

**Motivation, International Posture and Online  
Informal Learning of English among Saudi  
University Students**

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## Abstract

Learners' engagement with online media could be strongly associated with language knowledge and cultural understanding and could provide them with the means to improve their English language skills. Consequently, a contemporary field of online informal learning of English (OILE) has emerged with several studies investigating learners' OILE habits and providing some evidence of the positive impacts of OILE use on language proficiency. However, some studies have suggested that not all learners engage in or use OILE equally and that individual differences, such as motivation and attitude, may influence engagement with informal learning. Recent studies have confirmed that learners' motivation and their global outlook positively relate to their engagement with informal learning. However, the relationship between motivation and OILE remains under-researched, and none of the existing studies have considered the different natures of OILE experiences. This mixed-methods study of female university students in Saudi Arabia used a questionnaire (n = 550) followed by semi-structured interviews (n = 19) to examine students' motivations (in light of the L2 Motivational Self System), International Posture (IP), frequency of OILE, and nature of OILE experiences. The study investigated how students' motivation, global outlook, and OILE experiences relate to their OILE habits. The results show that the participants were moderate users of OILE and had a rather limited global outlook with varying degrees of motivation. Furthermore, the participants' use of OILE was highly influenced by their Ideal L2 selves and IP. The findings suggest that the participants viewed OILE as a path to connect to the international English-speaking community. Additionally, the participants' OILE habits were strongly mediated by the varying natures of their OILE experiences. This study suggests several pedagogical implications, mainly that learners should be educated about the potential benefits of OILE use and that institutions within this context should focus on fostering learners' IP.

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## **Author's declaration**

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

## **Chapter 1 : Introduction**

### **1.1 Introduction to the Study**

Benson (2011) stated that “the overwhelming dominance of classroom-based studies in the field of language education creates the impression that foreign languages are mainly learned in classrooms” (p.77). Additionally, advances in technology have led to faster communication and more frequent use of the English language ( Lee & Dressman, 2018; Sockett, 2014; Trinder, 2017). As a result of this, a new contemporary field has emerged within L2 research, named Online Informal Learning of English (OILE) (Sockett, 2014). This field has attracted attention lately, with several studies examining learners’ OILE use (Jarvis, 2014; Jurkovič, 2019; Lee & Dressman, 2018; Trinder, 2017). However, not all learners engage equally in OILE and so they do not benefit from it, despite its relatively established benefits for attaining language proficiency in an enjoyable way (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016; Kuppens, 2010; Kusyik, 2017; Kusyik & Sockett, 2012; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015).

Studies by Cole & Vanderplank (2016), Kusyik (2017) and Mills (2018) confirmed that learners’ motivation towards language learning has an impact on their engagement in informal language learning. Mills (2018) further suggested that learners’ vision of their Ideal L2 self, as well as their global outlook (i.e., International Posture), could determine the extent of learners’ engagement with informal language learning. From this, it is reasonable to argue that learners might either engage in OILE or neglect the opportunity to engage with OILE based on their motivation towards learning the language, or the degree of their global outlook. Learners with high motivation and a positive global outlook might be more motivated to engage with OILE and be more open to the world. However, OILE use is a very complex individual process, and other factors might affect learners’ use of OILE, such as the nature of their OILE experiences (Sockett, 2014; Trinder, 2017). It is of note that directionality is challenging to ascertain, as it might be that learners who engage in OILE

more frequently develop a vivid Ideal L2 self and a positive global outlook, or vice versa, with the literature suggesting both directions (see Chapter 3: Literature Review). It is pertinent to note that, due to the gender segregation in this context, the focus of the current study will be on females only, as will be explained in more depth in the coming chapter (Chapter 2: Context). This mixed-methods study is based on a gap in the literature, as will be highlighted later in this chapter (section 1.3). However, as a researcher, I was inspired to embark on this topic by my teaching experiences in this context (i.e., the English Language Institute at King Abdullaziz University, Saudi Arabia), as will be narrated in the coming section.

## **1.2 Personal Inspiration**

When I was teaching foundation Saudi students at the university, I had a student who was a very fluent English speaker. She missed the placement tests so she started from level one, but she was above the level of her class with regard to her English proficiency (I will describe the university's placement system later, in section 2.4). I was always under the impression that she had attended private schools where intensive or immersive English was the norm, and where students would finish high school with an acceptable level of English proficiency. Once, I was giving the students a task in which they had to write about their school and this student mentioned that she had graduated from a state school, where there is no immersive or intensive English. So, I asked her whether she had lived abroad or if her family spoke English at home, and she stated that both her parents are monolingual speakers and do not know any English, and that she learned English by herself, in her own time. After I had learnt about her background, I became more curious about her success in achieving such a high level of English proficiency by herself. I asked her to share her English language learning journey with her classmates. She started by saying that she went to a state school and was taught by non-native English teachers, and that she learned English from the Internet as she spent most of her time online. She told us that she watched movies, listened to music,

chatted with English speakers online, and played games, and naturally she improved her language proficiency. She mentioned that the process was effortless. She urged her classmates to start engaging more with English on the Internet, saying, “you will not only improve your language, but you will also have fun”. Her story was inspiring, but I believe that the Internet is only a tool, like all other available resources around us, and human agency is what really determines how available resources are utilised. I started to wonder what was unique in her story: could it be her personal attributes or her motivation? Could there be any other explanation? I then decided to research this area when I pursue my PhD, as my Master’s thesis was related to L2 motivation, but from teachers’ perspectives. I started with several general ideas about L2 motivation and technology use for informal learning. After extensive reading in this field, the image became clearer in my mind, and I embarked on my research in the area of motivation and OILE. Of course, the journey towards identifying the gap in the literature was not straightforward: as I read and researched, ideas evolved and the terminology fell into place, and I decided to investigate the interesting relationship between learners’ motivation, their IP and their OILE use, as discussed in the next section.

### **1.3 Rationale of the Study**

This study will use the L2 Motivational Self System theory as a theoretical framework to understand students’ motivation to learn English within the context of Saudi Arabia. The theory, in short, suggests that there are three sources that might motivate a learner to learn the language: an internal aim stemming from a future vision of the self (i.e., the Ideal L2 self); a motivation stemming from social pressure or life obligations (i.e., the Ought-to L2 self); and a motivation that results from learners’ engagement with the process of language learning (i.e., L2 learning experience) (Dörnyei, 2009a). The L2 Motivational Self System is a highly validated model in many contexts, including Saudi Arabia. The model is also compatible with concepts related to learners’ attitudes towards English. The choice of the L2 Motivational Self System theory as a theoretical framework for this study was based on



the evaluation of theories in the field and on recommendations from recent reviews related to technology and motivation by Bodnar, Cucchiarini, Strik, and van Hout (2016), which called for adopting new theories of L2 motivation when studying motivation and technology, with the L2MSS suggested as an example (see Chapter 3: Literature Review).

Another variable that is closely related to motivation is International Posture (IP), which refers to learners' attitudes towards English as an international language, their openness towards the world, and their willingness to integrate with different others (Yashima, 2002). Several studies have confirmed the relation between learners' motivation and learners' IP (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009). However, IP is still an under-researched concept in the Arab world. Thus, one of the aims of this study is to understand learners' IP within a new setting (i.e., Saudi Arabia) and how it relates to their motivation and their OILE habits. Furthermore, Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide (2008) and Yashima et al. (2004) asserted that a higher IP could lead to higher motivation, which eventually leads to more frequent communication in English. Mills (2018) recently confirmed that IP relates to greater engagement with the informal language learning. Very few studies have addressed the relationship between IP and informal language learning and thus further studies are still needed in this regard, especially given that "OILE is inseparable from learning about the world" (Sockett, 2014, p.115).

To clarify the existing gap in the literature that I am addressing: the L2 Motivational Self System has been widely validated across various contexts (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Even within the context of this study (i.e., Saudi Arabia), several studies have employed the L2 Motivational Self System and confirmed its validity in explaining Saudi students' motivation (Al-Qahtani, 2015; Alshahrani, 2016; Moskovsky et al., 2016). Furthermore, studies related to students' IP and its relationship to the L2 Motivational Self System have also gained considerable attention

in different contexts, but not the Arab world (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009). In terms of exploring learners' engagement with English using the Internet, the field of OILE has been the subject of several recent studies exploring learners' OILE use and confirming learners' great engagement with several OILE activities in various contexts (Jarvis, 2014; Jurkovič, 2019; Lee & Dressman, 2018; Sockett, 2013; Trinder, 2017). While the concept of OILE has never been explored explicitly in Saudi Arabia, several studies have investigated students' social media and Internet use in English and confirmed that learners engaged to different extents with diverse online English activities (e.g., Alsaied, 2017; Alnujaidi, 2016; Alshabeb & Almaqrn, 2018; Mahdi & El-Naim, 2012; Mitchell, 2012). Recent studies confirmed the relationship between informal learning and motivation using the L2 Motivational Self System as the theoretical framework (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018). Lamb and Arisandy (2019) found a positive correlation between learners' Ideal L2 selves and high engagement with OILE. Additionally, Mills (2018) found that learners' Ideal L2 self and IP determine the extent of their informal language learning. Nonetheless, the research into learners' motivation, their International Posture and their informal learning is still growing, as evidenced from the studies' recent publication dates (i.e., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Mills, 2018). Furthermore, to the best of my knowledge, none of the studies related to motivation, IP and OILE have considered the different natures of OILE experiences when examining OILE. It is essential to avoid limiting the focus to the frequency of OILE use, as learners' experiences might provide a more fruitful angle of exploration (Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018; Sockett, 2014). Thus, it would be useful to consider the different natures of OILE experiences; for example, the use of OILE for entertainment, OILE for meaningful informal learning, OILE for socialising, and OILE as a result of the influence of the surrounding environment. This study will also leave more room for the qualitative data to add further types of OILE experiences, if any exist.

To summarise, this mixed-methods study will contribute to the literature by providing insights into how learners' motivation, IP, and their different OILE experiences relate to the frequency of OILE use. It is pertinent to highlight that my contribution to knowledge is particularly based on the following investigations. First, exploring the relationship between students' motivation, IP and OILE, as very few recent studies have examined this compound relationship (e.g., Mills (2018) on Japanese university students). Second, to the best of my knowledge the different natures of OILE experiences have not been considered in studies related to motivation, IP and OILE use, and have been sometimes merged with OILE activities. Thus, it is essential to consider OILE experiences as they might provide a deeper understanding of learners' OILE use and might even mediate greater OILE use. Figure 1-1 below, presents a schematic representation of the main variables included in the study.

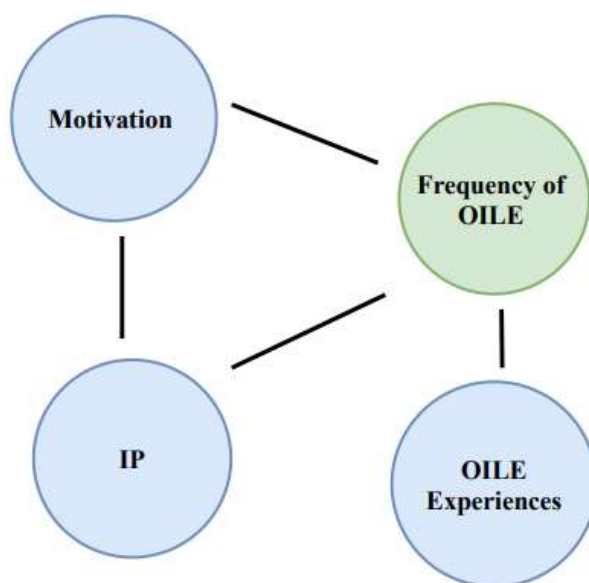


Figure 1-1: A schematic representation of the main variables included in the study

## 1.4 Significance of the Study

This study is significant for the following reasons. First, it contributes to the burgeoning literature on L2 motivation and OILE. Although studies in L2 Motivational Self System have experienced a surge, the subject has been under-researched within the field of technology use. In a recent review, Bodnar et al. (2016) called on researchers to start employing the L2 Motivational Self System to understand learners' use of technology in language learning. A few studies have examined learners' motivation and their use of technology through the lens of the L2 Motivational Self System (e.g., Adolphs et al., 2018; Gleason & Suvorov, 2012; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017). Nonetheless, the OILE field is in its infancy; as such, it is unsurprising that few recent studies have addressed its relationship to learners' motivation using the L2 Motivational Self System as the theoretical framework (e.g., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Mills, 2018).

Second, IP has gained little attention in the Arab world. This study fills a gap in the literature as very few studies have been conducted in Asian countries. Assessing learners' IP within the Saudi context, where English is mostly considered the main foreign language to be learned (see Chapter 2: Context), provides information about students' global outlook and whether any intervention or improvement is needed to improve the quality of English language teaching within this context. Additionally, this study explores the relationship between learners' IP and motivation within a new setting (Saudi Arabia), which contributes to the existing literature that suggests an association between learners' IP and their L2 Motivational Self System (i.e., Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009).

Third, OILE is a novel field but most studies within this field have focused on learners' frequency of OILE use. This study will investigate the different natures of OILE experiences, as shedding light on different OILE experiences will provide a deeper

understanding of learners' OILE use. In addition, and most importantly, the relationship between learners' motivation, IP and OILE use is still under-researched, with scarce recent studies exploring this relationship and none of which considered the different natures of OILE experiences that might play a role in directing learners' OILE use. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the burgeoning literature that is trying to determine the link between some affective factors and OILE use and provide insight as to whether high levels of OILE use reflect specific motivational and attitudinal profiles among learners (e.g., high IP with high motivational self-guides and high engagement with English online).

Fourth, contextually, this study is of importance, as in Saudi Arabia the penetration of smartphones and the internet is high in comparison to the global level (Statcounter, 2020). This could create a great opportunity for learners to engage in English at the touch of a button. However, little is known about Saudi female OILE use and how this reflects their IP and motivation. Understanding learners' OILE use, motivation, and IP will pave the way for more pedagogical interventions that aim to improve learners' language proficiency by engaging them willingly in informal learning. Finally, future studies could use the findings of the current study to understand how to build a bridge between formal and informal learning without invading learners' privacy in their informal learning spaces.

## **1.5 Aims of the Study**

This mixed-methods study aims to examine Saudi female students' motivation towards English in light of the L2 Motivational Self System theory, their attitude towards English as an international language (IP), and how this is linked to their frequency of OILE use. The study also aims to explore the different natures of students' OILE experiences. As mentioned previously, the educational system in Saudi Arabia is gender-segregated, which sometimes causes difficulty in obtaining data from the opposite gender. That is why this study is focusing only on female students. This study is seeking answers to the following questions:

Q1: What is the level of Saudi female university students' motivation towards learning English in terms of different L2MSS components (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience)?

Q2: What is the nature of students' International Posture (IP)?

Q3: Is there any significant relation between learners' motivation, more specifically their Ideal L2 self, and their IP?

Q4: What are students' habits in respect of online informal learning of English (OILE)? What is the nature of students' OILE experiences?

Q5: How do students' self-reported habits of online informal learning of English relate to their:

- a. Motivation (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience).
- b. International Posture.
- c. OILE experiences (e.g., enjoyment oriented OILE experience, OILE to socialise, etc.).

