreta, M. and Maldonado, S. (2008) 'Sources of Linguistic Knowledge in the Second Language Acquisition of English Articles', *Lingua*, 118(4), pp. 554–576. doi: 10.1016/j.lingua.2006.11.012.

Islam, M., Lamb, M. and Chambers, G. (2013) 'The L2 Motivational Self System and National Interest: A Pakistani Perspective', *System*, 41(2), pp. 231–244. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2013.01.025.

Ivankova, N. and Greer, J. (2015) 'Mixed Methods Research and Analysis', in Paltridge, B. and Phakiti, A. (eds) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource*. Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 63–81.

Iwaniec, J. (2018) 'The Effects of Parental Education Level and School Location on Language Learning Motivation', *The Language Learning Journal*, pp. 1–15. doi: 10.1080/09571736.2017.1422137.

Jang, Y. and Lee, J. (2019) 'The Effects of Ideal and Ought-to L2 Selves on Korean EFL Learners' Writing Strategy Use and Writing Quality', *Reading and Writing*, 32(5), pp. 1129–1148. doi: 10.1007/s11145-018-9903-0.

Johnson, D. (2009) 'Getting off the GoldVarb Standard: Introducing Rbrul for Mixed-effects Variable Rule Analysis', *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 3(1), pp. 359–383.

Kay, P. and McDaniel, C. (1979) 'On the Logic of Variable Rules', *Language in Society*, 8(2), pp. 151–187.

Keller, J. (1987) 'Development and Use of the ARCS Model of Motivational Design', *Journal of Instructional Development*, 10(3), pp. 2–10.

Keller, J. M. (1983) ‘Motivational design of instruction’, in Reigeluth, C. M. (ed.) *Instructional-design Theories and Models: An overview of their current status*. Psychology Press, pp. 383–434.

Kennedy, K. (2012) *What We Don’t Learn in the Classroom: The Acquisition of Sociolinguistic Competence during Study Abroad*. PhD thesis. University of California Davis. Available at: https://search.proquest.com/openview/f2a67b5ce345e2ef4da1bb5af1c92637/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=18750&diss=y (Accessed: 26 July 2020).

Kharma, N. (1981) ‘Analysis of the Errors Committed by Arab University Students in the Use of the English Definite/Indefinite Articles’, *IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 19(1–4), pp. 333–345.

Kormos, J. *et al.* (2008) ‘“Great Expectations”: The motivational profile of Hungarian English language students’, *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education*, 7(1), pp. 65–82. doi: 10.1177/1474022207084884.

Kormos, J. and Kiddle, T. (2013) ‘The Role of Socio-economic Factors in Motivation to Learn English as a Foreign Language: The Case of Chile’, *System*, 41(2), pp. 399–412. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2013.03.006.

Labov, W. (1963) ‘The social motivation of a sound change’, *Word*, 19(3), pp. 273–309.

Labov, W. (1966) *The Social Stratification of English in New York City*. Center for Applied Linguistics.

Labov, W. (1972) *Sociolinguistic Patterns*. University of Pennsylvania Press.

Lamb, M. (2004) ‘Integrative Motivation in a Globalizing World’, *System*, 32(1), pp. 3–19. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2003.04.002.

Lamb, M. (2012) ‘A Self System Perspective on Young Adolescents’ Motivation to Learn English in Urban and Rural Settings’, *Language Learning*, 62(4), pp. 997–1023. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00719.x.

Lamb, M. (2013) ‘“Your Mum and Dad can’t Teach You!”: Constraints on Agency among Rural Learners of English in the Developing World’, *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 34(1), pp. 14–29. doi: 10.1080/01434632.2012.697467.

Lantolf, J. and Appel, G. (1994) *Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research*. Greenwood Publishing Group.

Locke, E. and Latham, G. (1990) *A Theory of Goal Setting & Task Performance*. Prentice Hall.

Lyons, C. (1999) *Definiteness*. Cambridge University Press. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/36797132/Lyons_Definiteness (Accessed: 16 July 2020).

MacIntyre, P., Mackinnon, S. and Clement, R. (2009) 'Toward the Development of a Scale to Assess Possible Selves as a Source of Language Learning Motivation', in Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds) *Motivation, Language Identity, and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 193–214.

Madkhali, A. (2016) *A Study of the L2 Motivational Self-System in an ESL Intensive Context Among Saudi Arabian Students*. MA Thesis. Saint Cloud State University.

Mahboob, A. and Elyas, T. (2014) 'English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia', *World Englishes*, 33(1), pp. 128–142. doi: 10.1111/weng.12073.

Markus, H. and Nurius, P. (1986) 'Possible Selves', *American Psychologist*, 41(9), pp. 954–969. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.41.9.954.

Masgoret, A. and Gardner, R. (2003) 'Attitudes, Motivation, and Second Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Studies Conducted by Gardner and Associates', *Language Learning*, 53(S1), pp. 167–210. doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.00227.

Massri, R. (2017) *Attitudes of Saudi Foundation Year Students towards Learning English as a Foreign Language: A Qualitative Study*. PhD thesis. University of York.

Master, P. (2002) 'Information Structure and English Article Pedagogy', *System*, 30(3), pp. 331–348. doi: 10.1016/S0346-251X(02)00018-0.

Ministry of Health (2015). Available at: https://www.moh.gov.sa/en/Pages/default.aspx (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Ministry of Tourism (2019). Available at: https://mt.gov.sa/en/Pages/default.aspx#2 (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Moskovsky, C. *et al.* (2016) 'The L2 Motivational Self System and L2 Achievement: A Study of Saudi EFL Learners', *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(3), pp. 641–654. doi: 10.1111/modl.12340.

Moskovsky, C. and Alrabai, F. (2009) 'Intrinsic Motivation in Saudi Learners of English as a Foreign Language', *The Open Applied Linguistics Journal*, 2(1), pp. 1–10. doi: 10.2174/1874913500902010001.

Nagle, C. (2018) 'Motivation, Comprehensibility, and Accentedness in L2 Spanish: Investigating Motivation as a Time-varying Predictor of Pronunciation Development', *The Modern Language Journal*, 102(1), pp. 199–217. doi: 10.1111/modl.12461.

Nance, C. *et al.* (2016) 'Identity, Accent Aim, and Motivation in Second Language Users: New Scottish Gaelic Speakers' Use of Phonetic Variation', *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, 20(2), pp. 164–191. doi: 10.1111/josl.12173.

Nikitina, L., Mohd, D. Z. and Cheong, S. L. (2016) ‘Construction and validation of a questionnaire on language learning motivation’, *Zbornik Instituta za pedagoska istrazivanja*, 48(2), pp. 284–300.

Norton, B. and Toohey, K. (2011) ‘Identity, Language Learning, and Social Change’, *Language Teaching*, 44(4), pp. 412–446. doi: 10.1017/S0261444811000309.

Norton Peirce, B. (1995) ‘Social Identity, Investment, and Language Learning’, *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), pp. 9–31. doi: 10.2307/3587803.

Oppenheim, A. (2000) *Questionnaire Design, Interviewing and Attitude Measurement*. Bloomsbury Academic.

O’Sullivan, K. (2007) *The Role of Motivational Factors in the Apparent Lack of Success in English Language Learning in Arabic-speaking Countries, Particularly Oman and the United Arab Emirates*. PhD thesis. University of Portsmouth.

Papi, M. *et al.* (2019) ‘Rethinking L2 Motivation Research: The 2 × 2 Model of L2 Self-guides’, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 41(2), pp. 337–361. doi: 10.1017/S0272263118000153.

Pavlenko, A. and Blackledge, A. (2004) ‘Introduction: New theoretical Approaches to the Study of Negotiation of Identities in Multilingual Contexts’, in Pavlenko, A. and Blackledge, A. (eds) *Negotiation of Identities in Multilingual Contexts*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 1–33.

Phakiti, A. (2015) ‘Quantitative Research and Analysis’, in Paltridge, B. and Phakiti, A. (eds) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource*. Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 27–47.

Pham, H. (2016) *An Ecological Perspective on the Motivational Trajectories of High School Students Learning English in Rural Areas in Vietnam*. PhD thesis. Massey University. Available at: https://mro.massey.ac.nz/handle/10179/9878 (Accessed: 28 July 2020).

PNU (no date) *History of the University*. Available at: https://www.pnu.edu.sa/en/Pages/UniversityHistory.aspx (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Polat, N. and Schallert, D. (2013) ‘Kurdish Adolescents Acquiring Turkish: Their Self-Determined Motivation and Identification with L1 and L2 Communities as Predictors of L2 Accent Attainment’, *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(3), pp. 745–763.

Poupore, G. (2016) ‘Measuring Group Work Dynamics and its Relation with L2 Learners’ Task Motivation and Language Production’, *Language Teaching Research*, 20(6), pp. 719–740. doi: 10.1177/1362168815606162.

Prévost, P. and White, L. (2000) ‘Missing Surface Inflection or Impairment in Second Language Acquisition? Evidence from Tense and Agreement’, *Second Language Research*, 16(2), pp. 103–133. doi: 10.1191/026765800677556046.

R Core Team (2019) *R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing*. Vienna, Austria: R Foundation for Statistical Computing. Available at: http://www.R-project.org.

Rahman, M. and Alhaisoni, E. (2013) ‘Teaching English in Saudi Arabia: Prospects and Challenges’, *Academic Research International*, 4(1), pp. 112–118.

Rijal, N. K. and Khoirina, R. Z. (2019) ‘The Roles of Civil Society to Changing of Women Driving Policy In Saudi Arabia: Case Women2Drive Campaign’, *Journal of Islamic World and Politics*, 3(1), pp. 435–447.