## 1.6 Structure of the Thesis

This first chapter of this thesis has stated the aim and the significance of the study. It has also provided the research questions.

**Chapter two: Context.** This chapter presents a brief overview of the education system in Saudi Arabia before moving on to discuss English language teaching. It then describes the preparatory year program at King Abdullaziz University and the English language institute, as well as the courses taken by the participants in this study. Furthermore, the chapter provides a brief overview of the lives of Saudi women and the use of the Internet in Saudi Arabia.

**Chapter three: Literature Review.** This chapter is divided into four sections. The first section discusses L2 motivation research and moves on to the L2MSS theory and the justification for choosing this model. The second section focusses on the concept of IP and presents studies that investigate the relationship between IP and L2MSS. Next, there is a discussion on online informal learning of English (OILE) and the different natures of OILE experiences, followed by a presentation of the suitable theoretical frameworks for OILE and OILE experiences. The chapter then presents the gap in the literature, highlighting the scarcity of studies investigating the relationship between OILE use, L2MSS, and IP. Finally,

this chapter presents an overview of the theoretical frameworks and the research aims in light of the literature.

**Chapter four: *Methodology*.** This chapter describes the mixed-methods approach utilised in this study and the advantages of this method. After a description of the study's sequential design, descriptions of the instruments, namely a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews, are given. The chapter also presents the procedures for administering the questionnaire and interviews, and the procedures for analysing both the quantitative and qualitative data. Ethical considerations are discussed in this chapter, followed by a discussion of the validity and reliability of this research.

**Chapter five: *Final Instruments of the Study*.** This chapter presents the findings related to the validity and reliability of the final scale, which represents the questionnaire included in the main study. The chapter starts by checking the validity of the research instruments through a factor analysis, and then reliability tests are presented. Next, the chapter presents a thorough explanation of the choice of each statistical test, followed by a detailed description of the qualitative data analysis. The coding table for the qualitative analysis is also depicted. Ultimately, this chapter proved the rigour of the study, which clearly indicates the high validity and reliability of the study.

**Chapter six: *Findings and Discussion*.** This chapter presents the main contribution of the study. The findings for both the qualitative and quantitative data are presented for each of the five research questions, followed by a discussion of each research question. The chapter is organized by research questions, where I sequentially present the findings and discussion for each of the five research questions.

**Chapter seven: *Conclusion*.** The conclusion of the study begins by summarising the findings for each of the five research questions. It then moves on to present the contributions and limitations of the study. Finally, the conclusion presents the theoretical and pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research.

## **Chapter 2 : Context**

### **2.1 Introduction**

The current study was conducted on female students in the preparatory year program at King Abdullaziz University, Jeddah, Saudi Arabia. This chapter provides a brief overview of the educational system in Saudi Arabia. It subsequently discusses English language teaching in Saudi Arabia and then offers a description of the English Language Institute at King Abdullaziz University from which the sample of the study was taken. Later, I shed light on the life of the Saudi female and both the recent changes to the Saudi system and the new vision for the country that might have positively impacted females' lives (i.e., Vision 2030). Finally, I provide a brief description of Internet use in Saudi Arabia, indicating why the online informal learning of English (OILE) needs to be studied within this context, in particular because Internet penetration there is considered high in comparison to the global level.

### **2.2 Education in Saudi Arabia**

Saudi Arabia has a gender-segregated system at all levels of education. Consequently, this study includes only female participants. Saudi Arabia is financially investing in the educational sector and there are different types of schools: state, private, and international schools, all of which are governed by the Ministry of Education. State schools are free for everyone and they offer only the curriculum designed by the Ministry of Education. All teachers in these schools are Saudi. Private schools charge tuition fees and while they use the Ministry of Education curriculum, they normally add extra subjects such as sports and English. English teaching is introduced from grade one in private schools, unlike in public schools, where English is introduced from grade four (nine-year-old students). International schools adopt different curriculums according to the system they are following; for example, if they are following the British educational system, then the



curriculum is adapted from that system and teachers in these schools are normally non-Saudis. Similarly, universities are either public universities or private universities (Khan, 2011). State universities provide free education for everyone and offer students a monthly income for their personal expenses, whereas private universities require tuition fees. There are several universities in Saudi Arabia, located in most major cities. The admission to universities in Saudi Arabia was previously not very strict, unlike the admission procedures in places like the US, Canada, and the UK. However, in 2003 competition began to increase and now only students who achieve a high GPA in high school are admitted to university (Al-Jarf, 2008). This study was conducted at King Abdullaziz University (KAU), which is a public university in which I work, and it is one of the main universities in the western region of Saudi Arabia.

### **2.3 English Language Teaching in Saudi Arabia**

Instruction in state and private schools is conducted in Arabic, and English is the main foreign language included in the Saudi education system. In 2020, the Ministry of Education announced a plan to introduce the teaching of Chinese in schools in order to empower students with a language that is considered a gateway to the industrial world (Ministry of Education, 2020). English was initially introduced in schools as an obligatory course from grade seven (12 years old), but it was not taught in primary schools because the government and the nation believed that introducing English at an early stage would affect students' learning of the native Arabic language. Then, in 2012, English was introduced in primary schools from grade four (nine years old), whereby students have 45 minutes of English class twice a week, and in intermediate and secondary schools, the students would have four classes of English per week (Alhaisoni & Rahman, 2013; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). According to Alhaisoni and Rahman (2013), Saudi students are not exposed to English outside the classroom, so the media and the Internet offer the only channels in which students can engage with English. In addition, for Saudi students, English does not represent a

specific community that they can identify with as Arabic is the main language of communication in daily life; even foreign workers in restaurants and shops must normally know some Arabic to communicate with customers. However, most nurses in hospitals, along with workers in other private companies, use English to communicate with Saudi workers in their sectors, while foreign expatriates rarely mingle with Saudi society as most of them live in private compounds designated for foreigners only (Khan, 2011).

The government has invested in the teaching of English and there are several committees responsible for the development of teaching the English language (Alhaisoni & Rahman, 2013). According to the department of curriculum design, Saudi values and customs must be considered when designing the curriculum. Furthermore, teachers of English use three types of material: textbooks, workbooks, and teaching manuals. The textbook integrates all the required skills (reading, writing, listening and speaking) along with grammar and vocabulary (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). The Ministry of Education has set several objectives for teaching English (Alhaisoni & Rahman, 2013; Al Zayid, 2012), including acquiring basic English skills, enabling students to develop a positive attitude towards learning English, and increasing students' awareness of the importance of English as a medium of communication. Despite concerted efforts by the Ministry of Education, students' level of English language proficiency is considered below acceptable (Al-Seghayer, 2014; Khan, 2011). The main reasons for this, according to these researchers (Al-Jarf, 2008; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Elyas & Picard, 2010), are a reliance on the traditional grammar-translation method of teaching, which involves studying and memorising grammatical rules and translating content from English to Arabic. Another is that, students rely on memorisation rather than developing their skills, as the teaching system is exam oriented. Furthermore, most students have a negative attitude towards the experience of learning English, and their learning experience is associated with fear and anxiety; besides, most learners just want to pass the English course. There is also a low level of motivation and encouragement from the teachers. Finally, English teachers in schools are not considered

highly competent as their required qualifications are only a bachelor's degree in English, with no prior training required. In fact, Al-Seghayer (2011) stated that most English programs at Saudi universities do not prepare teachers for teaching English, and only 10% of the courses offer English teaching methods. Al-Seghayer (2011) further added that there are no incentives available for teachers who take initiative or attend professional development courses.

## **2.4 The Preparatory Year Program at KAU**

The preparatory year program at King Abdullaziz University is similar to most foundation year programs in the country and has two tracks: science and humanities. Students enrolled in the preparatory program take several mandatory general courses, including English, which is delivered by the English Language Institute (ELI). After passing the preparatory year program, students enrol in various majors based on their GPA in the preparatory year; for example, science students can specialise in medicine, physics, math, chemistry, etc., whereas humanities students can be enrolled under the faculty of arts and humanities and specialise in religious studies, Arabic studies, European language studies, fashion design, history, etc. Most science majors use English as their medium of instruction, whereas humanities majors do not necessarily require English, as Arabic is normally the medium of instruction for most courses on the humanities track (Albalawi, 2017; Al-Jarf, 2008). According to Al-Jarf (2008), students in the science track perceive English to be extremely essential for their success. Whereas, Albalawi (2017) suggested that students in the humanities track who are planning to specialise in Islamic studies, Arabic language or history are unlikely to have a desire to learn English and they might learn English only for instrumental reasons, such as to pass the course. Nonetheless, students in both tracks (i.e., humanities and science) are obligated to register in the English courses as part of the preparatory program, which is delivered by the ELI at King Abdullaziz University.

### 2.4.1 English Language Institute (ELI)

At the beginning of the year, students take the Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT), which is aligned with the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). However, students who present an IELTS certificate or a similar certification with an achievement equivalent to Intermediate (CEFR B1+) or above are exempted from taking the course. There are four courses on offer, and their levels according to CEFR are presented in the table below (Table 2-1).

Table 2-1: Course levels according to CEFR

<b>Level</b>	<b>Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)</b>
<b>Level 1</b>	Beginner (CEFR A1)
<b>Level 2</b>	Elementary (CEFR A2)
<b>Level 3</b>	Pre-Intermediate (CEFR B1)
<b>Level 4</b>	Intermediate (CEFR B1+)

Students who miss the test are placed in Level One. The course textbooks are developed from Cambridge University Press and are customised to be suitable for Saudi culture and Islamic values. English is delivered for 20 hours of classes per week. These classes take place on a daily basis over six weeks per module. Students are examined on all language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. Furthermore, the institute ensured that each class does not exceed 30 students, to provide students with optimum benefits from the classroom. Therefore, the number of the English teachers is considered extremely large to accommodate the large number of students. Most of the English teachers are non-native speakers and there are few native speakers teachers; most are from the United States (English Language Institute, 2020).

## **2.5 The Lives of Saudi Women and the Recent Changes**

Saudi women's lives are slightly different from those of most women in the world due to cultural restrictions and values. For example, there is segregation between the two genders in all walks of life (Al Lily, 2011). In addition, before 2018, women were not allowed to drive or travel without the permission of a male guardian, regardless of their age ( Alhareth et al., 2015). In 2018, the government lifted the driving ban as well as the travel restrictions. In fact, several laws have positively affected the lives of Saudi women, including the scholarship program, the Saudisation and feminisation programs, and the recent Vision of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Vision 2030) that considers women to be part of the country plan and has made major changes to their living situation in Saudi Arabia (Saudi Vision 2030, 2020). In the coming section, I briefly discuss these regulations.

In 2005, the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) was introduced for both men and women to pursue their studies abroad. The program encourages women to study abroad by allowing their male guardians to travel with them, and the government covers the monthly expenses of both the student and her male guardian. The program offers scholarships for all levels, i.e. undergraduate and postgraduate (master and PhD levels). Many Saudi women have joined this program, which has provided them with the opportunity to expand their knowledge and their cultural understanding. The program has successfully sponsored more than 70,000 students (Ministry of Education, 2016).

The Saudisation program was introduced in 2003, known as the Saudi Nationalisation Scheme. The program requires all private companies with 20 or more employees to have 30% Saudi staff, whether males or females. This has helped in reducing the unemployment rate among Saudi citizens and has provided them with new and challenging job opportunities. Many of these jobs require English language skills, which may have been a strong motivation for many Saudis to start learning English. Also, Saudi females have benefited from this program as it provides them with a new venue to be active

members of society (Looney, 2004). Besides Saudisation, the Ministry of Labour in Saudi Arabia launched a feminisation program in order to provide females with equal opportunities to participate in the development of the country; therefore, they are now able to join new sectors, such as sales and hospitality (Burton, 2016). Hence, it is valid to assume that the niche of English language learning would create opportunities for Saudi women to flourish professionally.

Vision 2030 encompasses a specific strategic plan for the country to become a global investment capital. Furthermore, the government plans to invest in the economy, quality of life, housing, tourism, and education. In relation to tourism, the government has started to offer tourists visas to anyone interested in visiting Saudi Arabia. Cinemas, theatres, and concert halls were established and opened in 2019, and this has changed the lives of many Saudis, who were previously only able to visit such places when travelling abroad. In short, the new vision of the country indicates how the government believes in its resources and the capabilities and creativity of its nation to achieve its Vision 2030 (Vision 2030, 2020).

## **2.6 Internet Use in Saudi Arabia**

The penetration of the Internet, more specifically social media use, in Saudi Arabia is high in comparison to the global level (Statcounter, 2020). Furthermore, the use of the Internet has dramatically increased in Saudi Arabia over the last few years. According to latest report of the Communication and Information Technology Commission (CITC), in 2017 the total number of Internet users in Saudi Arabia exceeded 26 million. Most of the Internet use in Saudi Arabia revolves around social media platforms (e.g. Twitter and Snapchat), content channels (e.g., YouTube), and Internet-based games (CITC, 2017). The following figure (Figure 2-1) from the CITC shows the use of the Internet from 2014 to 2017:



Figure 2-1: Total number of Internet users in Saudi Arabia from 2014 to 2017 (CITC, 2017)

Furthermore, the ministry of communication and information technology has recently reported that Saudi Arabia was among the top countries in the world in term of social media use (MCIT, 2020). Young Saudi users were found to use the Internet for entertainment more than older users, and both males and females engage equally in Internet use (Simsim, 2011). This points to the need to study learners' OILE use as despite such high use among teenagers, little is known about how often learners' use English online. Al-Salem (2005) investigated the impact of Internet use on female Saudis' self-image and found that female students spend a substantial amount of time on the Internet as it provides them with the chance to express their voices and to interact with the opposite gender. Furthermore, the study found that the use of the Internet enhances females' positive self-image as they had a chance to communicate and express their views online. On the opposite side, some Saudi women have started to express rebellious ideas against their culture, and this has led them to clash with their family; according to Al-Salem (2005), this is why many female users hide behind anonymous profiles.

## **2.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter presented a very brief overview of the education system in the context of the study (i.e., Saudi Arabia). It highlighted how the education system is gender-segregated in Saudi Arabia, which explains why the study sample is entirely female. The chapter discussed the teaching of English in schools, including how the outcome is unsatisfactory and how students' use of English is limited to the classroom as there is little chance for the students to communicate in English in their everyday lives. Furthermore, the chapter described the preparatory year program as well as the English Language Institute system from which the study sample was taken. In addition, the chapter provided a brief overview of the lifestyle of Saudi women and the recent changes in Saudi laws that have provided Saudi women with a considerable opportunity to be active members in society. Finally, the chapter discussed the role of the Internet in Saudi life, highlighting why studying OILE within this context is essential. In the coming section, I provide the literature review related to this study.



## **Chapter 3 : Literature Review**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The literature review chapter reviews the three main concepts underlying the study, with the aim being to inform readers of what is already known in this field. The first two concepts involve psychological aspects related to L2 motivation research, these being the theory of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) and international posture (IP), with the latter concept being closely related to motivation for English language learning, being based on the learner's degree of openness towards the world and attitudes towards English as an international language. The third research concept examined is online informal language learning (OILE), a highly contemporary field in second-language research that is, however, conceptually unrelated to the other variables, despite being potentially highly influenced by learners' motivation and IP such that learners with high motivation and a high tendency of openness towards the world may engage more in OILE. This is, however, not a straightforward relationship, as the nature of learners' OILE experiences may also play a role in shaping their OILE habits.

The main aim of the current study is to examine relationships among these three variables, and this chapter is divided into four sections to help facilitate presenting the appropriate literature related to each variable. The first section offers an overview of the current literature related to L2 motivation alongside a justification for the choice of L2MSS as a theoretical framework in this study as a means to develop an understanding of student motivation; the second section provides a review of the literature related to IP and what is currently known about its relationship with motivations for English learning; while the third section examines the literature related to OILE. The fourth section then develops on these by exploring literature related to the relationships among OILE, IP, and the L2 Motivational Self System. The chapter concludes by clarifying the gaps identified in the literature, which

illustrate the need for the current study and by framing the aims of the current study in light of the literature overall.

## **3.2 L2 Motivation**

### **3.2.1 What is Motivation?**

Motivation is a concept that has attracted many researchers in applied linguistics, being frequently considered the main factor determining language learning success. However, the term is frequently controversial in use, and for many researchers, its underlying meaning has been considered elusive (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Nevid (2013) described motivation as the grouping of reasons or motives that guide human behaviour, while Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) described motivation as moderating the direction and intensity of human behaviour, including the selections of certain actions, the effort invested in those actions, and the persistence applied to sustaining the actions. Simply put, motivation offers explanations of why individuals perform certain actions, how much they are willing to invest in those actions, and how long they will apply sustained effort to a particular action. Several researchers adopted this simple definition of motivation as that which moves a person to invest time or resources in a certain goal (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), though motivation can also be described as the overarching vision that directs human actions. The next section offers a brief review of the history of L2 motivation research.

### **3.2.2 A Historical Overview of L2 Motivational Research**

This section offers a brief overview of the original theories on L2 motivation research, as these form the foundations of contemporary theories of motivation. L2 motivation has been an active field for many decades, with numerous studies published since the 1960s. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), the history of L2 motivation can be divided into several phases; this segment thus focuses on a brief overview of the social-psychological period followed by the cognitive situated period, before moving to the latest

period, the socio dynamic period that began in 2005 and continues to the present day. The dominant theories in each period, are outlined, while for the socio-dynamic period, a discussion of the L2MSS, which serves as a theoretical framework for understanding learners' motivation in this study, is discussed along with a justification for the use of this model which, despite its limitations (see sections 3.2.5 and 3.2.5.1), offers the most suitable framework for this study and for many other contemporary studies, as discussed in section 3.5.1.

### ***3.2.2.1 The Social-Psychological Period***

Work in this period was led by Robert Gardner and Wallace Lambert and their associates in Canada. These researchers believed that students' attitude towards specific language groups influenced their language development (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Gardner and Lambert (1972) therefore argued that learning English is not like learning any other academic subject, being affected by myriad sociocultural aspects, such as attitude towards other speakers of the language and related cultures. Within the period, the most prominent contributions were the Gardner theory of second-language acquisition, also known as the socio-educational model of second-language acquisition, and the development of the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) measurement tool (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). The socio-educational model of second-language acquisition includes several factors and was revisited and improved by Gardner several times (Gardner, 2000, 2001). Amongst the concepts he included in this motivational model were the ideas of *integrativeness* and *instrumentality* (Gardner, 1985). An integrative orientation refers to an individual having a positive attitude towards L2 community and a strong desire to be part of it, while instrumental orientation refers to an individual desiring to achieve certain goals in life, such as finding a good job or passing exams (Dörnyei, 2005). This model had been widely criticised, however, primarily because the concept of *integrativeness* as presented seems to assume that learners should seek complete integration with a specific L2

community, as well as because the concept was investigated mostly in the Canadian context, where French and English, the official languages, do indeed generate two distinct ethnolinguistic communities, which may not occur to the same extent elsewhere (Dörnyei, 2009b).

Nevertheless, this concept of *integrativeness* dominated L2 research for several years, despite ongoing criticism (Dörnyei, 2005; Ryan, 2009; Yashima, 2000), as most learners had few opportunities to interact with native speakers of a language or to use the language outside the classroom, especially where such languages were taught only as school subjects. Furthermore, Ryan (2009) noted that learners may have positive attitudes towards the community associated with the target language while having no desire to assimilate with that community; he further argued that the notion of *integrativeness* neglected the reality of “the global English-speaking community of which many young people from all over the world believe themselves to be an integral part” (p. 124). This led Yashima (2002) to introduce the concept of International Posture, which is discussed in further detail in section 3.3 of this chapter; this concept considers the international English speaking community to be the target community that learners may seek to identify with rather than them focusing on any specific English speaking community. Several researchers have similarly reported that in an Asian context (Japan and Indonesia), a lack of identification with native English-speaking communities was in fact a motivational factor (Lamb, 2009; Yashima, 2009). The historical research in this area is reviewed here as an essential foundation for L2 research; however, the concept of *integrativeness* has lost its domination based on the many waves of criticism mentioned above, with few modern studies employing it as a theoretical framework (Dörnyei, 2009a).

### ***3.2.2.2 The Cognitive-Situated Period***

After an influential article by Crookes and Schmidt (1991) that called for a widening of the L2 motivation research agenda, a different period of focus emerged. This period was

characterised by two main approaches, the first of which reflected the need to incorporate new motivational psychological theories into L2 motivation research. The second involved a desire to limit the focus of L2 research, taking it from a broad environmental consideration to a narrower approach, focusing on motivation in real-life learning situations including the classroom environment (Dörnyei, 2005). However, this period did not completely reject previous work; instead, it built on such processes while reflecting on and considering its limitations, as noted by Dörnyei (2005):

it was generally accepted that Gardner and his associates' macro-perspective was useful to characterize and compare the motivational patterns of whole learning communities and then to draw inferences about important issues such as intercultural communication and affiliation, language contact, multiculturalism and language globalization. (p. 75)

Dörnyei (2005) thus identified several cognitive theories that influenced the main approaches of this period, such as self-determination theory. Dörnyei (2005) also stated that, to understand the motivational features of the classroom, there was a need to focus on situated motivation; from this notion task motivation appears where the focus is on situated motivation. The next section provides a brief overview of self-determination theory and then a discussion of task motivation, and more specifically how computer-assisted language learning (CALL) studies emerged within this field, with CALL considered a sub-branch of situated motivation. The link between CALL and situated motivation is also discussed in greater detail later in this chapter with the online informal English learning section 3.4.2.

#### 3.2.2.2.1 *Self-Determination Theory*

This theory is heavily related to psychology in general. Deci and Ryan first introduced self-determination theory (SDT) in 1960, at which time it was unique because it viewed motivation as a continuum, distinguishing between “self-determined types and

controlled types of motivation” (Deci & Ryan, 1985, p. 7). They thus divided motivation into three different types: intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation. According to Deci and Ryan (1985), children are naturally intrinsically motivated; however, the sustainability and reinforcement of such intrinsic motivation depends on multiple circumstances; the theory is thus applicable to many areas of language learning research.

Deci and Ryan (1985) also clarified that all types of motivation operate in a continuum. Intrinsic motivation refers to the desire to achieve a task based on internal reasoning, whereas extrinsic motivation is related to a desire to achieve a task to receive a reward from an external source. Deci and Ryan (1985) further divided motivation into four types, however: external regulation, where a task is done to achieve a specific external reward or to avoid a specific threat; introjected regulation, where people perform tasks to avoid feeling guilty; identified motivation, where people truly identify with the purpose of a task and value its usefulness; and integrated regulation, where individuals perform activities because these align with their values, needs, and identities. This theory suggests that human motivation is shaped by three needs: autonomy, or the need to have choices and to be self-determined; competence, the ability to carry out activities effectively; and relatedness, which is the main connection between learners and the outside world (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2002). Several researchers have tried to incorporate this theory within L2 motivation research, though the limited space available in this work prevents a full review of these attempts (for a complete review, see Dörnyei, 2005, pp.76–79; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 56–59). A few recent researchers have tried to review CALL studies in light of self determination theories, and more specifically with regard to the three basic psychological needs; these have found that the self determination theory provides a good fit for at least one understanding of learners’ motivation to engage with various language learning technologies (Henry & Lamb, 2020). Nonetheless, a great deal of uncertainty remains with regard to how learners’ visions of themselves can motivate engagement or nonengagement with technologies for learning English, and this is therefore discussed in section 3.2.5. Before this discussion, however,

another important theory that arose during the cognitive situated period must be noted which is Task motivation, as this is connected with many subsequent studies on technology use for language learning (Egbert, 2005).

#### 3.2.2.2.2 *Task Motivation*

The cognitive situated period of research coincided with the rise of task-based research in the L2 research field. Task-based research focuses on the task as a unit of analysis when examining L2 learning aspects, based on the assumption that learning tasks affect the quality of L2 learning processes (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Dörnyei (2005) stated that:

An interest in the motivational basis of language learning tasks can be seen as the culmination of the situated approach in L2 motivation research since L2 motivation can hardly be examined in a more situated manner than within a task-based framework. (p. 80)

Researchers have been attracted to task-based motivation due to the fact that focusing on such research allowed them to explore issues of motivation within well-defined boundaries. Task motivation focuses on the characteristics of a task and what makes a task more interesting and enjoyable, and Julkunen (2001) developed a model that differentiates between motivation as a trait (learners' general motivational orientations) and motivation as a state (learners' motivation towards a specific situation). Julkunen (2001) further clarified that "motivation should be studied in the actual learning situation and data should be collected before, during, and after learning tasks or activities" (p. 30), though task motivation was only later connected to several CALL studies, such as Egbert's (2005) work.

#### 3.2.2.3 *The Socio-Dynamic Period*

This period arose from attempts to address issues related to English as a global language, wherein interactions in English were no longer between native and non-native speakers. At this point, the concept of *integrativeness* no longer provided a clear explanation

for L2 motivation, as there was no clear target English-speaking community with whom a learner could identify (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). This period was thus characterised by three main approaches:

- A person-in-context relational view of motivation (Ushioda, 2009);
- Motivation as examined from a complex dynamic-systems perspective (Dörnyei, 2009b); and
- The L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a).

These approaches are all briefly reviewed below before additional attention is applied to the L2MSS, which is adopted as the theoretical framework for understanding learners' motivations in the context of the current study. The *person-in-context relational view* was introduced by Ushioda (2009) based on her dissatisfaction with linear models of motivation; at that time, the common approach was to predict motivation using a linear model, providing pedagogical interventions to improve learners' behaviours and outcomes based on this model. This approach often neglected the complex reality of motivation, and Ushioda (2009) argued that the focus should be instead on real persons and their agency. She further argued that there is a need "to take a relational (rather than a linear) view of these multiple contextual elements, and view motivation as an organic process that emerges through the complex system of interrelations" (Ushioda, 2009, p. 220). The strength of the resulting theory is that it assumes that the learner and the environment mutually shape each other, considering the learner as a real person who both affects and is affected by their environment. The theory, however, remains in the development phase, and it has not yet gained many researchers' interest due to its complexity and reliance on qualitative data from singular or limited case studies, which has caused its generalisability to be rather limited.

The *complex dynamic systems perspective* suggests that measuring motivation within complexity theory (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008) requires the use of the dynamic systems. The system suggests that as the world is dynamic, any investigation of any human behaviour must also be. The aim of this approach is to examine motivation within an



interlinked system that evolves and changes over time that therefore “consist[s] of multiple interconnected parts and in which the multiple interferences between the components’ own trajectories result in non-linear emergent changes in the overall system behaviour” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 89). This system arose from the researchers’ dissatisfaction with traditional approaches that viewed factors in motivation as distinct components rather than dynamic ones, and the underlying model assumes a strong relationship between immediate, moment-to-moment experiences and motivation. This theory is thus extremely useful for understanding conceptually difficult concepts such as human motivation toward language learning (Csizér, 2020). The other advantage of this model is that it has further strengthened the need to rethink traditional approaches to large-scale quantitative data and move to either mixed methods or qualitative approaches (Hiver & Papi, 2020). However, the interchange between physical phenomena such as the passage of time and human behaviours is hard to capture, forming a major challenge for the development of this theory (Csizér, 2020; Dörnyei, 2014), which has thus not progressed beyond the theoretical phase to the empirical to any great extent.

The system suggests several strategies simply by how it operates, including recognition of the role of *the attractor-governed phenomenon*, which is the tendency of the system to move toward a certain goal. According to Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), such attractors may be fixed or cyclic or even chaotic. When Dörnyei, MacIntyre, and Henry (2015) adapted the system, they highlighted several conceptual difficulties, such as the fact that the system suggests nonfinality, and that, even with fixed point attractors, the resulting dynamic stability is subject to future change. According to Dörnyei (2014), if an attractor is powerful enough, explaining a dynamic system might be practical even with traditional research methods. On other occasions, however, attractors might generate *conglomerates*, also known as *attractor basins*. Thus, a single outcome might be governed by a number of affective and cognitive factors.

A very simple example of how to examine motivation from a complexity approach can be described as follows: to research the motivation for writing this thesis in light of the complex system, then there might be myriad motivational factors such as interest in the topic, personal fulfilment, expectations of success, and the author's perceived confidence in her ability to complete the task. All of these factors, along with many other motives, contribute to the existence of this thesis, and in order to capture these motives, a detailed examination is thus needed to capture the dynamic nature of the motivation. Dörnyei (2014) suggested that complex dynamic systems are not entirely unpredictable, or they would be impossible to study or investigate. Nonetheless, he acknowledged that such systems have many random components, stating that:

In many ways, a complex system is like the world around us: a lot of things happen without us having a clear understanding of the reasons, but there is also a lot happening when we can have a fair notion of why things actually took place...the question of what we can do to focus research on the predictable—and therefore, meaningful—areas of the social world. (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 81)

Dörnyei (2014) therefore proposed using reproductive qualitative modelling to investigate the issue of interest using a backward approach; he suggested focusing, for example, on students in the classroom by dividing them first according to certain profiles (e.g., highly motivated, good cognitive skills, confident, and autonomous learners in one group with less motivated and unconfident learners in another). In short, the focus is on students' motivation, cognition, and emotions in their classrooms. Researchers then need to identify the *attractors* (factors) that shape students' behaviour in the classroom before observing how these factors interact with each other. This process cannot be described as straightforward, but it is possible. Dörnyei, MacIntyre, and Henry (2015) thus produced an anthology called *Motivational Dynamics in Language Learning*, in which they highlighted research in this area; space limitations prevent a full review of these studies herein, though

the key finding of the research collected is that the system has some potential in terms of capturing the dynamic nature of students' motivations. In particular, it seems that time is a very important factor in terms of understanding motivation within the dynamic system as it views motivation within an interlinked system that changes over time. However, some conceptual difficulties in understanding the system remain, including the system assumption of nonfinality or there being no end point for understanding human motivational behaviour concerning where, exactly, the line should be drawn, as discussed in greater detail in Section 3.2.5. The system has sets of challenges and is still in its development phase, yet it still entails a new "methodological toolkit" (Hiver & Papi, 2020, p. 126).