Ringer-Hilfinger, K. (2013) *The Acquisition of Sociolinguistic Variation by Study Abroad Students: The Case of American Students in Madrid*. PhD thesis. State University of New York at Albany. Available at: http://search.proquest.com/docview/1424829779/abstract/6AB533074D914B0DPQ/1 (Accessed: 15 July 2020).

Rose, H., McKinley, J. and Baffoe-Djan, J. (2019) *Data Collection Research Methods in Applied Linguistics*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Ryan, S. (2009) ‘Self and Identity in L2 Motivation in Japan: The Ideal L2 Self and Japanese Learners of English’, in Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 120–143.

Sarko, G. (2009) *The Acquisition of the English Article System by L1 Syrian Arab and French Learners of English*. PhD thesis. University of Essex. Available at: https://ethos.bl.uk/ProcessOrderDetailsDirect.do?documentId=1&thesisTitle=The+acquisition+of+the+English+article+system+by+L1+Syrian+Arab+and+French+learners+of+English&eprintId=502137 (Accessed: 16 July 2020).

Saudi Vision 2030 (2020). Available at: https://vision2030.gov.sa/en (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

Schunk, D., Meece, J. and Pintrich, P. (2014) *Motivation in Education: Theory, Research, and Applications*. Pearson.

Shoaib, A. and Dörnyei, Z. (2005) ‘Affect in Life-long Learning: Exploring L2 Motivation as a Dynamic Process.’, in Benson, P. and Nunan, D. (eds) *Learners’ Stories: Difference and Diversity in Language Learning*. Cambridge University Press, pp. 22–41.

Skinner, B. (1965) *Science and Human Behavior*. Simon and Schuster.

Swaantje, M. (2018) *Saudi Women and their Role in the Labour Market under Vision 2030*. BA thesis. Lund University.

Taguchi, T., Magid, M. and Papi, M. (2009) 'The L2 Motivational Self System among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian Learners of English: A Comparative Study', in Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 66–97. doi: 10.21832/9781847691293-005.

Tarone, E. and Parrish, B. (1988) 'Task-Related Variation in Interlanguage: The Case of Articles', *Language Learning*, 38(1), pp. 21–44. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1988.tb00400.x.

Teimouri, Y. (2017) 'L2 Selves, Emotions, and Motivated Behaviors', *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 39(4), pp. 681–709. doi: 10.1017/S0272263116000243.

Thomas, M. (1989) 'The Acquisition of English Articles by First- and Second-language Learners', *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 10(3), pp. 335–355.

Thompson, M. (2017) '"Saudi Vision 2030": A Viable Response to Youth Aspirations and Concerns?', *Asian Affairs*, 48(2), pp. 205–221. doi: 10.1080/03068374.2017.1313598.

Tremblay, P. (2020) 'Quantitative Methods in Second Language Learning Motivation Research: Gardner's Contributions and Some New Developments', in Al-Hoorie, A. and MacIntyre, P. (eds) *Contemporary Language Motivation Theory: 60 Years Since Gardner and Lambert (1959)*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 212–232.

Trenkic, D. (2007) 'Variability in Second Language Article Production: Beyond the Representational Deficit vs. Processing Constraints Debate', *Second Language Research*, 23(3), pp. 289–327. doi: 10.1177/0267658307077643.

Ushioda, E. (2001) 'Language Learning at University: Exploring the Role of Motivational Thinking', in Dörnyei, Z. and Schmidt, R. (eds) *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition*. University of Hawaii Press, pp. 99–125.

Ushioda, E. (2009) 'A Person-in-Context Relational View of Emergent Motivation, Self and Identity', in Dörnyei, Z. and Ushioda, E. (eds) *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 215–225.

Ushioda, E. (2015) 'Context and Complex Dynamic Systems Theory', in Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P., and Henry, A. (eds) *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 47–54.

Ushioda, E. (2016) 'Language Learning Motivation Through a Small Lens: A Research Agenda', *Language Teaching*, 49(4), pp. 564–577. doi: 10.1017/S0261444816000173.

Ushioda, E. (2019) 'Researching L2 Motivation: Past, Present and Future', in Lamb, M. et al. (eds) *The Palgrave Handbook of Motivation for Language Learning*. Palgrave Macmillan, pp. 661–682.

Ushioda, E. (2020) 'Researching L2 Motivation: Re-evaluating the Role of Qualitative Inquiry, or the "Wine and Conversation" Approach', in Al-Hoorie, A.

and MacIntyre, P. (eds) *Contemporary Language Motivation Theory: 60 Years Since Gardner and Lambert (1959)*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 194–211.

Ushioda, E. and Dörnyei, Z. (2012) 'Motivation', in Gass, S. and Mackey, A. (eds) *The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. Routledge, pp. 396–409.

Vallerand, R. (2012) 'From Motivation to Passion: In Search of the Motivational Processes Involved in a Meaningful Life', *Canadian Psychology/Psychologie canadienne*, 53(1), pp. 42–52. doi: 10.1037/a0026377.

van Minkelen, P *et al.* (2020) 'Using Self-determination Theory in Social Robots to Increase Motivation in L2 Word Learning', in *ACM Transactions on Human-Robot Interaction*. ACM. doi: 10.1145/3319502.337/4828.

Wagner, E. (2015) 'Survey Research', in Paltridge, B. and Phakiti, A. (eds) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource*. Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 83–99.

Weiner, B. (1992) *Human Motivation*. Psychology Press.

White, B. (2009) 'Accounting for L2-English Learners' Article Choices', *MSU Working Papers in SLS*, 1(1), pp. 14–37.

Wigfield, A. (1994) 'Expectancy-value Theory of Achievement Motivation: A Developmental Perspective', *Educational Psychology Review*, 6(1), pp. 49–78. doi: 10.1007/BF02209024.

Williams, M. and Burden, R. (1997) *Psychology for Language Teachers: A Social Constructivist Approach*. Cambridge University Press.

Winer, L. (1989) 'John R. Rickford Dimensions of a Creole Continuum: History, Texts, and Linguistic Analysis of Guyanese Creole', *Language Problems and Language Planning*, 13(1), pp. 82–85. doi: 10.1075/lplp.13.1.19win.

Wolfram, W. (1985) 'Variability in Tense Marking: A Case for the Obvious', *Language Learning*, 35(2), pp. 229–253. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1985.tb01026.x.

Woodrow, L. (2015) 'Researching Motivation', in Paltridge, B. and Phakiti, A. (eds) *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource*. Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 403–420.

Yizraeli, S. (2012) *Politics and Society in Saudi Arabia: The Crucial Years of Development 1960–1982*. Hurst & Co. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1080/00263206.2013.828472 (Accessed: 29 July 2020).

You, C. and Chan, L. (2015) 'The Dynamics of L2 Imagery in Future Motivational Self-guides', in Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P., and Alastair, H. (eds) *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning*. Multilingual Matters, pp. 397–418.

Young, R. (1988) ‘Variation and the Interlanguage Hypothesis’, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 10(3), pp. 281–302. doi: 10.1017/S0272263100007464.

Young, R. (1996) ‘Form-function Relations in Articles in English Interlanguage’, in Bayley, R. and Preston, D. R. (eds) *Second Language Acquisition and Linguistic Variation*. John Benjamins Publishing, pp. 135–176.

Young, R. and Bayley, R. (1996) ‘VARBRUL Analysis for Second Language Acquisition Research’, in Bayley, R. and Preston, D. (eds) *Second Language Acquisition and Linguistic Variation*. John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 253–306. doi: 10.1075/sibil.10.11you.

Appendices

Appendix A:
English Programmes at
Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University

The following English major programmes are provided:

1. English Literature
2. Linguistics (in Arabic)
3. Translation

Study Plan for Program: English literature	
College	**College of languages**
Department/ Program	**English literature**
Degree	**Bachelor**

Level 1						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Listening and Speaking**	LING 111T	3	3	College requirement	-
2.	**Reading and Writing**	LING 121T	3	3	College requirement	-
3.	**Introduction to Literature**	LITE 101T	3	3	College requirement	-
4.	**Introduction to Translation**	TRAN 111T	3	3	College requirement	-
5.	**Introduction to French Language**	FRNS 101T	3	3	College requirement	-
6.	**Arabic Composition**	ARAB 101	2	2	University requirement	-
Level 2						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	Pre-Request:
1.	**History of English Literature**	LITE 102T	3	3	Major requirement	LITE 101T
2.	**Dictionary Skills**	TRAN 131T	3	3	Major	-

					requirement	
3.	**Grammar**	LING 131T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	-
4.	**Advanced Writing**	LING 122T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	LING 121T
5.	**Principles of Mathematics**	MATH 100T	**3**	**4**	College requirement	-
6.	**Islamic Culture (1)**	ISLS 101	**2**	**2**	University requirement	-
Level 3						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**The Short Story**	LITE 221T	**2**	**2**	Major requirement	
2.	**Greek Theatre**	LITE 231T	**2**	**2**	Major requirement	
3.	**16th–and–17th–Century Poetry**	LITE 241T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	
4.	**Business Communication Skills**	BUS 241T	**3**	**3**	College requirement	
5.	**Islamic Culture (2)**	ISLS 202	**2**	**2**	University requirement	**ISLS 101**
6.	**Language Skills**	ARAB 202	**2**	**2**	University requirement	
7.	**Free Elective (1)**					
Level 4						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**

1.	**18th–Century Prose**	LITE 222T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	
2.	**Shakespeare**	LITE 232T	**2**	**2**	Major requirement	**LITE 231T**
3.	**Neoclassical and Romantic Poetry**	LITE 242T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	**LITE 241T**
4.	**Creative Writing**	LITE 211T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	**LING 122T**
5.	**Principles of Information and Technology Systems**	IT 101T	**2**	**3**	College requirement	
6.	**Islamic Culture (3)**	ISLS 303	**2**	**2**	University requirement	**ISLS 101**
7.	**Department Elective (1)**					
Level 5						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**19th–Century Novel**	LITE 323T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	**LITE 222T**
2.	**Victorian Poetry**	LITE 343T	**2**	**2**	Major requirement	
3.	**Methods of Research**	LITE 312T	**2**	**2**	Major requirement	**LING 122T**
4.	**Introduction to Interpreting**	TRAN 221T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	
5.	**Islamic Culture (4)**	ISLS 404	**2**	**2**	University requirement	**ISLS 101**