### **3.2.3 Evolution of the L2 Motivational Self System**

Dörnyei (2009a) emphasised that the L2MSS model is based on the need to incorporate two major movements within the L2 motivation field: one related to dissatisfaction with the notion of *integrativeness* and one related to the increased prominence of the theory of selves in the field of psychology. As mentioned previously, several researchers (Dörnyei, 2005; Ryan, 2009; Yashima, 2000) had already criticised the notion of *integrativeness*, arguing that not all learners have opportunities to interact with native speakers; Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) in particular called for a rethink of the concept of *integrativeness* based on their large study in Hungary:

We believe that rather than viewing 'integrativeness' as a classic and therefore 'untouchable' concept, scholars need to seek potential new conceptualizations and interpretations that extend or elaborate on the meaning of the term without contradicting the large body of relevant empirical data accumulated during the past four decades. (p. 456)

According to Dörnyei (2009a), the model of the L2 Motivational Self System remains compatible with other motivational concepts, such as *integrativeness*. The following

sections thus review the two main theories of selves, possible selves and self-discrepancy theory, that have influenced the development of the L2MSS as a means of approaching a fuller explanation of the L2MSS model.

### ***3.2.3.1 Theory of Possible Selves***

The first authors explicitly examining the concept of future self were Markus and Nurius (1986), who presented the possible-selves theory, which takes into account a person's ideas about what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming. This is related to how a person thinks about their own potential, and such possible selves can therefore serve as a future self-guide to show a person how they might act in the present, based on actions required to attain the status of the desired future selves or to avoid the feared ones. Markus and Nurius (1986) introduced three main types of possible selves: the first is the ideal or hoped-for self, based on those "ideal selves that we would very much like to become", which might include "the successful self, the creative self, the rich self, the thin self, or the loved and admired self"; the next category is possible selves, which are the "selves that we could become", including expected selves or likely selves; the third is the feared selves, those "selves that we are afraid of becoming", which might include "the alone self, the depressed self, the incompetent self" (p. 945). According to Dörnyei (2009a), the idea of possible selves references "default scenarios", whereas the first and third types of selves can be seen as the "best case" and "worst case" scenarios (p. 12).

### ***3.2.3.2 Self-Discrepancy Theory***

Higgins (1987) attempted to define the concept of self in two dimensions: "domains of selves" and "standpoints of selves". Higgins (1987) defined the domains of selves as being representative of "the kind(s) of person an individual believes he or she actually is", while the term "standpoints of selves" refers to "the kind(s) of person an individual believes that others think he or she actually is" (p. 320). Higgins (1987) further divided the domains of selves into three types: actual selves, referring to the individual's perceptions of their own

abilities; the Ideal L2 self, referring to what the individual aspires to be; and the Ought-to self, which signifies what the individual feels obligated to be. The standpoint dimensions were also further divided into two types: the standpoint of the self and the standpoint of significant others, as shown in Table 3-1 below:

Table 3-1: Self-Discrepancy Theory (Higgins, 1987, p. 324)

Standpoints of the Self	Domains of the Self		
	Self-Concepts	Self-Guides	
	Actual	Ideal	Ought
Own	<b>Actual/Own</b> The individual's perceptions of their own ability	<b>Ideal Self / Own</b> The individual's personal wishes	<b>Ought to Self/Own</b> The individual's sense of obligation
Other	<b>Actual/Other</b> Others' perceptions of the individual's ability	<b>Ideal Self / Other</b> Others' aspirations for the individual	<b>Ought to Self/Other</b> Others' perceptions of the individual's duty

Higgins' theory is unique in that it takes the views of others into consideration in terms of how these influence the development of the self; thus, for example, a student might be motivated to meet the expectations of teachers or parents. The self-discrepancy theory also suggests that distinct relationships exist between the different self-state representations, so that the various combinations of self-domains and self-standpoints result in six categories: "actual/own, actual/other, ideal/own, ideal/other, ought/own, and ought/other" (Higgins, 1987, p. 321). The first of these, actual/own, represents the idea of personal self-concept, and where there is a large discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal/own self, a negative outcome will ensue based on the person's failure to accomplish his/her dreams. The ideal self may thus lead to frustration. Similarly, if there is a significant discrepancy between actual attributions and what others expect from a person, this may lead to feelings of guilt and potentially resentment that may be generalised to other dimensions. In short, the self-

discrepancy theory states that “we are motivated to reach a condition where our self-concepts match our personality relevant self-guides” (Higgins, 1987, p. 321).

However, self-discrepancy does not suggest that a person must have all of these selves; a given person might have all of them, some of them, or none of them. Not everyone can have a vivid future self, and this helps explain the lack of motivation seen in some individuals. Higgins (1998) later discussed the concept of ideal self in relation to promotion focus alongside the ought-to self and how this is related to prevention focus, referring to the achieving of personal goals for future success such as learning English to get a better job in the future. Prevention focus reflects a desire to protect oneself from failing and or from not fulfilling an obligation; for example, a person may feel they would not be able to get a good job without mastering the English language. For a detailed explanation of these two concepts, see Higgins (1998, p.17).

### **3.2.4 The Components of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS)**

Dörnyei (2005) highlighted that the L2MSS consists of three components: Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experiences. The first two facets are considered the central components of this model, and Dörnyei (2005, 2009a) introduced the third component simply because he felt there is a need to incorporate a component related to the actual learning environment and named it as “L2 learning experience” , as for some learners, successful language learning does not stem from the self but from engagement with the learning experience.

The first component, the Ideal L2 self, is the image the learners form about the proficient language speaker that they aspire to be, which serves as a motivational source for learners as they begin “trying to reduce the discrepancy between their actual and Ideal L2 selves” (Dörnyei, 2009a, p. 29). Furthermore, Dörnyei (2009a) emphasised that “in our idealized image of ourselves we naturally want to be professionally successful and therefore instrumental motives that are related to career enhancement are logically linked to the ideal

self” (p. 28). Hence, *instrumental motive* which is popular in L2 motivation research and was introduced by Gardner (1985, 2001), as noted in section 3.2.2.1. The concept refers to learning English to achieve extrinsic rewards, and according to Dörnyei (2009a), the concept of instrumentality can be “divided into two distinct types, instrumentality-promotion and instrumentality-prevention” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 87). Instrumentality with a promotion focus, or the learning of English to support future success, should thus be considered as part of the Ideal L2 self (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011). Furthermore, Dörnyei, Csizér and Nemeth (2006) emphasised that the Ideal L2 self could be considered as the core of the L2 Motivation Self System model, noting that “the ideal L2 self-mediate most of the attitudinal/motivational impact onto the criterion measures, which in effect means that the Ideal L2 self is the primary constituent of L2 motivation” (p. 91). It is also pertinent to point out that many researchers refer to this self-guide as the vision of the self, with Dörnyei and Chan (2013) suggesting that the two terms can be used interchangeably: “mental imagery is indeed associated with future self-guides, which justifies the use of the term ‘vision’ when referring to them” (p.454)

The second component is the Ought-to L2 self, which refers mainly to those traits the learner feels they require to meet the expectations of others such as parents, family, and teachers, or to prevent negative consequences such as failing exams; clearly, therefore, this image is usually instilled by others. Dörnyei (2005) explained that the Ought-to L2 self represents external instrumental motives, causing instrumentality to later be divided by Dörnyei (2009a) into two dimensions: instrumentality with promotion focus, relating to the Ideal L2 self, and instrumentality with prevention focus, relating to the Ought-to L2 self. Instrumentality with prevention focus in the current case thus refers to any learning of English language to avoid failure, while instrumentality with promotion focus refers to learning English to achieve future success, such as getting a good job (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009a). Dörnyei and Chan (2013) did acknowledge that the Ought-to L2 self might not have a strong effect on learners’ motivated behaviour, yet it remains an important form of self-

guidance, especially in contexts where family influence is an important factor for learners. However, this construct has been subject to some criticism, being problematic in some contexts, which will be explained in section 3.2.8.1.

The third component is L2 learning experiences, those “situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience” (Dörnyei, 2005, p. 106). This thus refers to motives that exist only within the context of the environment (teacher and curriculum). Dörnyei (2009a) emphasised that recognition of the importance of the classroom environment as a motivational factor made a significant contribution to the understanding of L2 motivation in the 1990s, further emphasising that learners can derive motivation from the environment rather than their Ideal L2 selves or Ought-to self-images. This component is thus a crucial addition to L2 motivational self-systems, as for many language learners, success may stem almost entirely from the learning environment. This construct has not received a lot of attention (Al-hoorie, 2018, You, Dörnyei, & Csizér, 2016), however, though some researchers have called it “attitude toward learning English” and offered it some consideration in that form. Although the two concepts do overlap, and Csizér (2020) suggested that future researchers validating the theory should try to clarify this overlap, as the aim of the current study is not to validate the L2MSS but rather to use it as the theoretical framework, the original meaning of the scale, the L2 learning experience as a motivating factor for learning English, is adopted in this research as discussed in section 4.6.1.1.

### **3.2.5 Justifications for Using L2MSS in this Study**

This section seeks to justify the focus on the use of the L2MSS to understand students’ motivation in this study, highlighting why this model was selected as opposed to the other contemporary L2 motivation theories reviewed in the previous section 3.2.2 . This justification is derived from a number of reasons, some based on the literature and others resulting from my own evaluation of the system.



The first reason for using this theory is that it has been tested in many different contexts (including Saudi Arabia), and the model provides a good fit in most cases (see sections 3.2.6 and 3.2.7). In determining the theoretical framework for the current study, a number of theories reviewed earlier (i.e., self-determination theory and complex dynamic systems) were examined. Self-determination theory is not specifically related to language learning, but it has been widely used in L2 research (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011), as the theory allows consideration of different types of motivation as a continuum, making it challenging to draw neat lines between them, especially in the design of the current study, where the core aim is to study students' motivations and international posture, and in particular how these relate to learners' online informal learning habits. While self-determination theory is applicable, it could prevent coherent analysis due to the need to consider the full continuum of motivation (e.g. extrinsic motivation being identified, introjected and integrated). In a recent review of CALL and motivation studies, Bodnar et al. (2016) also clarified that self-determination theory has been sufficiently addressed, while a gap in the literature exists in terms of studies related to motivation and CALL that can best be filled by considering contemporary theories in motivation such as the L2MSS or even the complex dynamic system. On response to the work of Bodnar et al. (2016), this study thus adopts the L2MSS as its theoretical framework; this is also more appropriate because, unlike the self-determination theory, this theory is specific to language learning, with three neat constructs that have been widely proven to be identifiable as separate constructs with two clear self-guides in the forms of the Ideal L2 self and the Ought to L2 self. This framework also entails a certain degree of internalisation as, according to Dörnyei (2009), when he proposed these two self-guides, the idea of internalisation from "own Ideal L2 self" to "Ought-to L2 self" was inherent, though this depends on learners' own recognition of their selves and the intensity of their self-guides. Overall, self-determination theory offers a good fit for exploring technology and language learning, as shown by Henry and Lamb (2020).

Nonetheless, the L2 motivational self-system being potentially very powerful and has been generally overlooked in studies related to motivation and technology.

Regarding the complex dynamic system theory reviewed earlier in section 3.2.2.3, The concept assumes and focuses on immediate moment-to-moment situations and motivation. This concept applies to longitudinal studies using a mostly qualitative approach, rather than a linear cause-and-effect approach, and it is difficult to capture any outcome or motivated behaviour because the concepts reject cause-and-effect thinking and focus more on the dynamic nature of motivation; therefore, this is not a good fit for my design. As mentioned previously, due to the complexity of the dynamic system approach, there is little empirical research using this approach compared to the surge of empirical studies related to the L2 Motivational Self System (Csizér, 2020; Hiver & Papi, 2020). Since the focus of this study is not on the interrelationship between the small time units and motivation but rather the interrelationship among different OILE activities and students' motivation, complexity theory was excluded as a theoretical framework. Additionally, the complex dynamic system is in its exploratory stages, and has therefore yet to be validated in this field. Thus, it might not be suitable for use in my study, which aims to explain the relationship between motivation, IP, and OILE use. It is more appropriate to use an approach with three neat concepts that have been studied before with many factors and then build on it; this would provide a much more focused and reliable study. Also, there are no “tested methodological templates available” (Dörnyei, 2014, p. 84) for the dynamic system other than very few that had not been empirically validated. Also, as mentioned in section 3.2.2.3, the complex dynamic system assumes nonfinality, and in my study, the focus is on one outcome—online informal language learning—and this might suggest that attempting to investigate learners' motivation through a complexity approach in this study might preclude any attempt to produce a coherent and clear analysis.

Researchers always need to ensure that they have identified a suitable methodological design before embarking on a multidimensional study such as this (Cohen,

Manion, & Morrison, 2011). Where such a study employs linear assumptions or a cause-and-effect design, such as examining the proposition that motivation leads to more engagement with technology, applying a complex dynamic system might make this harder to investigate, as in the complex dynamic system, boundaries are generally blurry. In order to apply the dynamic system, a qualitative method might be needed, supported by a grounded approach (Dörnyei, 2014; Hiver & Papi, 2020). Henry (2015) investigated self guides using a dynamic approach and concluded that there were some conceptual issues in terms of capturing self-guides based on a dynamic system; he thus highlighted the need for more research in that area in order to develop an understanding of motivational self-guides from a holistic point of view.

Overall, the L2 Motivational Self System provides a good fit to be studied or combined with various concepts, such as willingness to communicate (WTC; Lee & Lee, 2020) and intercultural contact (Al-Qahtani, 2015; Csizér & Kormos, 2009b; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). It has also been examined with conceptually unrelated concepts, such as CALL (Adolphs et al., 2018; Gleason & Suvorov, 2012; McCarty, 2009) and, recently, with informal online English learning (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018). The latter association will be discussed in depth later in section 3.5.1, as this is the cardinal aim of the study, and it is pertinent to note that the L2 Motivational Self System is not immune from criticism. The following section is designed to review some of model limitations.

### ***3.2.5.1 Limitations of the L2 Motivational Self System***

The L2 Motivational Self System has several limitations, the first of which is that the model has been developed with a focus on motivation towards learning English (Al-Hoorie, 2018). Boo, Dörnyei, and Ryan (2015) in their meta-analysis indicated that 72% of studies reviewed (n= 416) examined motivation towards learning English. However, Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) argued that most language motivation research is based on English

learning, indicating that this was expected, as in many monolingual contexts such as those in Japan and China, research into language learning is usually limited to English. However, this raises some major concerns as to whether L2 motivation research has theoretical bias against languages other than English. Lanvers (2016) introduced a model based on Anglophone learners, though not necessarily exclusive to them that included aspects from Higgins (1987), most specifically the standpoint of self vs. the standpoint of others. Her work also suggests the adoption of a continuum view with Ideal L2 self seen as intrinsic and the Ought-to L2 self as extrinsic, a format derived from self-determination theory. She further identified the “rebellious self”, who rejects imposed selves by others because it contradicts the subject’s own selves. Similarly, Thompson and Vásquez (2015), in their study on native English speakers learning foreign languages, proposed a new self known as the anti-Ought-to L2 self; this arose from a case study highlighting the rejection of the negative assumptions imposed by others. Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) acknowledged the potential existence of different selves for learners of languages other than English; however, they also highlighted that those studies that have claimed to identify such new selves, such as Lanvers (2016) and Thompson and Vásquez (2015), are based on individual cases, and that further studies are thus needed to determine how generalisable these cases are. Al-Hoorie (2018) noted that “the language motivation field is witnessing more and more selves being introduced including anti-ought to, rebellious, imposed, bilingual, multilingual, private, public, possible, and probable selves, but without sufficient attention to their construct validity or their overlap” (p.738). However, such discussion of motivation towards other languages is well beyond the scope of the current study, although it is necessary to acknowledge this to highlight the limitations of the selected model. In general, motivation towards learning English appears to be different to motivations for other languages. Dörnyei and Al-Hoorie (2017) similarly highlighted that learning English is extremely different from learning other languages as they stated: “a characteristic feature of learning Global English worldwide is

that it does not require any special justification—that is, it is the default or ‘unmarked’ option of language choice” (p. 462).