6.	**Department Elective** (2)					
Level 6						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Modern Novel**	LITE 324T	3	3	Major requirement	-
2.	**World Literature**	LITE 301T	2	2	Major requirement	-
3.	**Studies in American Literature**	LITE 361T	3	3	Major requirement	-
4.	**Literary Criticism** (1)	LITE 351T	2	2	Major requirement	-
5.	**Department Elective** (3)		3	3		
6.	**Free Elective** (2)					
Level 7						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Modern Poetry**	LITE 444T	3	3	Major requirement	-
2.	**Literary Criticism** (2)	LITE 452T	2	2	Major requirement	**LITE 351T**
3.	**Modern Theatre**	LITE 433T	3	3	Major requirement	-

4.	**Modern Arabic Literature in English**	LITE 461T	**2**	**2**	Major requirement	-
5.	**Department Elective** (4)		**3**	**3**		
6.	**Free Elective** (3)					
Level 8						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**:Multicultural American Literature**	LITE 462T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	**LITE 361T**
2.	**Contemporary Women's Literature**	LITE 463T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	-
3.	**Interdisciplinary Studies**	LITE 401T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	-
4.	**Graduation Project**	LITE 471T	**3**	**3**	Major requirement	**LITE 312T**
5.	**Free Elective** (4)					

الخطة الدراسية لبرنامج: اللغويات التطبيقية	
الكلية	اللغات
القسم / البرنامج	قسم اللغويات/ برنامج اللغويات التطبيقية
الدرجة العلمية	بكالوريوس

المستوى الأول						
	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
.1	الاستماع و التحدث	لغوي 111ت	3	3	متطلب كلية	-
.2	القراءة و الكتابة	لغوي 121ت	3	3	متطلب كلية	-
.3	مقدمة في الأدب	أدب 101ت	3	3	متطلب كلية	-
.4	مقدمة في الترجمة	ترجم 111ت	3	3	متطلب كلية	-
.5	مقدمة في اللغة الفرنسية	فرنس 101ت	3	3	متطلب كلية	-
.6	التحرير الكتابي	عرب 101	2	2	متطلب جامعة	-

نموذج الخطة الدراسية رمز النموذج: 0130-F090

المستوى الثاني

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
.1	مقدمة في علم اللغويات	لغوي 101ت	2	2	متطلب قسم	-
.2	الاستماع والتحدث المتقدم	لغوي 112ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 111T
.3	الصوتيات	لغوي 113ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 111T
.4	الكتابة المتقدمة	لغوي 122ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	121T LING
.5	القواعد	لغوي 131ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-
.6	مبادئ الرياضيات	ريض 100ت	3	4	متطلب كلية	-

المستوى الثالث

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
1	علم الأصوات	لغوي 214ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 112T

2	الخطابة العامة	لغوي 215ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 112T
3	المهارات الأكاديمية	لغوي 202ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-
4	القواعد التطبيقية	لغوي 232ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 131T
5	الثقافة الإسلامية (1)	سلم 101	2	2	متطلب جامعة	-
6	مهارات اتصالات الأعمال	ادر 241ت	3	3	متطلب كلية	-

المستوى الرابع

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
1	النحو والصرف	لغوي 233ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 232T
2	الكتابة الاحترافية	لغوي 223 ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 122T
3	علم اللغة الاجتماعي	لغوي 241ت	2	2	متطلب قسم	LING 101T
4	مقرر قسم اختياري (1)		3			
5	مقرر حر (1)		3			
6	التدريبات اللغوية	عرب 202	2	2	متطلب جامعة	-
7	الثقافة الإسلامية (2)	سلم 202	2	2	متطلب جامعة	ISLS 101

المستوى الخامس

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
1	علم الدلالة والبرجماتية	لغوي 342ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 233T
2	اكتساب اللغة	لغوي 351ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 112T LING 232T
3	مقرر حر (2)		2			
4	اللغة الإنجليزية لأغراض محددة	لغوي 361ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-
5	مقرر قسم اختياري (2)		3			
6	مبادئ النظم وتقنية المعلومات	تال 101ت	2	3	متطلب كلية	-

المستوى السادس

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
1	تحليل الخطاب	لغوي 343ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 241T
2	تعلم اللغة بمساعدة الحاسوب	لغوي 362ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-
3	مناهج البحث	لغوي 324ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 223T
4	مهارات استخدام المعاجم	ترجم 131ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-

5	مقرر قسم اختياري (3)		3			
6	الثقافة الإسلامية (3)	سلم 303	2	2	متطلب جامعة	ISLS 101

المستوى السابع

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
1	علم اللغة التعليمي و التقويم	لغوي 463ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 101T
2	علم اللغة النفسي	لغوي 452ت	2	2	متطلب قسم	LING 351T
3	مقدمة في الترجمة الشفهية	ترجم 221ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-
4	الأدب العالمي	أدب 301ت	2	2	متطلب قسم	-
5	مقرر قسم اختياري (4)		3			
6	الثقافة الإسلامية (4)	سلم 404	2	2	متطلب جامعة	ISLS 101
7	مقرر حر (3)		3			

المستوى الثامن

	اسم المقرر	رمزه	الوحدات المعتمدة	ساعات الاتصال	نوع المقرر	متطلب سابق
1	تدريس اللغة الإنجليزية للناطقين بلغات أخرى	لغوي 464ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	-
2	علم الأساليب	لغوي	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 343T

		444ت				
3	مشروع التخرج	لغوي 425ت	3	3	متطلب قسم	LING 324T
4	التدريب الميداني	لغوي 471ت	3	15	متطلب قسم	LING 324T LING 362T LING 343T LING 361T LING 351T LING 342T LING 202T LING 215T LING 214T LING 113T

Study Plan for: English language program (Translation)	
College	**College of languages**
Department/ Program	**Translation/ English language**
Degree	**Bachelor**

Level 1						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Listening and Speaking**	LING 111T	3	3	College requirement	-
2.	**Reading and Writing**	LING 121T	3	3	College requirement	-
3.	**Introduction to Translation**	TRAN 111T	3	3	College requirement	-
4.	**Introduction à la langue Française**	FRNS 101T	3	3	College requirement	-
5.	**Introduction to Literature**	LITE 101T	3	3	College requirement	-
6.	**Arabic Composition**	ARAB 101	2	2	University requirement	-

Level 2						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Dictionary Skills**	TRAN 131T	3	3	Major requirement	-
2.	**Advanced Listening and speaking**	LING 112T	3	3	Major requirement	LING 111T

3.	**Advanced Writing**	LING 122T	3	3	Major requirement	LING 121T
4.	**Grammar**	LING 131T	3	3	Major requirement	-
5.	**Principles of Mathematics**	IT 100T	3	4	College requirement	-
6.	**Islamic Culture (1)**	ISLS 101	2	2	University requirement	-

Level 3						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1`	**Translation Technology**	TRAN 241T	3	4	Major requirement	
2	**Specialized Translation En– Ar (1)**	TRAN 212T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 111T
3	**Professional Writing**	LING 223T	3	3	Major requirement	LING 122T
4	**Grammar in Use**	LING 232T	3	3	Major requirement	LING 131T
5	**Principles of Information and Technology Systems**	IT 101T	2	3	College requirement	-
6	**College Elective Course (1)**					

Level 4						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Islamic Culture** (2)	ISLS 202	2	2	University requirement	ISLS 101
2.	**Language Skills**	ARAB 202	2	2	University requirement	-
3.	**Introduction to Interpreting**	TRAN 221T	3	3	Major requirement	-
4.	**Specialized Translation Ar – En** (1)	TRAN 213T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 111T
5.	**Morphology and Syntax**	LING 233T	3	3	Major requirement	LING 232T
6.	**College Elective Course** (2)				Department elective requirement	

Level 5						
	Course Name	Course Code	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Islamic Culture** (3)	ISLS 303	2	2	University requirement	ISLS 101
2.	**Text Analysis for Translation Purposes**	TRAN 314T	3	3	Major requirement	TRAN 111T
3.	**Specialized Translation En– Ar** (2)	TRAN 315T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 212T
4.	**Sight and Bilateral Interpreting**	TRAN 322T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 221T
5.	**Semantics and Pragmatics**	LING 342T	3	3	Major requirement	LING 233T

6.	**Free Elective Course (1)**				Free course	

Level 6						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Islamic Culture (4)**	ISLS 404	2	2	University requirement	ISLS 101
2.	**Consecutive Interpreting**	TRAN 323T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 221T
3.	**Specialized Translation Ar–En (2)**	TRAN 316T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 213T
4.	**Proofreading**	ARAB 475T	2	2	Major requirement	-
5.	**Business Communication Skills**	BUS 241T	3	3	College requirement	-
6.	**College Elective Course (3)**				Department elective requirement	

Level 7						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Specialized Translation Ar–En (3)**	TRAN 417T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 316T
2.	**Simultaneous Interpreting**	TRAN 424T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 323T
3.	**Terminology and Arabization**	TRAN 432T	3	3	Major requirement	-
4.	**Audiovisual Translation**	TRAN 442T	3	4	Major requirement	-
5.	**College Elective Course (4)**				Department	

					elective requirement	
Level 8						
	Course Name	**Course Code**	**Credit Hours**	**Contact Hours**	**Course Type**	**Pre-Request:**
1.	**Graduation Project**	TRAN 451T	4	4	Major requirement	TRAN 131T LING112T LING 223T LING 342T TRAN 241T TRAN 314T TRAN 315T TRAN 322T TRAN 424T TRAN 417T TRAN 432T TRAN 442T
2.	**Field Training**	TRAN 452T	3	15	Major requirement	
3.	**Professional Translation skills**	TRAN 433T	3	3	Major requirement	-
4.	**Free Elective Course** (2)				Free course	
5.	**Free Elective Course** (3)				Free course	

Appendix B:
Pilot Study Instrument

دوافع تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية

الهدف من هذا الاستبيان هو معرفة دوافع تعلم اللغة الانجليزية لدى الطالبات السعوديات.