Several issues with the model have also arisen from validation studies, including a query about the potency of the Ought-to L2 self in terms of explaining learners’ intended effort; the Ought-to L2 self was found to play only a minor role in contributing to the criterion measures (outcomes) in both Csizér and Kormos (2009a) and Papi (2010), while Kormos, Kiddle, and Csizér (2011) found its influence as insignificant. Indeed, even Dörnyei and Chan (2013) stated that the Ought-to L2 self lacks “the energizing force to make a difference in actual motivated learner behaviours by themselves” (p. 454). Dörnyei (2009a) demonstrated early scepticism about the role of the Ought-to L2 self, stating that:

because the source of the second component of the system, the Ought-to L2 Self, is external to the learner (as it concerns the duties and obligations imposed by friends, parents, and other authoritative figures), this future self-guide does not lend itself to obvious motivational practices. (p. 32)

Additionally, the Ought-to L2 self construct has been entirely excluded from some studies. Kormos and Csizér (2008) dropped the Ought-to L2 self from their study after applying factor analysis which indicated that the scale did not seem to be identifiable in the sample from Hungary, despite this being where the system was initially tested. Similarly, Csizér and Lukács (2010) and Lamb (2012) dropped the construct from their studies due to its lack of reliability. Lamb (2012) further acknowledged that some wordings of the Ought-to L2 self was problematic, taking on the standpoint of both the subjects’ own self and other standpoints, noting that previous studies that showed acceptable reliability (Taguchi et al., 2009) had restated all of the statements in the Ought-to L2 self scale in “subjects’ own self” (p.1007).

Papi et al. (2019) highlighted that the construct of Ought-to L2 self should not simply be excluded, as it is considered an important self-guide to regulating human behaviour, as proposed by Higgins (1987). In light of this, several studies have attempted to propose an improved model for the L2MSS; for example; Teimouri (2017) added other/own standpoints to the wording of self-guide questionnaires in a study in the Iranian context with regard to both the Ought-to L2 self and Ideal L2 self. However, the resulting statistical analysis, based on principal component analysis, indicated that only the Ought-to L2 self reflected both standpoints. Furthermore, Teimouri (2017) found that stepwise regression confirmed the findings from relevant studies that the Ideal L2 self had the stronger effect in predicting intended effort, while the Ought-to L2 self did not play a role in motivation, at least in terms of predicting the intended effort. Papi et al. (2019) also introduced a “2x2 model of L2 self-guides”, grounded on the self-discrepancy theory by Higgins (1987). That study argued that the wording of the Ought-to L2 self items can be problematic where it includes items “from both own (i.e., ‘*it is necessary to learn English because it is an international language*’) and others (i.e., ‘*others will be disappointed if I failed to learn*’)” perspectives (p. 342). The results of the study confirmed the proposed model, and Papi et al. (2019) thus called for further studies to validate the existence of two standpoints for self-guides. However, Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) advised researchers to avoid introducing more motivational categories to essentially deal with the same theoretical issues. When Dörnyei (2009a) introduced L2MSS, he specifically clarified that introducing different standpoints (own/other) would make the boundaries fuzzy as to where exactly the line should be drawn between (for example) Ideal/Other and Ought/Other. Furthermore, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) highlighted that the degree of internalisation of any self-guide depends on the application of self-determination theory in a continuum between self-determined and less self-determined; essentially, therefore, separate definitions of “own/other” might simply refer to different degrees of internalisation.

Another limitation related to the model can be that not all components receive equal attention, with some concepts remaining at an embryonic stage, such as the L2 learning experience (Csizér, 2020), as discussed in section 3.2.4. Many researchers have also mentioned that the concept holds additional conceptual challenges (Al-Hoorie, 2018), as when Dörnyei (2009a) first introduced the model, the concept was not clearly explained, and many studies such as Csizér and Kormos (2009a) used classroom attitudes to refer to L2 learning experience, while others focused on experience of language as a communication tool (Yashima, 2009). Generally, this concept is still ill-defined, as recently noted by Csizér (2020), and according to Al-Hoorie (2018), this might explain why so many researchers have abandoned the concept entirely.

Another conceptual challenge within the model is that it is based on the self discrepancy theory, which proposes three forms of selves as discussed in section 3.2.3.2, the actual self, the possible selves, and the feared selves. Neither the actual self nor the feared selves are clearly clarified in the model which generates further conceptual challenges for researchers attempting to clearly understand the model, as well as highlighting the need to incorporate some qualitative approaches when examining the model alongside the use of validated questionnaires in order to generate clearer conceptions of learners' experiences of these constructs (Csizér, 2020).

The focus of this study is not, however, to validate the L2MSS or to address conceptual issues within it, as these have been sufficiently addressed previously, as will be presented in section 3.2.6. The only item requiring additional consideration is the wording of the Ought-to L2 self scale, which is addressed by adapting the construct used by Taguchi et al. (2009) to improve the power of the overall L2MSS model (see section 3.2.4). Defining the conditions for the self-guides' motivational potency to be realised is also necessary. Dörnyei (2009a) stated that the most important condition is the existence of a vivid future self-image, as Higgins (1987) emphasised; not everyone has a clear self-guide, which explains the lack of motivation seen in some people. This image should be a realistic, being

based on the learner's current circumstances, and in which the Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self are in harmony. Images of future selves should be active within the working memory and as a result, self-guides should be planned or regulated within a realistic strategy. Finally, a moderate amount of the feared self must also be present to boost the effect of any future self-guides. Dörnyei (2009a, pp.19–22) offers a more substantial explanation of these conditions, which cannot be easily assessed using quantitative approaches and this entails the need of qualitative approaches to ascertain such aspects.

### **3.2.6 Empirical Validation of the L2MSS**

After the introduction of the L2 Motivational Self System, several studies were carried out to validate it. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2009) published an anthology of some of these studies, involving more than 6,000 participants taken from myriad sample types including school students, university students, and adult learners from various countries. This included studies in China, Iran, Japan (Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009), and Hungary (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a) validating the general model, as well as other studies validating singular components, such as the Ideal L2 self, in Saudi Arabia (Al-Shehri, 2009) and Japan (Yashima, 2009). Furthermore, in the anthology, Lamb (2009) reported a case study on two Indonesian students, and the aim of the study was not to validate the L2 Motivational Self System but, rather, to use it as an analytical framework for the data. In Lamb (2009), it was found that a highly developed Ideal L2 self helped in regulating the learning of English for one of the participants outside the classroom. He further stated that the participant's "vision of herself as a fluent speaker in the international community may partly account for her use of film and music to learn the language" (p. 243), an interesting association pointing to the relationship between vision of the self and informal learning, in which this relationship was explored later in Lamb and Arisandy (2019). By examining the relationship of OILE and students' motivation using L2MSS as a theoretical framework, I will discuss this study later in section 3.5.1, as it points to the cardinal aim of my study. Dörnyei (2009a) later noted that



the studies included in the anthology (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) generally confirmed the logic and usefulness of the proposed system. Additionally, among the main findings of these studies, that the Ideal L2 self correlates positively with intended learning effort (the amount of effort learners intend to invest in learning English), a concept that has since been used as the criterion measure for much of the ongoing L2MSS research and which is thus addressed later in this chapter (section 3.2.8.2). Until very recently, researchers had continued to validate the model in different countries, including Turkey (Taylan, 2017), Pakistan (Islam et al., 2013), Chile (Kormos et al., 2011), Indonesia (Lamb, 2012), Iran (Papi, 2010; Rajab, Far, & Etemadzadeh, 2012), and Japan (Ueki & Takeuchi, 2012). Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) have argued that “virtually all the validation studies reported in the literature found the L2 motivation self-system providing a good fit for the data” (p. 91). Furthermore, a recent meta-analysis of motivational studies in language learning highlighted the dominance of the L2 Motivation Self System in the field (Boo et al., 2015), with 22 studies examining how *instrumentality* and *integrativeness* relate to the L2 Motivational Self System. This makes it clear that the key conceptual issues (*instrumentality*: learning English for extrinsic reasons, and *integrativeness*: learning English to identify with the native English speaking community) have received thorough investigation in recent years based on an interest that can be “attributed to the transitory period in the field as scholars were trying to find both common and contrasting grounds between the traditional and the incoming paradigm” (Boo et al., p. 153).

Furthermore, Boo et al. (2015) highlighted that the L2 Motivational Self System is very versatile and flexible, as “it not only allowed for the engagement with existing theories and methods on their own terms but it also offered a springboard for new approaches” (p. 153). In fact, the system has been examined with several affective factors, such as autonomy (Lamb, 2011; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2013), anxiety (Papi, 2010) as well as with willingness to communicate (WTC) (Lee & Lee, 2020) and intercultural contact (Al-Qahtani, 2015; Csizér

& Kormos, 2009b; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). It has also been examined with conceptually unrelated concepts, such as CALL (Adolphs et al., 2018; Gleason & Suvorov, 2012; McCarty, 2009), and, recently, with informal online English learning (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018). The latter association will be discussed in depth later (section 3.5.1), as it is the main focus of this study, but before I proceed, I should discuss Kormos and Csizér's (2008) study, which pointed to the role of media in enhancing learners' motivation and communication long before the recent media and Internet revolution.

Kormos and Csizér (2008) examined how intercultural contact (ICC), here referring to contact between different ethnicities and groups, influences student motivation in Hungary, with foreign media use included as a type of indirect contact that influences students' motivation towards language learning. They thus utilised a scale to examine the use of the Internet as a type of foreign media exposure. These researchers asserted that, in a monolingual context such as Hungary, indirect contact might exceed direct contact, and thus, frequency of exposure to media enhances learners' attitudes and behaviour towards a language. They concluded that, when studying students' language learning motivation, the role of media exposure should not be ignored, and thus called for further studies investigating how increases in levels of motivation might shape students' language contact experiences, whether directly or indirectly.

### **3.2.7 Research on the L2MSS in Saudi Arabia**

Al-Shehri (2009) conducted a study of 200 Saudi learners to examine the relationship between students' visual learning styles, their imaginations, their Ideal L2 selves, and their motivated behaviour. That study included only one component of the L2MSS which is the Ideal L2 self. Al-Shehri (2009) found positive relationships among visual learning style, imagination, and Ideal L2 self, and concluded that a person with good visual and imaginative

capacity will have a stronger potential in terms of developing a powerful Ideal L2 self, and that, eventually, this could impact on the learner's motivated behaviour. However, this was a correlational study, making it impossible to assert causation; it might be that a high Ideal L2 self affected the strength of learners' imagery or vice versa. Additionally, the sample size was relatively small, with fewer than 200 participants, negatively affecting the generalisability of the study.

Al-Qahtani's (2015) mixed-methods study examined the relationship between intercultural contact (ICC), or contact between different ethnicities and groups, and L2 Motivational Self Systems for a group of Saudi students studying in the UK. The study found that the prior ICC experiences of the students correlated with their Ideal L2 selves and their language-learning attitudes. However, that study did not differentiate between direct or indirect ICC (direct ICC refers to face-to-face communication, while indirect ICC occurs through a mediated form, such as the student watching TV or listening to music). Al-Qahtani (2015) thus suggested that students who were involved in any prior ICC, whether directly or indirectly, were motivated to study English, with ICC predicting the development of the Ideal L2 self. In his study, the Ideal L2 self had a slightly higher mean effect than the Ought-to L2 self or language-learning attitude; however, the regression analysis that produced these results was conducted without any confirmation of the identifiability of the scales involved, potentially jeopardising the results (Field, 2005, p.161). The second part of Al-Qahtani's (2015) study was a longitudinal semi-structured set of interviews exploring learners' actual ICC behaviours over a period of time. However, the resulting data did not yield any patterns in terms of learners' motivational profiles and their actual ICC behaviours, with multiple cultural factors appearing to contribute to learners' behaviours in term of engaging in ICC opportunities. Overall, the study therefore simply suggested that being involved in ICC, whether directly or indirectly, motivates students to learn English in a manner that may eventually enhance their Ideal L2 selves.

Moskovsky et al. (2016) conducted a study of 360 students with the aim of exploring the relationships among L2MSS components, learners' intended efforts, and the learners' proficiency levels. While most researchers have assumed that intended effort reflects actual learning behaviour, few have attempted to prove this. In that study, students' proficiency was assessed through writing and speaking tests, and the L2MSS components were found to be good predictors of intended effort; however, no relationship was found between these components and students' achievement in tests; in particular, Ideal L2 self did not predict language proficiency. Moskovsky et al. (2016) concluded from their study that learners' intended effort is not necessarily reflected in the actual achievement of the students. They further argued that affirming a link between L2MSS components and L2 achievement is impossible without language proficiency tests, a point discussed in more detail in section 3.2.8.2. Their study was based on rigorous statistical analysis, and the contribution made by the study was highly significant to the field of L2MSS. Alshahrani (2016) conducted a study of 400 university students in Saudi Arabia and included all three constructs of the L2MSS, all of which, according to the researcher, were found to have high mean values (means of around 4 on 6-point Likert scales). However, there is no established benchmarking in the literature for such measurements. Furthermore, Alshahrani (2016) reported that the Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience nevertheless had higher potencies in terms of explaining learners' intended effort than the Ought-to L2 self.

As can be seen from this section the L2MSS had been confirmed in the context of Saudi Arabia, with the two main self guides applicable at varying levels; however, the majority of these studies used quantitative approaches to examine how the variables assessed predicted intended effort based on regression analysis. One limitation of all of these studies, with the exception of Moskovsky et al. (2016), is that they neglected to confirm the identifiability of their scales by means of confirmatory factor analysis or similar statistical

testing, making it very difficult to rely on any findings regarding the potency of the components of the L2MSS. Furthermore, in relation to the level of each construct, no benchmarking has as yet been developed in the literature to evaluate various levels of L2MSS components. In the next section, I discuss the main findings related to the level of L2MSS components.

### **3.2.8 Main Findings Related to the L2MSS**

Although this study utilises the L2MSS as a theoretical framework for assessing student motivation before relating this to other concepts, particularly International Posture and online informal learning of English, it remains pertinent to highlight existing findings related to the general level of the L2MSS from the relevant studies to clarify the main factors that impact on learners' levels of L2MSS such as age and cultural background. Additionally, within the L2 Motivational Self System literature, many studies used the criterion measure of intended effort to assess the intensity of the three L2MSS components and their potency in predicting the outcome. These points are thus discussed in the next section in order to better examine the role of intended learning effort in predicting actual behaviour of students.

#### ***3.2.8.1 Levels of L2MSS Components Across Various Studies***

Numerous factors impact on learners' L2 Motivational Self Systems. There were some age differences as Ryan (2009) and Kormos and Csizér (2008) noted that levels of Ideal L2 self were higher among university students than secondary-school students. Similarly, Papi and Teimouri (2012) found, in a study of Iranian learners, that Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience improve with age until students reach university level, while Ought-to L2 self and influence from significant others decline with age. Dörnyei (2009a) thus highlighted that "the self approach may not be appropriate for pre-secondary students" (p. 38). However, Ueki and Takeuchi (2013) asserted that the level of Ideal L2 self among university students depends on learners' English proficiency levels.

Overall, Ideal L2 self seemed to be the strongest predictor of intended learning effort (Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011; Taguchi et al., 2009). In a recent meta-analysis by Al-Hoorie (2018), Ideal L2 self was found to explain more variance in the intended effort than Ought-to L2 self. Additionally, Ideal L2 self seemed to be related to several other motivational constructs, such as attitude towards L2 cultures, in Taguchi et al (2009), intercultural contact in Al-Qahtani (2015), or learners' level of International Posture in Kormos et al. (2011), Kormos and Csizér (2008), and Yashima (2009). The prevalence of the latter concept means that it is discussed in more detail in section 3.3.3.

The Ought-to L2 self, as discussed previously, was found to be problematic in some studies (Csizér & Lukács, 2010; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012). MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clement (2009) asserted that cultural differences in people's self-concept influence their Ought-to selves, while Lamb (2009) suggested exploring how L2 selves are influenced by diverse cultural differences. Dörnyei et al. (2006) stated that "in Asian or Arab cultures, for example, where family expectations are powerful motives, we would expect this self-dimension to play a more central role" (p. 93), and Al-Qahtani (2015) confirmed the potency of Ought-to L2 self in predicting the intended effort within the Saudi context. However, the statistical analysis in the latter study was not rigorous, making it difficult to rely on the findings. Kormos et al. (2011) and Taguchi et al. (2009) also suggested that the Ought-to L2 self might be different in collectivist societies than in more individualist cultures.

In terms of L2 learning experience, or those elements of motivation that stem from the L2 learning environment, the construct has received very little attention, despite having been found to have a strong impact on motivated behaviour (Lamb, 2012). The relationship between Ideal L2 self and intended learning effort was found to be facilitated by learners' L2 learning experiences in Taguchi et al. (2009) and Papi (2010), which suggests that students' Ideal L2 selves must be nurtured in the classroom to generate motivated

behaviours. A recent meta-analysis of L2MSS studies by Al-Hoorie (2018) further indicated that L2 learning experience correlated positively with intended effort, to the extent that the two scales seemed to be measuring the same thing. Al-Hoorie (2018) argued, however, that this might be due to the wording of both scales' items and the fact that many researchers in L2MSS have neglected to use factor analysis in their studies. Csizér (2020) suggested therefore that future research on the theory of L2MSS should try to clarify the overlap between attitudes toward English and L2 learning experience to better derive the motives underlying the learning of English language. In the next section, the viability of using intended learning effort to explain learners' motivation is thus examined.

### **3.2.8.2 Criterion Measures in L2MSS**

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) recommended the use of a criterion measure in motivational studies, stating “that in order to draw more meaningful inferences about the impact of various motives it is more appropriate to use some sort of a behavioural measure as the criterion/ dependent variable” (p.200). Most previous L2 Motivational Self System studies have used intended effort as their criterion measure (Al-Shehri, 2009; Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Moskovsky et al., 2016; Papi et al., 2019; Papi & Teimouri, 2012; Ryan, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009), as intended learning effort is often considered to be “a mediating factor between motivation and success” (Papi, 2010, p. 468), being related to “the amount of effort learners intend to put into learning English” (Papi, 2010, p. 470). Al-Hoorie (2018) noted that 90% of the studies included in his meta-analysis of L2MSS used intended effort as the criterion measure, though both Moskovsky et al. (2016) and Al-Hoorie (2018) highlighted that intended effort does not necessarily lead to actual motivated behaviour. Another common criterion measure is *motivated behaviour*, which attempts to look at actual learning behaviour; however, such attempts may not necessarily succeed (Al-Hoorie, 2018).

Dörnyei and Chan (2013) included both intended effort and course grades as criterion measures, highlighting a positive relationship between Ideal L2 self and intended effort and

a positive correlation between Ideal L2 self and course grades, although the latter correlation was weaker. Ought-to L2 self correlated positively with intended effort, while for course grades, the correlation was non-significant. Moskovsky et al. (2016), as discussed in section 3.2.7, included intended effort and student test results; they found that L2MSS components predicted intended effort but could not predict English test results. Hence, they noted that intended learning effort does not necessarily reflect behavioural consequences and thus can only measure motivation. Lamb (2012) further stated that motivated behaviour does not predict learners' English proficiency; however, the L2 learning experience predicts both motivated learning behaviour and L2 proficiency.

Papi et al. (2019) suggested that the wording of the scale items of intended learning effort is problematic in this regard, suggesting that “learners’ success can be better predicted by the behavior they display in real time than their estimation of their efforts in the future, which could be inaccurate due to the general unpredictability of the future and regulatory bias in its estimation due to respondents’ optimism” (p. 7). They thus replaced intended effort with current motivated behaviour. Some other researchers have also noted that “Dörnyei does not discuss how the various L2 self-concepts might contribute to motivated behavior” (Kormos & Csizér, 2008, p. 332), while Al-Hoorie (2018) reported that the scale of motivated behaviour used in most studies refers to intended effort, rather than actual effort. Al-Hoorie (2018) further argued that there are two important considerations related to the construction of intended effort: the items of the common scales are too generic, as generic intentions are unlikely to turn into actual behaviour based on Fishbein and Ajzen (2010), and the construct runs into conceptual difficulties as intended effort does not conceptually correspond to actual behaviour. Al-Hoorie (2018) thus argued that “a theoretical justification for the use of intended effort as an outcome measure is needed to clarify what we can learn from this construct and in which contexts” (p. 741).

Overall, the literature on outcome measures for L2MSS indicates that there is as yet no solid conclusion regarding the accuracy of the criterion measures used for the L2



Motivational Self System, with Al-Hoorie (2018) highlighting in particular that there is “a need to diversify outcome measures in the L2 motivation field to obtain a more comprehensive picture, rather than relying exclusively on intended effort” (p. 731). He further added that any outcome can be considered as a criterion measure because it only means a dependent variable. According to him, criterion measures may thus be objective, such as English proficiency test results, or subjective, such as intended effort. In this study, therefore, learners’ habits with regard to online informal engagement with English are considered as the criterion measure, reflecting the actual behaviour of learners in terms of their use of English online.

### **3.2.9 Summary of this Section**

This section began by providing a brief history of L2 motivation research as divided by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) into four phases. Of these, the latest phase (the socio-dynamic period of L2 motivation research) began in 2005 and remains ongoing. So far during this period, several research approaches have emerged, including the L2 Motivational Self System, which will serve as the theoretical framework in the current study for developing an understanding of learners’ motivation. The justification for choosing this model is explained in section 3.2.5 though, in short, it is mainly based on the uniqueness of the model in terms of having three neat categories: the Ideal L2 self, which is the vision learners form of the proficient language learners that they aspire to be; the Ought-to L2 self, which is related to a desire to meet the expectations of important others or to prevent negative outcomes and fulfil life obligations; and the L2 learning experience, which refers to motivation generated by the environment. The chapter thus highlighted how the model has been adopted by various validation studies conducted worldwide, including in the context of the current study, Saudi Arabia, confirming the potency of the model in terms of explaining learners’ motivation. However, the model has not been immune from criticism, and this section has highlighted several issues raised with the model. The main findings related to

each component of L2MSS were presented, identifying that the Ideal L2 self shows stronger potency in explaining motivation as compared to the other L2MSS components in several contexts, while the Ought-to L2 self appears to vary more widely across different cultures, being most prominent in collectivist societies where the social influence is strongest. To address the concerns raised in the literature about the use of Ought-to L2 self, I have decided to adapt a scale that has shown high reliability in wide-scale studies (Taguchi et al., 2009) with some changes in the wording of the items as will be highlighted in the methodology chapter (Chapter 4). The main findings related to the use of intended learning effort as a criterion measure (outcome) were presented at the end of the chapter, clearly highlighting the inconsistency of results, and questioning the role of this construct. Some researchers (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Csizér, 2020) have thus called for exploring and introducing other criterion measures or outcome variables when examining L2MSS. This study thus relies instead on students' online informal use of English as an outcome of learner motivation. In the next section, International Posture (IP), the second concept investigated in this study that has been widely associated with L2 motivation, is examined in more detail.

### **3.3 International Posture (IP)**

#### **3.3.1 What is International Posture?**

International posture (IP) was introduced by Yashima (2002) to explain learners' attitudes towards learning English; later, however, the concept was expanded to the learning of other languages. This concept is strongly related to motivation (Yashima, 2002, 2009; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004), including any "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (Yashima, 2002, p. 57). Yashima (2002) emphasised that, "in a context where there is little daily contact with native speakers of English, learners are not likely to have a clear affective reaction to the specific L2 language group" (p. 57). Hence, the uniqueness of IP is that it shifts the focus from any single specific native speaker nation to the more globalised international community of speakers, and Lamb (2004) indicated that many learners view learning English as a means of broadening their horizons and expanding their knowledge of different cultures. A few researchers have also investigated international posture in relation to other languages, opening a route to the application of the concept of IP to languages other than English (Kong et al., 2018; Siridetkoon, 2015), as discussed in section 3.3.3. The next section presents a brief history of how the concept has evolved, offering an overview of studies investigating the relationship between IP and L2MSS components before moving on to examine the role of IP within the Saudi context.

#### **3.3.2 The Evolution of the Concept of IP**

The concept was first introduced by Yashima (2000) in a study on Japanese learners' reasons for learning English; she identified a variable that seemed to substitute for previous assumptions of integrativeness, see section 3.2.2.1, while more accurately reflecting the role of English as an international language. Initially, Yashima named this construct

“International Friendship Orientation” (Yashima, 2000, p. 57), as she found that, for Japanese learners, English did not represent American or the British cultures at all; in their perception, English was considered to be a world language. In her follow-up study, Yashima (2002) introduced the variable as International Posture (IP), and investigated it as a latent variable contributing to learners’ willingness to communicate (WTC), referencing their tendency to voluntarily initiate conversation in the target language when opportunities arose (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990). The aim of Yashima’s (2002) study was to investigate the relationships between learners’ motivation, their IP, their willingness to communicate, and their English proficiency, and IP was thus assumed to reflect concepts such as “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures, among others” (p. 57). Yashima’s (2002) study thus included scales reflecting “intercultural friendship orientation in learning English, interest in international vocation activities, interest in foreign affairs and intergroup approach avoidance tendency” (Yashima, 2002, p. 57). The term *ethnocentrism*, or the tendency to evaluate others based on one’s own cultural standards (Gudykunst, 1991), was removed from Yashima’s (2002) study after test-retest validity work, as the items for this showed some weaknesses and required modification. Overall, IP was found to influence motivation, which in turn influenced L2 proficiency. Yashima (2002) thus validated her IP constructs and called for more studies, indicating that the scale items might be well suited to modification and adaption, depending on the context. Yashima et al. (2004) indicated in their study that IP predicted learners’ WTC and motivation, increasing frequency of communication for Japanese learners both within and outside of the classroom.

Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008) later applied similar variables (motivation, IP, WTC, frequency of communication, and proficiency) in a longitudinal study by administering a questionnaire twice over two years to the same groups. The participants were

drawn from three groups of high-school students, with each group having different levels of exposure to English: Group 1 had received task-based instructions and engagement in international matters; Group 2 followed the grammar translation method only; while Group 3 took part in various study-abroad programmes. The results indicated that those who studied abroad were more likely to have high IP, but that IP could be fostered in the learner's original country through special instruction focused on enhancing imagination, based on clear development in the stay-at-home group who participated in discussions and investigations of international matters during classroom time. Yashima (2013) thus stated that, instead of sending students abroad, creating an imaginary international community by means of assigning appropriate tasks in the classroom could help students foster their IP and their future selves. The work on this by Yashima and her various associates (Yashima, 2002; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima et al., 2004) opened the way for further research exploring the concept of IP alongside other variables, such as motivation. The next section thus focuses on studies that have focused on the relationships between the L2 Motivational Self System and IP.

### **3.3.3 Relationships between Motivation and IP**

Many L2 motivational studies, particularly those involved in L2MSS research, have explored how IP influences L2MSS components (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam, 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009). Yashima (2009) herself examined the relationship between Ideal L2 self and IP, and her study included the following variables: International Posture, L2 WTC, frequency of communication, Ideal L2 self, and scales of self-determination theories. Yashima (2009) found that IP correlated with extrinsic types of motivation (identified and integrated regulation) more significantly and extensively than intrinsic motivation. She therefore argued that as "International Posture theoretically and operationally captures both integrativeness and instrumentality, it is quite reasonable that it reflects self-determined

types of extrinsic motivation more than genuinely intrinsic motivation” (p. 157). Furthermore, IP was found to be related to Ideal L2 self, and Yashima (2009) stated that those who show “ a higher level of international posture and frequency of communication tend to endorse the vision of ideal selves more strongly” (p. 159). However, as her study relied only on correlational analysis, any assumptions of causation must be treated with caution.

Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) hypothesised that the Ideal L2 self is an integrated part of IP, based on Yashima’s (2009) argument that IP “reflects the possible selves of a future English-using participant in an international community” (p. 157). Kormos and Csizér (2008) explored the differences in Hungarian learners’ motivation by age (secondary-school students, university students, adult learners) and attitudes towards English as an international language, discovering that both IP and L2 learners’ experiences contributed to the Ideal L2 self; however, the Ought-to L2 self was omitted from their study due to its lower reliability. Kormos and Csizér (2008) highlighted that IP contributed to motivating behaviours only in adult students, however, though IP was the strongest predictor of Ideal L2 self in all age groups. Kormos et al. (2011) similarly found that IP impacted on learners’ Ideal L2 selves, though L2 learning experience impacted on IP. In Lamb (2012), IP was found to contribute to motivated behaviour in learners, and Lamb further indicated that urban group learners had higher IP than those living in rural areas. Csizér and Kormos (2009a), who initially hypothesised that Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self would be affected by IP, confirmed that their results suggested that only the Ideal L2 self is related to IP, but that L2 learning experience impacted on IP, thus eventually impacting on the Ideal L2 self. Similarly, Taylan (2017) found that IP contributed to Turkish learners’ Ideal L2 self

Munezane (2013) investigated the L2 Motivational Self System and its relationship to IP by adding a latent variable “Valuing of global English” (p. 157), which was introduced to see the extent to which students valued English as a global language and thus used English to tackle global issues such as technological development, environmental change, and

terrorism. Munezane (2013) argued that attitudes towards L2 communities, which include their cultures, countries, and people, should be considered in any L2 learning model, and thus examined the structural relationships between the Ought-to L2 self, the Ideal L2 selves, attitudes towards the L2 community, valuing of global English, and IP. Using structural equation modelling, Munezane (2013) found that IP predicted the Ideal L2 self, while the Ought-to L2 self predicted attitudes towards the L2 learning community, highlighting the influence of the expectations of others on learners' L2 attitudes, in particular, many students expressed the idea that they shared music and films with their parents and peers that eventually affected their attitudes towards English.