آمل التعاون والمساعدة في تعبئة الاستبانة مع مراعاة الملاحظات التالية:

1. وقت الإجابة لا يتعدى 10 دقائق.
2. ليس هناك إجابة خاطئة أو صحيحة فأنت تبدئين رأيك وهو ما أحتاجه.
3. مشاركتك إختيارية وتستحق الشكر والتقدير.
4. بيانات هذه الاستمارة سرية وستستخدم فقط في أغراض البحث العلمي.

ضعي دائرة حول رقم واحد فقط (من 1 – 5) والذي يمثل إلى أي مدى توافق مايرد في السؤال:

مثال:

	لا أوافق بشدة	لا أوافق	محايد	أوافق	أوافق بشدة
الاكل قبل النوم يسبب السمنة	1	2	3	④	5

.1	غالبا ما يؤكد لي والداي مدى أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية لمستقبلي	1	2	3	4	5
.2	يحثني والداي على تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.3	كلما فكرت في وظيفتي المستقبلية أتخيل نفسي قادرة على تحدث الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.4	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي في موقف وأنا أتحدث الإنجليزية للتواصل مع أجانب	1	2	3	4	5
.5	أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية لأن أصدقائي المقربين يؤمنون بأهمية الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.6	أؤمن بضرورة تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن الأناس المحيطين بي يتوقعون مني ان اتعلمها	1	2	3	4	5
.7	يشجعني والداي على ممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية بقدر الإمكان	1	2	3	4	5
.8	أتخيل نفسي كشخصاً قادراً على تحدث الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.9	أعتبر تعلم الإنجليزية مهماً لأن هناك أشخاصاً أحترمهم يعتقدون ان علي ان اتعلمها	1	2	3	4	5

.10	أؤمن بأهمية تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن ذلك سيجعلني أحوز على تقدير عائلتي و معلميني وزميلاتي على حد سواء	1	2	3	4	5
.11	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي أعيش في إحدى الدول الأجنبية وأتناقش باللغة الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.12	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا قادرة على إرسال رسائل البريد الإلكتروني باللغة الإنجليزية بإحترافية فائقة	1	2	3	4	5
.13	أؤمن بأن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهم لي لأن الآخرين سيحترموني أكثر إذا كنت متمكنة من الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.14	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا أدرس في إحدى الجامعات في الخارج اللتي تدرس جميع مقرراتها باللغة الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.15	لو فشلت في تعلم الإنجليزية سأخيب ظن المقربين مني	1	2	3	4	5
.16	يعتقد والداي بأن علي بذل قصار جهدي لتعلم الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.17	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي مع الكثير من الاصدقاء اللذين يتحدثون الانجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.18	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي وأنا أتحدث الإنجليزية بطلاقة كما يتحدث بها الشخص الذي أراه قدوة لي	1	2	3	4	5
.19	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي وأنا أتحدث الإنجليزية بطلاقة وكأنها لغتي الأم	1	2	3	4	5
.20	لأتمكن من تحقيق ما أصبو إليه مستقبلاً يجب أن أكون قادراً على إستخدام اللغة الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5
.21	يجب علي تعلم اللغة الانجليزية حتى لا يخيب ظن والداي في	1	2	3	4	5
.22	عدم تعلمي للغة الإنجليزية سيؤثر سلباً على مستقبلي	1	2	3	4	5
.23	يؤمن والداي بوجوب تعلمي للغة الإنجليزية لأصبح شخصية مثقفة	1	2	3	4	5

بيانات المشاركة:

24- العمر:

25- التخصص:

26- هل قضيتي مدة طويلة (لا تقل عن 3 اشهر) في بلد ناطق باللغة الانجليزية؟ (نعم /لا)

Appendix C
Pilot Study Factor Analysis Results

Pilot study factor analysis results

	3 Factor Structure Pilot		
English Translation of Statement	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**
Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English	**0.71**	0.50	-0.18
I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners	**0.84**	0.12	-0.17
I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English	**0.83**	0.21	-0.01
I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English	**0.83**	0.04	0.21
I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently	**0.84**	-0.02	0.04
I can imagine myself studying in a university abroad where all my courses are taught in English	**0.78**	-0.02	0.10
I can imagine myself having a lot of English-speaking friends	**0.75**	0.13	0.07
I can imagine myself using English fluently like my role model	**0.86**	0.13	-0.07
I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	**0.86**	-0.12	-0.11
The things I want to do in the future require me to use English	**0.66**	0.38	0.06
I study English because close friends of mine think it is important	-0.04	**-0.05**	0.69
Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do it	-0.10	**0.14**	0.73
I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that should do it	0.09	**0.16**	0.76
Studying English is important to me to gain the approval of my peers/ teachers/ family	0.21	**0.26**	0.82
Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	0.08	**0.33**	0.78
If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down	-0.25	**0.11**	0.61

	3 Factor Structure Pilot		
English Translation of Statement	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**
I have to study English because if I do not study if I think my parents will be disappointed with me	0.15	**0.54**	0.49
It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English	0.01	**0.47**	0.03
My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person	0.15	**0.69**	0.45
I am often told by my parents that English is important for my future	0.02	0.79	**0.31**
My parents encourage me to practice my English as much as possible	0.17	0.76	**0.14**
My parents think that I should really try to learn English	-0.02	0.83	**0.20**
My parents encourage me to study English.	0.20	0.77	**0.04**

Note: Factor loading are bolded.

Appendix D:
Final Instrument

دوافع تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية
English Language Learning Motivation

الهدف من هذا الاستبيان هو معرفة دوافع تعلم اللغة الانجليزية لدى الطالبات السعوديات.

This questionnaire aims to measure Saudi female learners' English language learning motivation

آمل التعاون والمساعدة في تعبئة الاستبانة مع مراعاة الملاحظات التالية:

Your cooperation is valued. Please note the following:

1. وقت الإجابة لا يتعدى 10 دقائق.
   Time of completion will not take more than 10 minutes
2. ليس هناك إجابة خاطئة أو صحيحة فأنت تبدئين رأيك وهو ما أحتاجه.
   There are no right or wrong answers. I am interested in your personal opinion
3. مشاركتك إختيارية وتستحق الشكر والتقدير.
   Your participation is voluntary and is highly appreciated
4. بيانات هذه الاستمارة سرية وستستخدم فقط في أغراض البحث العلمي.
5. The data will be treated with confidentiality and will only be used for research purposes

ضعي دائرة حول رقم واحد فقط (من 1 – 5) والذي يمثل إلى أي مدى توافق مايرد في السؤال:

Choose an answer between (1-5) which indicates how much you agree or disagree with each statement

مثال:

example

	لا أوافق بشدة totally disagree	لا أوافق disagree	محايد neutral	أوافق agree	أوافق بشدة totally agree
الاكل قبل النوم يسبب السمنة Eating a meal before sleeping causes obesity	1	2	3	④	5

.1	غالبا ما يؤكد لي والداي مدى أهمية اللغة الإنجليزية لمستقبلي I am often told by my parents that English is important for my future	1	2	3	4	5
.2	كلما فكرت في وظيفتي المستقبلية أتخيل نفسي قادرة على تحدث الإنجليزية	1	2	3	4	5

					Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English	
5	4	3	2	1	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي في موقف وأنا أتحدث الإنجليزية مع أجانب I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners	.3
5	4	3	2	1	أدرس اللغة الإنجليزية لأن أصدقائي المقربين يؤمنون بأهمية الإنجليزية I study English because close friends of mine think it is important	.4
5	4	3	2	1	أؤمن بضرورة تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن الأناس المحيطين بي يتوقعون مني ان اتعلمها Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do it	.5
5	4	3	2	1	يشجعني والداي على ممارسة اللغة الإنجليزية بقدر الإمكان My parents encourage me to practise my English as much as possible	.6
5	4	3	2	1	أتخيل نفسي كشخصاً قادراً على تحدث الإنجليزية I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English	.7
5	4	3	2	1	أعتبر تعلم الإنجليزية مهماً لأن هناك أشخاصاً أحترمهم يعتقدون ان علي ان اتعلمها I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that should do it	.8
5	4	3	2	1	أؤمن بأهمية تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية لأن ذلك سيجعلني أحوز على تقديرعائلتي و معلميني وزميلاتي على حد سواء Studying English is important to me to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family.	.9
5	4	3	2	1	بإمكاني تخيل نفسي أعيش في إحدى الدول الأجنبية وأتناقش باللغة الإنجليزية I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English	.10
5	4	3	2	1	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا قادرة على إرسال رسائل البريد الإلكتروني باللغة الإنجليزية بإحترافية فائقة I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently	.11
5	4	3	2	1	أؤمن بأن تعلم اللغة الإنجليزية مهم لي لأن الآخرين سيحترموني أكثر إذا كنت متمكنة من الإنجليزية	.12

					Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English	
5	4	3	2	1	أستطيع تخيل نفسي وأنا أدرس في إحدى الجامعات في الخارج اللتي تدرس جميع مقرراتها باللغة الإنجليزية I can imagine myself studying in a university abroad where all my courses are taught in English	.13
5	4	3	2	1	لو فشلت في تعلم الإنجليزية سأخيب ظن المقربين مني If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down	.14
5	4	3	2	1	والداي يعتقدان ان علي محاولة تعلم اللغة الالنجليزية My parents think that I should really try to learn English	.15
5	4	3	2	1	بامكاني اتخيل ان لدي العديد من الاصدقاء اللذين يتحدثون الانجليزية I can imagine myself having a lot of English-speaking friends	.16
5	4	3	2	1	بامكاني اتخيل نفسي اتحدث بطلاقة مثل الشخصية المفضلة لدي I can imagine myself using English fluently like my idol	.17
5	4	3	2	1	بامكاني اتخيل نفسي اتحدث الانجليزية بطلاقة مثل الاجانب اللذين يتحدثون اللغة الانجليزية I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English	.18
5	4	3	2	1	ما اريد ان احققه في المستقبل يتطلب مني تعلم اللغة الانجليزية The things I want to do in the future require me to use English	.19
5	4	3	2	1	يجب علي تعلم اللغة الانجليزية حتى لا يخيب ظن والداي في I have to study English because if I do not study it I think my parents will be disappointed with me	.20
5	4	3	2	1	ان لم اتعلم اللغة الانجليزية فذلك سوف سيؤثر سلبا على حياتي It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English	.21
5	4	3	2	1	يؤمن والداي بأنني يجب ان اتعلم اللغة الانجليزية لأكون شخصا متعلما بحق My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person	.22

بيانات المشاركة:

participant information

23العمر:

age

24- التخصص:

major

25- هل قضيتي مدة طويلة (لا تقل عن 3 اشهر) في بلد ناطق باللغة الانجليزية؟ (نعم /لا)

26- have you ever lived in an English-speaking country more than 3 months? (yes/no)

أشكر لك تعاونك

Thank you for your participation

Appendix E:
Ethics Approval from the University of Sussex Cross-school Research Ethics Committee (C-REC)

NOTE: The C-REC does not send correspondence. Instead, for applications, Principal Investigators (PIs) log into a system and submit their application. They are notified by approval through logging into the system. This screen shot is evidence of approval of the study described in this thesis.

UNIVERSITY OF SUSSEX

Social Sciences & Arts C-REC
c-recss@admin.susx.ac.uk

Certificate of Approval	
Reference Number	ER/DAMS20/2
Title Of Project	Saudi Women's English Language Learning: Opportunities and Challenges for Identity Transformation (COPY)
Principal Investigator (PI):	Danya Shaalan
Student	Danya Shaalan
Collaborators	
Duration Of Approval	4 years and 12 days
Expected Start Date	19-Sep-2016
Date Of Approval	28-Mar-2018
Approval Expiry Date	30-Sep-2020
Approved By	Ana Pereira
Name of Authorised Signatory	Ana Pereira
Date	28-Mar-2018

*NB. If the actual project start date is delayed beyond 12 months of the expected start date, this Certificate of Approval will lapse and the project will need to be reviewed again to take account of changed circumstances such as legislation, sponsor requirements and University procedures.

Please note and follow the requirements for approved submissions:

Amendments to protocol

* Any changes or amendments to approved protocols must be submitted to the C-REC for authorisation prior to implementation.

Feedback regarding the status and conduct of approved projects

* Any incidents with ethical implications that occur during the implementation of the project must be reported immediately to the Chair of the C-REC.

Feedback regarding any adverse(1) and unexpected events(2)

* Any adverse (undesirable and unintended) and unexpected events that occur during the implementation of the project must be reported to the Chair of the Social Sciences and Arts C-REC. In the event of a serious adverse event, research must be stopped immediately and the Chair alerted within 24 hours of the occurrence.

Monitoring of Approved studies

The University may undertake periodic monitoring of approved studies. Researchers will be requested to report on the outcomes of research activity in relation to approvals that were granted (full applications and amendments).

Research Standards

Failure to conduct University research in alignment with the Code of Practice for Research may be investigated under the Procedure for the Investigation of Allegations of Misconduct in Research or other appropriate internal mechanisms (3). Any queries can be addressed to the Research Governance Office: rgoffice@sussex.ac.uk

(1) An "adverse event" is one that occurs during the course of a research protocol that either causes physical or psychological harm, or increases the risk of physical or psychological harm, or results in a loss of privacy and/or confidentiality to research participant or others.

(2) An "unexpected event" is an occurrence or situation during the course of a research project that was a) harmful to a participant taking part in the research, or b) increased the probability of harm to participants taking part in the research.

(3) http://www.sussex.ac.uk/staff/research/rqi/policy/research-policy

Appendix F:
Ethics Approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University (PNU)

Danya Abd. Alshaalan English Help

Reply Reply All Forward Download F2

Subject:APPROVAL 18-0015 Saudi Women's English Language Learning: Opportunities and Challenges for Identity Transformation

From:**PNU Institutional Review Board**

To: Danya Abd. Alshaalan; danyashal@gmail.com; adwa abd. alaskar; DSR-Quality Management of Deanship of Scientific Research ;

Cc: okasule@kfmc.med.sa; Ebtisam moh. Al-MAdi; Abeer Abd. Altamimi ;

Attachment: 18-0015_Exempt Approval_16.01.2018.pdf

Dear Danya Abdullah AlShaalan,

Please see attached approval for the study titled " **Saudi Women's English Language Learning: Opportunities and Challenges for Identity Transformation** " .

As a researcher, you are required to have current and valid certification on protection human research subjects that can be obtained by taking a short online course at the Saudi NCBE site http://bioethics.kacst.edu.sa/ . Please submit your current and valid certificate for our records before February 8, 2018. Failure to submit this certificate shall a reason for suspension of your research project. (Note: Please ignore this if you have already submitted your certificate.)

Thank you and best regards,

for and on-behalf of:
Dr. Ebtisam AlMadi
IRB Chair

Appendix G:
Profiles of Participants

Brief Profiles of Participants

The profiles of the 25 participants are presented in the table below. These details were gathered from oral exchange, questionnaire responses, and interviews.

Lamia	20, Linguistics. She chose to major in English because she aspires to expand her job opportunities. She majored in English against the wishes of her surrounding community (aunts and uncles) who tried to convince her to choose a more practical field. Part of her L2 motivation is to prove herself by learning English and becoming distinguished in her community.
Nada	19, Translation. She aspires to become a health care interpreter, which she believes requires high English proficiency. She enjoys learning English. However, she attributed her low English proficiency to the poor learning experience in school.
Rasha	22, Translation. She aspires to become a health care interpreter. She also uses English frequently in service encounters, which motivates her to learn English for service communication. She also wants to learn English and get a job to avoid unemployment, which she believes would result in losing her English for lack of practice.
Nora	20, English Literature. She wanted to major in translation at first but then she loved literature from her instructor who explained the job opportunities for literature-degree students which changed her attitude. She learned English from watching English movies and programs. Her biggest challenge was concealing her L2 identity in the wider Saudi context.
Huda	20, Translation. She aspires to work in an embassy to represent her country and defend its image in the international arena. She also thinks that English education in school did not prepare her well for her undergraduate English courses. She is disappointed with the lack of support to practice English in her home environment.
Fahdah	19, English Literature. She receives encouragement to learn English from her parents. She is motivated to learn English because her parents have high expectations for her in the future. She has a strong fear of making mistakes with proficient classmates, which motivates her to monitor her output to avoid making mistakes.
Hind	20, Translation. She majored in English because it was her father's desire. She shared her bad experience in the classroom, especially with her teachers.
Uhood	21, English Literature. Aram wants to have her own T-shirt printing business and she needs English to promote it. She also wants to learn English so she'll be able to attend overseas workshops, meet with business partners, and expand her business worldwide.

Hala	21, Translation. She wanted to major in law at first but her father convinced her to major in English so that she'll be able to invite people to Islam. However, she majored in English to please her father and envisions herself studying another field for her master's degree.
Doha	20, Translation. She receives encouragement to learn English mainly from her father, who uses English in his workplace. She aspires to work in an embassy to travel abroad and correct people's misconceptions about her culture. Her biggest challenge is the lack of support to use English at home and having to conceal her L2 identity.
Abeer	21, Linguistics. Her father supports her in her language learning by buying books and interacting with her in English. She attributed her language proficiency to her father's active involvement. She aspires to learn English for professional purposes and to impress her parents.
Ashwag	20, Translation. Her father supports her in her language learning by providing her with English books. She believes that English is needed in the Saudi context not just for job opportunities but to communicate with hospital staff as well.
Jawaher	21, Translation. Her parents, especially her mother, wanted her to specialize in anything other than English because she believes that her daughter already knows English. But Jawaher said that she chose English because she loves the language and translation. After she majored in translation, her mother changed her views as she learned that translation is more than learning a language. Jawaher started learning English from reading comic books and watching English movies and programs.
Aisha	20, Linguistics. She had a negative experience with a native English teacher at PNU who made fun of Saudis having poor English levels. She learns English to become a competent user and reject these views. One of her challenges is that the learning experience in school did not prepare her well for the university.
Mashael	20, Linguistics. She mainly gets encouragement to learn English from her father. She says her father used to reward her with gifts whenever she watched English programs. She thinks she was "forced" to learn English because her father learned English and saw how it opened doors for him in SA and wanted the same for his children. She also uses her English to show native speakers that Saudis are competent users of English and she says she once had an argument with a native speaker who expressed her dissatisfaction with English levels among Saudis. Her biggest challenge is lacking the confidence to use English with proficient Saudis.
Tahani	21, Linguistics. She learned English from developing an interest in Western culture after watching English movies and programs. One of the challenges she experiences when she uses English is having to conceal her American accent so she would not sound like a show off.