Jiang (2013) conducted a longitudinal study on Chinese students' motivation and IP using the L2 Motivational Self System as a theoretical framework for observing gender differences between male and female learners. The motivations of female learners changed significantly over time, unlike those of male learners, though both male and female learners showed some decrease in their IP levels, with particular reference to intergroup approach-avoidance tendency and interest in international vocation. Jiang (2013) noted that the argument on the impact of the cultural setting on learners motivation and IP is still ongoing, concluding that females have higher levels of Ideal L2 self and instrumental motivation and their IP decreased over the course of the 12-month study. The sample size was larger for females than males in that study, however, suggesting that any apparent gender differences must be handled with caution. Jiang (2013) called for more investigations based in collectivist societies to better investigate various aspects of IP and gender-related issues.

Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) examined the effect of intercultural communication and IP on learners' L2 motivation in two groups of students, one from international universities and one from non-international universities. In their study, they hypothesised that the Ideal L2 self is part of IP, and their findings indicated that IP is a major motive for Japanese students, regardless of their environment, suggesting that whether students are exposed to intercultural contact or not, those who have a positive international orientation are more

motivated to learn the language. In addition, IP was found to be related to L2 learning experience in both groups, while Ought-to L2 self was not found to be related in this manner.

Islam et al. (2013) examined IP in a study that aimed to validate L2MSS in Pakistan. There, IP was found to predict the prevalence of Ideal L2 self. Islam et al. (2013) also, however, proposed a construct they named “national interest,” which referred to “attitudes towards national socio-economic development, national integrity and the projection of a positive group/national image in the international arena” (p. 234), and this variable was a stronger contributor to both the Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience than IP. This finding supports the study of Saudi learners by Al Haq and Smadi (1996), which suggested that learners view English as being reflective of national and religious organisational structures. However, the manner in which the regression analyses were conducted for Islam et al. (2013) study mean that the results must be handled with caution, as all analyses disregarded the identifiability of the scales.

Siridetkoon (2015) investigated the applicability of the concept of International Posture to languages other than English, identifying that international posture was a driving motive for students attempting to learn Chinese and Korean. Similarly, Kong et al. (2018) investigated learners’ L2MSS and IP by recruiting two groups of Korean learners, one group learning commonly taught languages (CTL), such as English and Chinese, and one learning less commonly taught languages (LCTL), such as Spanish and Arabic. They hypothesised that IP would affect both Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self, and their findings indicated that in the CTL group, IP had a stronger impact on Ideal L2 self than in the LCTL group. Furthermore, IP did not relate to Ought-to L2 self in either the CTL or in LCTL group. Such studies confirm that the concept of IP is closely related to motivation to learn foreign languages other than English as well as motivation to learn English.

In short, many studies have investigated the relationship between learners’ International Posture and motivation (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam, 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009).



International posture has been found to be particularly closely related to Ideal L2 self within most studies (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011; Yashima, 2009), yet the Ought-to L2 self was not found to relate to International Posture generally (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos et al., 2011). Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) suggested that International Posture had an impact on L2 learning experiences, whereas L2 learning experience was found to predict IP in Kormos et al. (2011) and Lamb (2012). While the concept of IP has thus been addressed in various contexts and used to predict learners' Ideal L2 selves, it has not been sufficiently addressed within the context of Saudi Arabia. The next section thus discusses what has been investigated in terms of Saudi learners' International Posture and thereby indicates the need to investigate this concept further within that context.

#### **3.3.4 IP within the Saudi Arabian Context**

IP has not yet been investigated in Saudi Arabia, based on a literature search for material related to IP; however, many studies have examined students' attitudes towards English in Saudi Arabia (Al-Bassam, 1987; Al-Doasri, 1992; Al-Swauil, 2015), and the key findings of these studies overlap with certain concepts related to IP, such as willingness to work overseas and openness to other cultures; these are thus discussed in this section.

Al-Dosari (1992) conducted a study on Saudi male university students to develop an understanding of the influence of culture and religion on students' attitudes towards learning English, based on the opinions of teachers, students, and religious scholars. It is important to mention that, at that time, religious scholars influenced people's attitudes towards every aspect of life in Saudi Arabia, and within Al-Dosari's research, about half of the teachers and religious scholars surveyed expressed concerns of fear of assimilation, suggesting that teaching students English might affect their attitudes and Westernise them, despite the fact that the Islamic religion encourages its followers to learn foreign languages. As an insider from this context, I doubt the sustainability of these results in contemporary Saudi Arabia. In fact, Al-Swauil (2015), who replicated Al-Dosari's (1992) study among Saudi females of

a different age group (elementary school students), supports the idea of a change in Saudi perspectives over the past decade, with results that reflect a gradual openness in the country affecting people's attitudes and perspectives. The majority of teachers, students, and religious scholars surveyed in this later study exhibited more positive attitudes towards learning English, and their attitude this time was derived by religious duties. The findings also revealed that many students viewed English as a global language and wanted to learn it so that they could communicate with others specifically to rectify any misconceptions about their religion. Although IP as an attitudinal concept has not been addressed in the context of Saudi Arabia, some of the major dimensions of IP were discussed in Al-Swuail's study (2015), which included a questionnaire that focused on constructs equivalent to certain IP dimensions. For example, "interest in employment beyond Saudi Arabia" (p. 64) is similar to what Yashima (2009) referred to as "interest in international vocation" (p. 162). There was also an item similar to the IP concept of having things to communicate to the world, although this was limited to delivering a specific message, "communicating the message of Islam to non-Arabic speakers" (Al-Swuail, 2015, p. 64). Although Al-Swuail (2015) implied communication only in one direction with this item, however, the overall findings of her study highlighted students' willingness to be open to differing others and to reciprocally receive and deliver messages.

This section has highlighted the need to investigate learners' International Posture within the context of Saudi Arabia as, ultimately, the fundamental goal of learning English is to communicate in a globalised world. This makes it necessary to understand students' levels of global outlook and openness to the world in order to determine whether any interventions are needed to enhance learners' International Postures within the context of this study.

### **3.3.5 Summary of this Section**

This section began by explaining the concept of International Posture, moving on to describe the evolution of IP and how it was introduced initially as an attitudinal factor to predict motivation toward learning English before being expanded to languages other than English. Initially, most studies in this field were led by Yashima and thus focused on Japan, where the key finding was that IP was associated with learners' motivation and with increased levels of L2 communication inside and outside the classroom. This section also highlighted that the concept of IP has never been fully discussed in the context of Saudi Arabia, though some studies in Saudi Arabia have studied issues related to IP, such as interest in working overseas and contacting the wider world. Additionally, the previous section discussed those L2MSS studies that incorporated IP as a variable in detail, with the key finding being that a higher level of IP was associated with high Ideal L2 self. The other components of L2MSS (Ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience) were generally not found to be related to IP, however, except in few studies where L2 learning experience was found to have a reciprocal relationship with IP. However, the relationship between IP and L2MSS components has also not been investigated within the context of Saudi Arabia. Thus, one of the aims of this study is to investigate the relationship between L2MSS components and IP within the context of Saudi Arabia in order to confirm or challenge previous findings.

The next section offers an overview and analysis of the literature related to the third variable of interest, online informal learning of English, followed by a discussion of OILE and IP and the need to examine this relationship. OILE is often considered a window to the world and students' IP level might thus determine whether students choose to open this window and benefit from OILE or neglect it; it is also of interest to determine whether that relationship works both ways, which is discussed in section 3.5.3.

### **3.4 Online Informal Learning of English (OILE)**

#### **3.4.1 What is Online Informal Learning of English?**

According to Lee and Dressman (2018) and Lyriqkou (2019), the field of online informal learning of English (OILE) is still in its infancy; thus, before situating this field within the more prominent field of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and discussing relevant studies in the area of OILE and informal language learning, a short overview of the definition of informal learning is required, culminating in the more specific definition of OILE alongside an outline of the different names and acronyms used for facets of this relatively novel field.

Sockett (2014) differentiated between formal learning, non-formal learning, and informal learning. Formal learning is defined as learning provided by any educational institution that is structured and leads to certification, while non-formal learning is defined as learning not provided by educational institutions, which thus does not lead to certification, but which is nevertheless well structured and organised. Informal learning is thus the type of learning associated with daily life activities carried out to entertain or to communicate with family and friends; it is thus always unstructured, and while it may be intentionally pursued, most of the time it occurs unintentionally. In fact, the line between intentional or unintentional learning is blurry, however, and there is no clear way to distinguish this, as learning the language may simply be a by-product of engaging with content in that language, while such engagement could be driven by intent to learn the language, as discussed in detail in section 3.4.7.

Informal learning, which governs OILE, has been referred to and defined by several different names and terminologies; for example, Sundqvist (2011) called it extramural English, referring to any form of contact with English that occurs outside of the classroom, including online activities. Reinders and Benson (2017) called it language learning beyond

the classroom (LBC), and used it to discuss both intentional and incidental learning. Trinder (2017) defined informal learning as student-led activity that occurs outside the classroom and stated that “it is learner- (or peer-) rather than teacher-initiated, takes place outside class, and combines other goals (entertainment, information search, communication) with language acquisition” (p.408). Similarly, Pachler, Bachmair and Cook (2010) defined informal learning as unintentional learning where learning happens as a result of students’ own activities. Toffoli and Sockett (2010) defined informal learning as being spontaneously engaged in English activities, mostly for leisure. They further argued that whilst informal engagement might have some impact on learners’ proficiency levels, learners are usually unaware of its potential benefits; this was reflected by Jurkovič (2019) and Sockett (2013), who also stated that online informal learning is usually done without any intention of learning.

The focus of the current study is on online informal learning of English; it thus adopts the term introduced by Sockett (2014), “online informal learning of English” (OILE), with recognition that Lyriqkou (2019) used a slightly wider term, informal digital learning of English (IDLE). Toffoli and Sockett (2015) described OILE as “a process driven by the intention to communicate, with language learning being only a by-product of this communication” (p. 7), and Kusyk (2017) defined OILE as the field of research that seeks to investigate non-native speakers (NNS) of English as they participate in online informal English practice. As the line between incidental and intentional learning is unclear, the following section discusses how OILE acts as an elastic term, including both intentional and incidental learning.

#### ***3.4.1.1 OILE and Incidental Learning***

Few of the definitions for informal learning mentioned above consider online informal language learning to be a deliberate process (Reinders and Benson, 2017). According to Sockett (2014), the main pioneer in the field of OILE, most users of OILE are

not engaging in learning intentionally; in his book “The Online Informal learning of English” (Sockett, 2014), he thus mainly adopted the perspective of incidental learning. Lamb and Arisandy (2019), who researched motivation and OILE clarified that “intentionality is not clear cut; a young person might choose to watch an English language TV series on Netflix mainly for entertainment, but also knowing they may pick up some new language along the way, and use L1 subtitles (or not) to promote that process” (p.4). In fact, unintentional or incidental learning may be both implicit and explicit. Explicit learning refers to cases where learners involve themselves in the activities whilst being aware of the learning process as well as the outcome, whereas implicit learning occurs where learners are involved in such activities automatically, without paying attention to any learning outcomes. For example, some learners might watch movies in English for pleasure, yet be simultaneously aware of the potential benefits of watching movies in terms of their language development, while other learners might watch movies in English without being aware of the potential for watching movies in English to facilitate language improvement (Pachler et al., 2010). While this study generally adopts Sockett’s (2014) perspective on OILE, this is therefore expanded to incorporate explicit intentional learning, where learners act based on their desire to learn, as one of the aims of this study is to explore this type of OILE experience and to examine whether this desire to learn is an independent construct or overlaps with other constructs, as discussed in section 3.4.7.

### **3.4.2 Situating OILE within CALL**

OILE research has uncovered strong links with several existing paradigms in English language teaching studies, such as CALL studies, incidental acquisition studies, and learners’ autonomy studies (Sockett, 2014, pp. 14–29 and pp. 157–161). The relationship between CALL and OILE is of particular interest, as CALL has been considered a sub-dimension of task motivation related to learners’ situation-specific motivations, which in

turn is related to contextual influences on motivation and the process of language learning in general (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011).

The field of CALL experienced a surge in the 1980s, with several journals dedicated to this field, such as *CALL*, *ReCALL*, and *Language Learning and Technology* (Levy & Stockwell, 2006; Sockett, 2014). Levy (1997) defined CALL as the “search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning” (p.1). Researchers have also introduced various alternate terms for CALL, such as technology enhanced language learning (TELL), and recently, another term has emerged: mobile assisted language learning (MALL), which identifies the rich area for research exploring how mobile devices can be used in language learning or teaching. In fact, most CALL research more generally has focused on pedagogical development (Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, & Freynik, 2014), and researchers such as Thomas (2009), who have introduced studies related to the second generation of Web development, known as web 2.0, with a focus on social media, YouTube, and online videos have also frequently been concerned with the pedagogical implementations of such online applications. Egbert (2005) argued that CALL research was preoccupied with classroom implementation and the benefits of technology use, while Egbert (2005) stated that CALL “should be grounded in theory and practice from a number of fields, especially applied linguistics, second language acquisition, psychology, and computer science” (p. 4).

In a recent review of CALL studies by Bodnar et al. (2016), CALL was determined to have a positive impact on learners’ motivation rather than affecting actual language development and other reviews of the usefulness of technologies for language learning have similarly highlighted that technologies have a higher impact on learners’ motivation than on their language output (Golonka et al., 2014; Macaro, Handley, & Walter, 2012). Macaro et al. (2012) reviewed CALL studies, including only studies since 1990, and amongst their key findings is that technology has a strong impact on learners’ motivation and attitudes rather

than on their linguistic gains. These reviews thus point to a need for more studies investigating the relationship between CALL and motivation, especially from a learner’s perspective. It is pertinent to note that while the current study does not specifically investigate the impact of CALL on motivation, the association is nevertheless relevant, as discussed in section 3.5.

Additionally, Sockett (2014) argued that, with CALL, there is an ongoing “tension between learner-centred and pedagogy-centred approaches ” (p. 20). Steel and Levy (2013) similarly asserted that there is a need to bridge the “gap or disconnect between what students are actually doing [with new digital technologies] and where research directions in CALL are taking us” (p. 319), while Sockett (2014) said that CALL refers to conscious language learning and thus called for a re-evaluation of the definition of CALL to take into account the possibility of unconscious engagement being the key aspect. Based on this, Sockett (2014) suggested that OILE might be compatible with CALL when adopting Egbert’s view (2005) that language learning through technology is not necessarily a deliberate process.

Figure 3-1 explains the relationships between OILE and the other paradigms (CALL, incidental acquisition and learner autonomy) more clearly. Only CALL and OILE are discussed in this thesis as the other paradigms presented in the diagram are beyond the scope of this study.