Amani	20, Translation. She receives support from her parents to study English, because her parents never completed their education and are investing in their children to pursue theirs. She also uses English for personal reasons like reading English comic books.
Ahlam	20, Linguistics. She's studying English so she can work in an embassy and travel the world. Her wish is to travel the world and spread a positive image of Saudi Arabia as a modern nation. Her motivation came from her experience with her English-speaking teacher who was critical of her spelling.
Layla	21, Translation. She's studying English because she thinks it's a job requirement. She experiences difficulties in her courses due to the inadequate learning experience in school.
Lulwa	21, Translation. She learns English to help her family members. She learns English to avoid disappointing her family members who expect her to be excellent in English since she chose it as her university major.
Ruba	21, Linguistics. She started learning English from watching English movies. She has international friends who share her interests as she couldn't find people in her local community with the same interests.
Amira	22, Linguistics. She's studying English because her father encourages her to study English. She's also learning English because she wants to meet his expectations of her as an English-major student.
Nawal	21, English Literature. She majored in English because it was her mother's desire. She experiences difficulties in her English courses and thought of changing her major many times. She aspires to become an English teacher which, in her view, does not require high English proficiency.
Hanan	20, Linguistics. She aspires to work in tourism to inform about Saudi culture to western tourists. She has international friends with whom she communicates on social media to develop her sociolinguistic competence.
Raneem	22, Translation. She aspires to inform about her culture to the expat community, which she believes is expanding and require someone to inform them of the country's culture and norms. She complained that her university teachers are biased towards the more proficient students.

Appendix H:
Study Information Sheet

Participant Information Sheet

Title of study: Saudi Women's English Language Learning: Opportunities and Challenges for Identity Transformation

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important that you understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

1. WHAT IS THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY?

The purpose of the study is to explore Saudi women's motivation in learning English and how their motivation shapes their perceptions of who they want to become as users of English. It also seeks to investigate Saudi women's English language proficiency to attempt to identify which motivational construct(s) has the most significant impact on second language acquisition. Firstly, I will distribute a survey on motivation which will need to be completed by Saudi female learners who have majored in English. Secondly, the participant who indicates willingness to participate in subsequent data collection will be asked to leave her contact details in the designated section in the survey. Then, the participant will be asked to respond to 8 open-ended writing tasks. 4 of the writing tasks will be related to Saudi females' motivation to learn English, and 4 prompts will be about personal stories from their childhood and life experiences. The written response to each task is expected to take up to 30 minutes. The writing tasks will be administered on different days so that you will not feel exhausted and for you to write with a fresh mind each time. The researcher will attempt to administer the writing tasks when and where it is convenient for the participant. The participant can also choose to be interviewed about her language learning. The interview will be between 45 and 60 minutes. The interviews will be recorded (should the participant agree to be recorded) and transcribed and a report of the transcription will be checked with the participant to check whether the interpretations that will be made by the researcher are precise. In case the participant does not wish to be recorded, she will be given the notes written about her data during the interview to check for precision. The estimated total time of data collection is 3 months.

2. WHY HAVE I BEEN INVITED TO PARTICIPATE?

You have been invited to take part in this study because you are able to inform the researcher about the motivational trajectories of young Saudi women.

3. DO I HAVE TO TAKE PART?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part, you are still free to withdraw at any time without giving a reason. You can also request to withdraw any data you provide earlier. However, you cannot decide to withdraw from the study after **30 April 2018** as you will have provided sufficient data to make you a focal participant in this study. Choosing to either take part or not take part in this study will have no impact on your grades or future studies.

4. WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO ME IF I TAKE PART?

First, you will be asked a few questions about your family background. Then, you will be asked to respond to 8 writing tasks that will be administered on different days so that

you would not feel exhausted and for you to write with a fresh mind each time. On each day, you will be given a writing topic which you will produce a written text, without any word limit specified as the purpose is for you to write freely about what comes to your mind in response to the writing topic. You will not be graded on your performance. If you have given your consent, you will be asked to participate in an interview to give further details about your reasons for learning English, but you do not have to participate. You may also agree to the interview being audio recorded. Should you also agree to this, the interview will be audio recorded and transcribed and checked with you for precision. The time, day and place of administering each writing prompt will be offered at your convenience.

5. WHAT ARE THE POSSIBLE DISADVANTAGES AND RISKS OF TAKING PART? (WHERE APPROPRIATE)

There is no immediate risk in taking part in this study as all information will be confidential and only used for research purposes. The only potential disadvantage is that all 8 writing prompts might take up to three weeks to be completed which may cause you inconvenience or clash with your study obligations. However, every attempt will be made to administer each writing task at a time that is convenient for you.

6. WHAT ARE THE POSSIBLE BENEFITS OF TAKING PART?

The population of Saudi women learners of English is an under-researched one. Your contribution will further our understanding of what motivates Saudi women to learn English and how their motivation relates to their English language proficiency. You will also be offered 3 bonus marks to be used in a writing course you are currently taking.

7. WILL MY INFORMATION IN THIS STUDY BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL?

All information collected about you will be kept confidential. Your name will not be revealed and will be disguised using pseudonyms for anonymity. The only part that will be identifiable is the institution as it is the institution that is likely to admit Saudi women with varying motivational profiles which will likely add richness to the study's findings. All hard copies of written texts and interview notes will be kept in a file inside a locked filing cabinet that will only be accessed by the researcher. All audio recordings will be converted to digital files, which will only be accessed through a password for protection.

8. WHAT SHOULD I DO IF I WANT TO TAKE PART?

Read the information sheet and consent form carefully. If you wish to take part, please sign the consent form, selecting the appropriate options, and keep the information sheet for your records.

9. WHAT WILL HAPPEN TO THE RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH STUDY?

The results of the study will be used for my PhD in Linguistics, at the School of English at Sussex University. If you wish to be given a copy of any reports resulting from this research, please let the researcher know.

10. CONTACT FOR FURTHER INFORMATION:

Danya Shaalan, School of English, University of Sussex, UK.
Tel: +44(0)1273877303, email: d.a.m.shaalan@sussex.ac.uk

If you have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted, please contact the researcher's supervisor in the first instance:

Dr Simon Williams, Sussex Centre for Language Studies, University of Sussex, UK.
Tel: +44(0)1273872889, email: s.a.williams@sussex.ac.uk

University of Sussex has insurance in place to cover its legal liabilities in respect of this study.

Thank you for taking the time to read the information sheet

Appendix I:
Consent Form

Consent for Participation in Research

Title of study: Saudi Women's English Language Learning: Opportunities and Challenges for Identity Transformation

1-I consent to my participation in writing tasks for the above research. I give my permission to the researcher to use my written texts for research purposes. I understand that if I agree to take part, I can also choose to:
- Make myself available for follow-up interviews should that be required
- Allow the interview to be audio taped and transcribed for research purposes

2-I understand that my participation is voluntary, that I can choose to participate in part of the project (writing tasks without follow-up interviewing) or all of the project, withdraw previously-provided data and withdraw at any stage of the project before the withdrawal deadline **(30 April 2018)** without being penalised or disadvantaged in any way.

3- I understand that I cannot withdraw from the study after **30 April 2018** as after this date I will have provided sufficient data to make me a focal participant in this research.

4-I understand that I can choose not to be recorded during the interview.

5-I understand that I will be given a transcript of data concerning me for my approval before being included in the write up of the research.

6-I understand that if I decide to withdraw from the study before the deadline **(30 April 2018),** all data that I provide will be withdrawn and destroyed.

7- I understand that if I complete all 8 writing prompts, I will be offered 3 bonus points to be used in a writing course that I am currently taking.

I,……...(participant's name) agree to:
1- Provide background information about me and my family (circle) yes / no
2- Respond to 8 writing prompts (circle) yes / no
3- Participate in follow-up interviews (circle) yes / no
4- Allow the interview to be audio recorded (circle) yes / no

Signature:
Date:

I, the researcher, have explained the purpose of this study and have requested the participation of the above participant in writing tasks and interviews. I have explained that all information obtained from the written texts and interviews will be used only for legitimate research purposes. I have also explained to the participant that she can opt out of the project at any stage before April 30, 2018 without being disadvantaged in anyway, and that the data provided, should there be any, will be destroyed. I have also

informed the participant that she will receive a 3 bonus incentive in a writing course that she is currently taking in return for her participation in all 8 writing prompts.
Name: Danya Shaalan
Email: d.a.m.shaalan@sussex.ac.uk
Signature:
Date:

If you decide to withdraw from the study at any stage or would like a report of the study's findings, please contact me.
If you have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted, please contact the researcher's supervisor in the first instance:

Dr Simon Williams, Sussex Centre for Language Studies, University of Sussex, UK.
Tel: +44(0)1273872889
Email: s.a.williams@sussex.ac.uk

Appendix J:

Socio-economic Status Interview Questions

Family Background Information

Pseudonym:
Participant #:
Date:

1- What is your mother's level of education?

2- Does she speak English? If yes, how well does she speak it?

3- What is your father's level of education?

4- Does he speak English? If yes, how well does he speak it?

5- Do you have any sibling(s) that speak English?

Appendix K:
Logistic Regression Model Results

Final Model: Monitored

Covariate	Log Odds	Standard Error	Statistic	P-value	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval Lower Level	95% Confidence Interval Upper Level
(Intercept)	1.31	0.26	4.96	0.0000	3.72	2.21	6.25
Study ID	0.00	0.00	-1.14	0.2537	1.00	0.99	1.00
Task F	0.26	0.24	1.10	0.2713	1.30	0.82	2.07
Task G	0.63	0.25	2.52	0.0117	1.88	1.15	3.07
Task H	0.32	0.22	1.45	0.1464	1.37	0.89	2.11
Singular	-0.79	0.21	-3.69	0.0002	0.45	0.30	0.69
Plural	0.59	0.26	2.24	0.0250	1.81	1.08	3.04
Modified	-0.87	0.18	-4.94	0.0000	0.42	0.30	0.59

Final Model: Unmonitored

Covariate	Log Odds	Standard Error	Statistic	P-value	Odds Ratio	95% Confidence Interval Lower Level	95% Confidence Interval Upper Level
(Intercept)	1.05	0.27	3.96	0.0001	2.87	1.70	4.84
Study ID	0.00	0.00	0.29	0.7748	1.00	1.00	1.00
Task B	-0.45	0.27	-1.69	0.0914	0.64	0.38	1.08
Task C	-0.42	0.26	-1.61	0.1078	0.66	0.40	1.10
Task D	0.10	0.27	0.38	0.7006	1.11	0.65	1.90
Definite	0.33	0.19	1.72	0.0863	1.39	0.95	2.02
Plural	0.98	0.25	3.88	0.0001	2.68	1.63	4.40

Appendix L:
Semi-structured Interview Questions

Interview Guide

1. What does learning English mean to you?
2. Was it your personal desire to major in English or someone else's? Please give reasons.
3. Do you imagine yourself using English in the future? Where? Or why not?
4. How is learning English important for your future? In what ways?
5. What do you think would happen if you did not learn English? What would be the consequences?
6. Is there any pressure on you to study English? Please give reasons.
7. Do your parents have a role in your language learning? What is their role? Or why not?
8. Do you have siblings that speak English? Do you use English with them?
9. Do you experience any difficulties in learning and using English in your country? Please give reasons.
10. How do these difficulties influence your English language learning?

Appendix M:
Arabic Transcripts

1. **Jawaher**

أهلي ما كانوا يشجعوني أدخل انقلش لأنه باعتقادهم اني عندي لغة من أول و كانوا يحاولون يقنعوني اختار تخصص ثاني. لكني أقول الحمد لله دخلت انقلش لأنه بصراحه أفضل خيار لي و مناسبني. و أهلي بعدما شافوا كيف إني مجتهده وادرس الحمدلله صاروا يدعموني و صاروا حتى فخورين فيني.

My parents didn't encourage me to major in English because they believed I had already knew (sic) English. They tried to convince me to choose another major. But I'm glad I chose English because it's the best choice for me. Now they have changed their minds and became proud of me since they saw me studying hard and doing my best.

2. **Amani**

اخترت انقلش لأنه رغبتي و رغبة أمي وأبوي. والحمدلله دعموني لأنهم هم نفسهم ما تعلموا انقلش فهم حابين إني أتعلمها.

I chose to study English because it was both my desire and my parents'. My parents supported me, because they themselves couldn't learn English and they wanted me to learn it.

3. **Hala**

ما دخلت قانون لأن رضى أبوي أهم من أي شي ثاني. و بعد التخرج ودي أكمل ماستر انقلش لكن يمكن ما أنقبل لان اللغة عندي ضعيفة فما عندي مشكلة أختار اي تخصص غير الانقلش.

I didn't choose law because my father's approval is more important to me. After I graduate, I want to complete my master's in English. If I don't get accepted in the programme because of my low proficiency, I would have no problem choosing a field other than English.

4. **Nawal**

انا ودي أكون معلمة انقلش لان هالوظيفة مو مستحيل الواحد يحققها. أنا ما طلبت القمر و الوظيفة اصلا ما تتطلب لغة عالية فقط كل اللي علي اني لازم أخلي الحصص ممتعة للطالبات.

I want to become an English teacher in the future because it's not a tough profession to achieve. It's not an impossible dream because it doesn't require high English proficiency. I just have to make the lessons enjoyable for my students.

5. Amira

مرات مثلاً اضطر إني أغبي عن أبوي إذا جبت درجة مو كويسة. يعني أضطر اني ما أقول له مو لأني خايفة بس تعرفين كيف نظرة الأب وده أن بنته تكون ممتازة بالانقلش، مع أنه يعني شي طبيعي ما أجيب درجات كويسة لان مو كل مرة بسوي كويس و بجيب درجات كويسة.

Whenever I get a bad grade, I conceal it from my father. Not because I'm afraid of him, but you know how fathers want their daughters to excel. He wants me to be excellent in English. To me, I think it's normal to get a bad grade because I don't expect to perform well all the time.

6. Doha

أنا دائما أبوي يذكرني ويذكر اخواني ان الانقلش ضروري في أي مكان نروح له و اننا بنفشل بالحياة اذا ما تعلمنا انقلش.

…my father would always remind me and my siblings that English is needed everywhere we go. So if we didn't learn it, we wouldn't succeed in life.

7. Lulwa

أهلي دائما يسألوني عن أشياء بالانقلش لأنهم يمكن يروني خبيرة بالانقلش.

…my family members refer to me because they probably see me as an English expert.

أول ما دخلت انقلش اقاربي بدؤا يسألوني عن أشياء بالانقلش يبوني أساعدهم. كنت أقول لهم خفوا علي أنا لسى مبتدئة وأذكر كانوا يقولون "طيب ليش داخلة انقلش؟" باعتقادهم اني صرت خبيرة أعرف كل شي عشاني تخصصت انقلش و بصراحه ما ابيهم يحسون أني ما أعرف. حتى مرات استخدم الدكشنري و ما أعلمهم لأني ما أبيهم يحسون اني ما اعرف لما يسألوني.

When I first started university, family members started to ask me to help them with English. I told them that I didn't know because I was still in my first year of study. They told me: "Why did you major in English, then?". They thought I knew everything now that I'm studying English, and I want to be perceived in that way. I don't even tell them that I use a dictionary when I help them just so they think I know everything they ask me.

8. Ruba

اختي دائما تتكلم عني قدام اقاربنا مثلا تقول لهم اسألوا ربى تعرف كل شي بالانقلش. حتى اذكر مرة كانت بنت عمي عندنا بالبيت و نادتني اختي لان بنت عمي كان عندها واجب بالانقلش. واذكر كانوا عماني و عماتي مجتمعين عندنا و أنا أساعدها كانت كل الأنظار علي و جلسوا يمدحون فيني, اذكر وقتها حسيت بفخر لي ولأهلي. هذا اشوفه دافع قوي لي اني أتعلم أكثر و أكون كويسة بالانقلش.

My sister flaunts my English ability by offering others my English expertise. One time at our house, she called me to help out our cousin with her English assignment. All my aunts and uncles were present. I helped her and I became the centre of attention. Everyone was praising me for knowing English. I felt proud of myself and for my family. This motivates me to study harder and become better in English.

9. Tahani

أهلي ما كانوا مهتمين اني أتعلم انقلش لكن بعدما دخلت الجامعة صاروا فخورين فيني حتى أبوي دايم يتكلم عني عند اقاربنا و اني ادرس طالبات لفل ون بالملتايلنقوال كلب عندنا بالقسم.

My parents did not show much interest in my language learning, but they were proud of me after I majored in English. Now that I teach level one English in my department's multilingual club, my father told all our relatives about it.

10. Abeer

أبوي دائما يسالني "وش معنى هالكلمة بالعربي؟" و غالبا يسالني فجأة ولازم اجاوب على طول لكن اذا ما عرفت اقول له ما أعرف عادي.

My father often asks me: "what is the meaning of this word in Arabic?". He would ask me about the meaning of a word on the spot and I have to immediately give him the correct answer. But if I don't know the answer, I just tell him that I don't know.

11. Mashael

أبوي كذا مع الكل يحب يسطير حتى محدد مستقبنا أنا وأخوي و وين بنشتغل من الان.

…my dad is like that with everyone. He is controlling. He even decided me and my brother's future, like where we're going to work.

12. Doha

أبغى وظيفة فيها سفر و تعطيني فرصة أتكلم عن ثقافتي و قيمنا و عاداتنا أي شي و أتكلم قدام مجموعة كبيرة من الناس و أحكي لهم عن قصصي مع الأجانب كيف اني صححت أفكارهم الخاطئة عن ثقافتي.

I want a job that will allow me to travel and talk to a big audience about my culture, like traditions, social norms, anything, and share my interactions with English speakers and how I changed their shocking misconceptions about my culture.

13. Hanan

أغلب الدول الغربية عندهم أفكار خاطئة عن ديننا و عن السعودية وعن العرب بشكل عام. عشان كذا لو اشتغلت في مجال السياحة بتكون عندي الفرصة انقل لهم الصورة الإيجابية عن مجتمعي و أغير أفكارهم عننا.

Most Western countries have inaccurate perceptions about our religion, Saudi Arabia, and Arabs in general. So, working in tourism would be a good opportunity for me to present the positive aspects of our society to Western tourists and change their perceptions.

14. Nora

الانقلش ضروري في كل جوانب حياتنا مو فقط بالوظيفة.

English is a necessity in every aspect of our daily life, not just in the workplace.

15. Uhoud

انبسطت كثير لأني ساعدت الحرمة لكني استغربت ليش ما تعرف انقلش. قعدت أفكر هي ما تحتاج انقلش؟ كيف تخلص امورها بالحياة وهي ما تعرف ولا شي بالانقلش؟

I was glad that I was able to help the woman, but I was surprised that she didn't know any English. Doesn't she need it? How does she run errands or go about her day not knowing any English?

16. Doha

أخواتي لما نطلع مطعم يقولون لي أطلب لهم و أشفق عليهم لأنهم ما يعرفون انقلش. فأطلب قدامهم بس عشان يشوفون كيف الوحده تقدر تصير اندبندنت.

When my sisters ask me to order on their behalf, I feel sorry for them that they don't know English. So I place orders on their behalf just to let them see what it's like to be independent.

17. Ahlam

خالي كل ما شافني يطلب مني أتكلم معه بالانقلش لأنه هو كويس بالانقلش. فكل ما جيت اتكلم معه أحاول أركز على كلامي لأن لما أغلط يصححني و احس بالاحراج. و حتى لما أركز على كلامي أغلط لأني أتوتر.

My uncle speaks good English and every time we meet, he wants me to speak to him in English. So, I pay attention to my speech because if I make a mistake, he'll correct me, and I feel embarrassed when making mistakes. But even though I pay attention to my speech, I still feel nervous and make mistakes.

18. Fahdah

لما نكون أنا و وحدة ثانية نفس اللفل أصير ما أركز على أغلاطي لما أتكلم معها لأن كلنا نصير نغلط مع بعض. لكن لما أتكلم مع وحدة مستواها عالي أحاول انتبه للقرامر و تركيب الجمل ككل. لكن مع ذلك أتوتر و أغلط.

I don't have to worry about not making mistakes when I'm talking to a classmate who is at the same level as me, because we can make mistakes together when we use English. But I try to check what I say, like my grammar and sentence structure, when I'm talking to a proficient classmate. But I still get nervous and make mistakes.

19. Layla

احنا الان في زمن يدعم المرأة ما احد يقدر يتدخل في شأنها و يقول لا ما تتوظفين لأن مجتمعنا تطور و اصبح يدعم المرأة.

We are now in an era that supports women. No one has a say in our business that we cannot pursue jobs. We are a modern nation now and everything is pro women.

20. Ahlam

أقاربي ما يسألوني وش ودي أكون بالمستقبل لأنهم يفكرون اني بكون معلمة انقلش ما حتى يسألوني اذا ابي وظيفة غير التدريس. لكن انا بغير نظرتهم لأن الان فيه فرص وظيفية كثيرة للبنات.

All my relatives assume that I want to become an English teacher. They don't even ask me if I want to pursue something other than teaching. But this is going to change now that there are more career choices for women.

21. Jawaher

ودي أكون مترجمة بالمستشفى لذلك لازم اشتغل كثير على القرامر عشان اقدر أترجم المحادثة بين الدكاترة و المرضى بالشكل صحيح.

I want to become a healthcare interpreter and I have to focus on improving my grammar, because I need to be as effective as possible when I interpret for doctors and patients.

22. Rasha

أبي أترجم معنى الكلام بين الدكتور و المريض لذلك ما احتاج برفكت قرامر عشان أترجم المعنى.

I want to focus on interpreting the meaning of the communication between doctors and patients. So, if I focus on delivering the meaning, I won't need to use perfect grammar.

23. Abeer

ما أحب أحط كل امالي على وظيفة معينة لأن قد ما تحصل لي و وقتها بحس اني ماني قادرة بسبب ان ما عندي قدرات. أفكر لو صار لي كذا احتمال ما عاد أتعلم انقلش او ما عاد أبحث عن وظيفة ثانية.

I don't want to pin all my hopes on a specific job because I might not achieve it and then I might feel that there was something wrong with my abilities. If this were to happen, I might stop learning English or seeking other jobs.

24. Amani

الان نحتاج انقلش وين ما رحنا أو سافرنا.

You need English wherever you go, wherever you travel.

25. Aisha

بالمدرسة كنت أعرف التعبير اللي بيجي بالاختبار لأن الأستاذة كانت تعطينا القطعة نحفظها قبل الاختبار. ما كانت تدرسنا كيف نكتب او نعبر بالشكل الصحيح. والان اواجه صعوبه بالكتابة لأن حتى باراقراف قصير ما أعرف اكتبه.

At school, I used to know the composition task in my exam beforehand, because teachers used to give us paragraphs to memorise for the exam. They didn't even teach me how to write properly. Now I don't know how to write a simple paragraph in my writing course.

26. Layla

كان المنهج بالمدرسة سهل لذلك كنت ممتازة بالانقلش. عشان كذا قررت أدخل انقلش و أهلي دعموني لأنهم يعتقدون اني كويسة بالانقلش. بس لقيت صعوبة بالكورسات لان المواد صعبة و كلما لها تزيد صعوبة حتى درجاتي انخسفت.

The English curriculum at school was so easy. I was excellent in English and my grades were high. That's why I chose to major in English and my family supported me because they thought I was excellent in English. Now I'm facing difficulties because the course material is hard, and it keeps getting harder. I keep getting low grades.

27. Hind

ما أقدر أسال استاذاتي يوضحون لي شي ما فهمته أو أرسل لهم اسئلتي بايميل لانهم دايما يقولون اسالي زميلاتك او يقولون ما نعيد شرح اي شي سبق و شرحناه بالكلاس. فاضطر اني اسال صاحباتي و مو دايما يعرفون الاجابة.

I could never ask my teachers questions for clarifications in class or by email because they either tell me to ask my friends, or reply that they would not explain something that they had already explained in class. So, I ask my colleagues instead, and they don't even know the answer sometimes.

28. Raneem

ألاحظ بعض الأستاذات يميلون للطالبات الكويسات و يوجهونهم كيف يطورون من مستواهم لانهم اولردي مستواهم عالي بالانقلش. يعني مثلا يعطونهم طرق كيف يطورون من لغتهم لكنهم ما يعطوني نفس الانتباه على شغلي. كيف اطور من نفسي اذا هم محسسيني اني فيني غلط بس عشان لغتي ضعيفة.

I see how some teachers are biased towards the good students and how they monitor their development because they're already excellent in English. Teachers give them feedback on how to further improve their English and I don't get the same attention on my work. How am I supposed to improve if I'm left to feel that I have a defect for having poor English?

29. Huda

ما أقدر أمارس اللغة بالبيت مع أخواتي لأن كل مرة أحاول أخواتي يتنرفزون لما أكلمهم بالانقلش. يقولون ليش تتكلمين انقلش وكل اللي حوليك يتكلمون عربي.

I find it hard to practise English at home because my siblings get irritated with me when I speak English to them. They ask me why I'm using English when everyone around me speaks Arabic.

30. Doha

أخوي عنده لغة لكنه ما يشجعني أتكلم معه بالبيت لأنه يظن اني أهايط اني أعرف انقلش.

My brother knows English, but he doesn't encourage me to use English at home. He thinks that I'm trying to flaunt my English.

Appendix N:
Coding Levels and Phrases

Coding Levels and Phases

Phrase	Primary Code	Secondary Code
active involvement of fathers in their daughter's language learning	Family-related	L2 learning outside classroom
active involvement of mothers in their daughter's language learning	Family-related	L2 learning outside classroom
active involvement of siblings in their sister's language learning	Family-related	L2 learning outside classroom
association of English with independence	L2 attitudes	Saudi identity-related
attitude towards English course at university	Learning environment	
attitudes towards the English teacher	Learning environment	
authoritative role of fathers	Family-related	Saudi identity-related
challenge of English being a requirement	Learning environment	
change in Saudi women's status	Saudi identity-related	
communication apprehension	L2 attitudes	
helping family members	Family-related	Saudi identity-related
contributions to society	Family-related	
criticism from Saudis over the use of English	Saudi identity-related	
criticism of using English even by experts	L2 attitudes	Saudi identity-related
describing Saudi culture to non-Saudis	Saudi identity-related	
desirable obligation	Self-concept	
endless possibilities for Saudi women in jobs	Saudi identity-related	Job-related
evaluating peers	Self-concept	
facilitative role of siblings	Family-related	
father's negative attitudes towards English	Family-related	L2 Attitudes

Phrase	Primary Code	Secondary Code
fathers supporting daughters more than mothers	Family-related	
fear of being perceived as a failure	Self-concept	
fear of making mistakes	Self-concept	
fear of not achieving ideal selves	Self-concept	
feared self	Self-concept	
finding a community of practice	Learning environment	
idea about teaching jobs	Job-related	L2 Attitudes
ideal self	Self-concept	
intercultural dialogue	Saudi identity-related	
lack of input in Saudi Arabia	Learning environment	
lack of opportunities to practice speaking L2	L2 attitudes	L2 learning outside classroom
learning English because it's needed in Saudi Arabia	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
learning English for immediate goals	L2 attitudes	
learning English for job purposes	Job-related	
learning English for religious purposes	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
learning English for travel purposes	L2 attitudes	
learning English to accommodate non-Saudis	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
learning English to negotiate the bad image of Muslims and Arabs	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
learning English to stand out	L2 attitudes	
learning English for service encounters in Saudi Arabia	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
moral support from family	Family-related	
national interest	Saudi identity-related	
negative attitudes towards the school curriculum	Learning environment	

N4

Phrase	Primary Code	Secondary Code
negative attitudes towards PNU institution	Learning environment	
negative attitudes towards the learning experience in school	Learning environment	
negotiating the lifestyle of Saudis	Saudi identity-related	
no support from family	Family-related	
not learning English from fathers	Family-related	L2 Attitudes
ought to L2 self	Self-concept	
parental strategies to improve their daughter's language	Family-related	L2 learning outside classroom
personal enjoyment with learning English	L2 learning outside classroom	
pursuing ideal selves to be different	Self-concept	
reciprocal motivation	Family-related	
religious interest	Saudi identity-related	
resistance to share ideal selves with others	Self-concept	
Saudis hyper-correcting the learner's pronunciation	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
seeing and envisioning what ideal selves would be like	Self-concept	
shifts in learning English attitude	L2 attitudes	
struggle with lack of support in achieving ideal selves	Self-concept	
studying to expand cultural capital	Saudi identity-related	
the association of English with an easy way of life	L2 attitudes	Saudi identity-related
the association of English with knowledge	L2 attitudes	
the facilitative role of mothers	Family-related	
the fluid active role of fathers in daughter's language learning	Family-related	L2 Attitudes
the importance of making parents proud	Family-related	Saudi identity-related

N5

Phrase	Primary Code	Secondary Code
the motivation to learn English to defy norms	L2 attitudes	Saudi identity-related
the open-ended job possibilities of learning English	Job-related	
the perception of using English as lack of cultural pride	Saudi identity-related	L2 attitudes
triggers for ideal self	Self-concept	
turning the lack of support into motivation	Self-concept	
unclear action plan	L2 attitudes	Self-concept