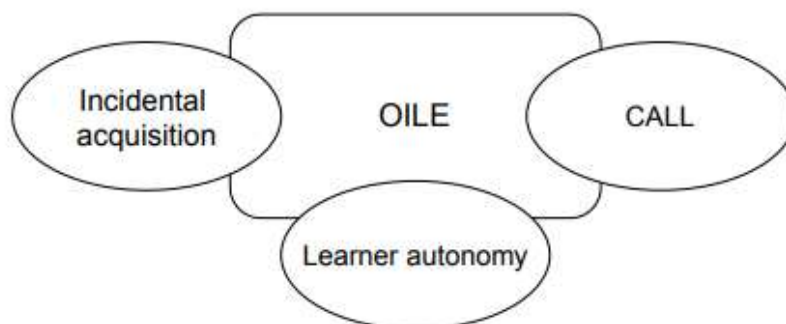


Figure 3-1: Relationship between OILE and other paradigms in L2 research (adapted from Sockett, 2014, p. 158)



### **3.4.3 Informal Language Learning and Language Proficiency**

Several researchers have explored online informal learning/non-online informal learning using various approaches, and generally indicated a positive effect of informal learning on language development, including a positive effect on language proficiency from viewing TV programmes (Kuppens, 2010; Kusyk & Sockett, 2012). In a similar vein, Scholz (2017) found that learners' engagement with online games had a positive effect on vocabulary gain. Many studies have also found correlative evidence of a relationship between informal learning and language proficiency. Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found a positive correlation between the quantity and quality of digital games students engaged with outside of the classroom and their English proficiency, and a positive correlation was found for male online gamers in terms of their vocabulary test results in a study by Sundqvist and Wikström (2015). Overall, many studies, most of which have been experimental, suggest a positive effect on language proficiency from engagement with English outside of the classroom, though the results of other studies reviewed above have been less conclusive. Lee (2019) determined that it is the quality rather than the quantity (frequency) of informal digital learning in English that affects learners' proficiency, particularly with reference to vocabulary gains. The next section reviews informal English learning studies that have investigated various types of informal resources, including the Internet, followed by an examination of studies specifically focused on OILE. The link between motivation and OILE is then discussed, followed by an overview of IP and OILE.

### **3.4.4 Studies in Informal English Learning**

This section reviews those informal English learning studies that have investigated several types of informal resources, including the Internet. Then, in section 3.4.5, the examination moves on to discussing studies focused solely on OILE. Sundqvist (2011) explored seven activities involving out-of-classroom contact with English, which he referred to as *extramural English*; these included surfing the Internet. That study employed

questionnaires and student diaries to explore two affective factors: anxiety and self-efficacy, reflecting respondents' individual beliefs about their capabilities. The study found no positive correlation between extramural activities and anxiety; however, a significant positive correlation between self-efficacy and extramural English was identified within the male respondents. The key finding of the study was that there is some relationship between oral proficiency and vocabulary size and extramural engagement with English; however, the study emphasised the difficulty of assessing causality, and highlighted that interactive activities had a stronger impact on learners' oral proficiency and vocabulary size than activities that involved only passive reception, such as watching TV or listening to music.

Ekşi and Aydın's (2013) mixed-methods study investigated Turkish learners' engagement with English outside of the classroom, with a specific focus on the type of technology used, students' opinions about these technologies and whether the results were affected by students' backgrounds, such as their course level and their field of study. That study showed that students mostly engaged with English by watching TV and listening to music, and the results indicated that the higher the students' English level, the more they tended to engage with informal language learning. However, no significant differences between students studying different disciplines were found. Ekşi and Aydın (2013) also found that active users of technology for English learning showed higher cultural awareness, as well as suggesting that the study be expanded by employing different age groups.

Cole and Vanderplank (2016) conducted a mixed-methods study on advanced Brazilian learners to test the efficiency of engaging with English outside of the classroom by comparing two groups of learners, fully autonomous informal learners and formally-instructed students, using a linguistic test, a questionnaire, and structured interviews. That study included various types of informal resources, though the Internet was the main one considered. The study found that autonomous learners exceeded the other group significantly in terms of achievement, and that motivation was among the key factors that affected these

informal learners. Learners' motivation, which was investigated in light of self-determination theory, was found to predict informal learning, highlighting the need for more studies investigating out-of-classroom informal learning with a focus on learners and their motivation.

Lyriqkou (2019) conducted a study on Greek adolescent students that examined the students' habits with regard to engaging with English in their free time and the amount of effort students exerted during such informal engagement with English to determine how this related to their speaking proficiency. To measure students' effort, Lyriqkou (2019) used the "effort–agency" concept introduced by Cole and Vanderplank (2016), which refers to the techniques learners adopt to understand unknown English words or phrases they encounter in informal learning resources. The results showed that students' habits of practising English through consuming media in their free time were limited, and that these students did not seem to exert any effort during their informal engagement with English. The researcher attributed this to the learners' stage, as these learners were still in the "pre-agency stage", noting that they might need some initial guidance to make the most of the potential benefits of informal learning resources (p. 11). Future studies are thus required on more advanced language learners, to explore their informal language learning habits and the amount of effort they are willing to exert.

To summarise, an examination of the literature related to informal language learning shows that the key findings across such studies are that learners' motivation and agency are important factors in learners' engagement with informal language learning. The next section presents the literature related to online informal language learning and the section will clarify how the field is still in its infancy, which reflects the need for more studies in OILE to determine what actually drives learners to engage in OILE activities.

### 3.4.5 Studies in OILE

This section of the literature review is organised chronologically, based on year of publication, including studies since 2010. This date was selected as, according to Sockett (2014), it marks the evolution of true OILE studies; most studies before that date were concerned with CALL, despite their occasional focus on Internet use. This review of OILE studies also excludes any studies with purely experimental designs, as these are beyond the scope of the present study. However, this review does include studies of online engagement with English featuring both incidental and intentional learning. Trinder (2017) argued that the line between intentional and incidental learning is blurred, as students might engage in an activity for entertainment, and incidental learning might occur; however, they might have the intention of improving their language skills through engagement with online English activities as well as seeking entertainment. Sockett (2014) stated that “activities occurring in this context do not follow a set pattern and may not even be subject to conscious processing, since the aim of the learner is communication and not explicitly language learning, which is merely a by-product of this choice” (p. 13). It is also pertinent to note that one of the reported studies in this section focused on learning both English and French (García Botero et al., 2018).

Tan, Ng, and Saw (2010) conducted an exploratory study examining Malaysian school students’ online engagement with English that determined that 77% of such students’ use of the Internet was in English; however, the study could be improved by applying a power analysis (such as that provided by G\*power) to determine whether the sample size was sufficient to reach the conclusion that this population are generally prolific users of English online content. Toffoli and Sockett (2010) conducted a study on French students to assess their habits of Internet use with regard to materials in English accessed outside of the classroom. The results indicated that 90% of the students listened to English on the Internet on a monthly basis, 50% listened to English once a week, and 25% read English on the

Internet once a week, while all other students read English content at least occasionally. Social networks were their primary source of English reading. These results suggest that three skills are consistently involved in students' Internet use: listening, reading and writing, though listening is the most dominant. That study could be improved by integrating quantitative data to develop understanding of why learners prefer certain activities. As a follow-up, Sockett and Toffoli (2012) explored online informal English learning among French university students, asking five students to record all occurrences of English language use online over a period of 60 days, along with their reflections on their engagement with English online; this data collection was followed by interviews. The learners showed reasonable metacognitive awareness resulting from their online interactions, and the researchers concluded that it is incumbent upon the formal educational system to incorporate informal learning into the systems, while bearing in mind students' need for privacy in social networks; this might thus involve creating alternative informal platforms, such as forums for informal English discussions among students. Sockett and Toffoli (2012) thus paved the way for further qualitative studies in the OILE fields.

Sockett (2013) then investigated the online informal English learning experiences of nine French students studying on a MA program in English Language who had some knowledge of language learning theories. The participants were asked to blog and report on their OILE habits for a period of three months, as well as being asked to reflect on their own language development; the intent was to determine how learners with some theoretical knowledge of English learning would practise and prioritise OILE activities, as well as to determine whether OILE development has any similarities to the process of first language acquisition. Sockett (2013) analysed learners' engagement based on the complex dynamic system proposed by Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), which focuses on the language development of the individual learner, taking into consideration the different strategies and resources that contribute to the process of language development. That study thus provided

real examples of learning the language in informal environments, highlighting the ways in which OILE is a highly individualised experience and complicated process; this complex dynamic system thus provided a good fit for the data. However, the study suggests that it is difficult to develop conclusive findings on OILE development, as these are guided by learners' intentions to engage with the English-speaking community through authentic communication.

Jarvis (2014) explored Thai university students' frequency of use of technological devices, as well as what social media applications they used, in what languages (their L1 or English), by applying a mixed-methods approach (quantitative questionnaires and qualitative semi-structured interviews). The students' levels of English ranged from beginner to intermediate; however, the study used self-reporting to determine language level, which means that these assessments may not be entirely accurate. An interesting result was that the students generally used some English, reporting zero use of their L1 solely online. As English was always used, though to varying degrees, and students seemed to spend most of their time online, it is thus valid to assume that the ubiquity of English media means more exposure to English; and this is evident in this study.

Trinder (2017) examined Austrian intermediate-to-advanced university students' habits with regard to informal English learning to determine how the use of new media outside the classroom affects students' perceptions of the use of technology inside the classroom. Furthermore, the study highlighted how informal learning overlaps with formal learning, showing that most students are aware of the potential benefits of informal language learning, even where they do it unintentionally. The data indicated that 40% of the respondents engaged with new media (on the Internet) in English regularly, and 72% of the sample stated that they had the intention of improving their English when engaging with OILE. As expected, online movies were ranked highest in terms of improving learners' English skills and frequency of use. Trinder (2017) emphasised that low-level English

learners might not be aware of the potential of online informal language learning for improving their fluency, however, and thus might be more reluctant to engage in OILE activities. Examining the items of OILE activities included in Trinder's study suggests a lack of variety in OILE activities with regard to receptive and productive skills. Thus, future studies should pay attention to this, including a wider variety of OILE activities and focusing on both productive and receptive tasks.

Kusyk (2017) conducted a study on German and French students' informal online habits in terms of engaging with English, as, according to the researcher, OILE studies had previously mostly targeted the French population (Kusyk & Sockett, 2012; Sockett, 2014; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010). The aim of Kusyk's study (2017) was thus to report on students' OILE use in a new population (German students), with three case studies tracked over a period of three months to observe any development in English language skills in terms of complexity, accuracy and fluency. The study concluded that L2 development in an online context is complex and non-linear; the researcher found that students participate in activities requiring receptive skills more frequently than those requiring productive skills, and Kusyk (2017) also asserted that there might be several variables affecting learners' engagement with OILE activities, such as aptitude and motivation. This implies that further studies are required to determine precisely how motivation affects learners' OILE use.

Lee and Dressman (2018) conducted a mixed-methods study (questionnaires and interviews) on Korean students' habits in terms of engaging in informal digital learning of English (IDLE) and how this was related to their language proficiency. Although the sample was mixed in terms of gender, the study overall might not be representative of male participation, as less than 30% of the sample was male, with 70% of participants being female. The researchers divided activities into meaning-focused and form-focused types, with meaning-focused activities being authentic online activities such as reading the news in English, whereas form-focused activities involved focusing on linguistic elements during

online communication, such as practising grammar rules online. Students were found to engage in a great deal more meaning-focused activity, though the combination of both seemed to have the most positive impact on language proficiency. Students were found to be engaged most frequently with watching videos and listening to music, and higher proficiency students practised the language online more frequently than those with lower proficiency.

García Botero et al. (2018) invited 117 foreign language students of French and English to use an application called “Duolingo” on their mobile devices and their activity was tracked, along with questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The results highlighted an inconsistency between students’ beliefs about the benefits of such application and their practice. Learners also showed a lack of motivation to keep using the app to study informally. It is pertinent to note that the study focused only on deliberate out-of-class learning, yet concluded by recommending the provision of more practice for students to encourage them to begin self-directed learning. One of the major shortcomings of the study was its reliance on a single mobile app, making it an artificial model of students’ online practice, which generally involves the use of multiple applications. Additionally, learners’ agency was limited in that study, as they were directed to purposefully engage with just the one app.

Jurkovič (2019) explored undergraduate Slovenian students’ online informal English learning habits on their smartphones to determine how this related to their perceived language competence. The study employed a mixed-methods design (questionnaires and semi-structured interviews), and the key findings included the fact that students engaged in receptive tasks more frequently than productive tasks. Furthermore, the findings suggested that higher reported communicative competence in English facilitated more English use online, and vice versa. The study could be improved by expanding the examination of usage



to all mobile devices, rather than just smartphones as learners might use other mobile devices, such as tablets, for productive work.

Overall, the existing literature makes it clear that OILE is a novel field, though a rapidly growing one; further, all of the studies reviewed in this section suggest that learners do tend to engage with OILE activities. The major obstacle in the literature is the lack of a definite benchmark to determine levels of OILE usage; furthermore, the sample size in these studies varies a lot, and no existing studies have used power analysis to determine a suitable sample size. The current study thus seeks to address these shortcomings. In the coming section I review the literature related to OILE in the context of this study ( Saudi Arabia).

#### **3.4.6 Studies Related to OILE in Saudi Arabia**

To date, no studies have explicitly investigated OILE in Saudi Arabia as a specific concept. However, several studies have examined students' social media use, along with the factors that affect their engagement and their beliefs and attitudes towards the use of social media for language learning in that context (Alsaied, 2017; Al-Sofi, 2016; Alnujaidi, 2016; Alshabeb & Almaqarn, 2018; AlShoaibi & Shukri, 2017; Mahdi & El-Naim, 2012; Mitchell, 2012). This section thus reviews these studies, highlighting both their contributions to this field and their shortcomings.

Mitchell (2012) conducted a case study featuring a group of international students who were mostly from Saudi Arabia. The research aimed to explore the students' use of Facebook and the reasons behind this use, and whether these were related to language learning. Most students reported that they have learned English through Facebook although learning was not their intended purpose in using it. Furthermore, the study suggested that using Facebook improved learners' English proficiency and cultural competence. Another interesting finding from the study was that learners reported that their English proficiency improved despite there being no intentional learning. Future studies could explore this

further in order to develop understanding of the different natures of learners' OILE experiences; currently, there is a scarcity of studies in this area, as discussed in section 3.4.7.

Mahdi and El-Naim (2012) conducted a study about informal language learning on Facebook in a population of Saudi university students in their foundation year. Students were invited to voluntarily join a Facebook group, and only 17 students out of 50 actively participated in the group. This sample size is considered small, and no power analysis was conducted to assess whether the sample was sufficient. A questionnaire was also administered to assess what factors encouraged or discouraged students' participation, and the presence of the teacher in the group was one of the main factors negatively affecting learner interactions. In addition, students expressed that interacting with their classmates was fruitless, and that they would have found it more encouraging if the group had included international students.

Al-Sofi (2016) examined university students' perceptions of the role of online communication in improving their English. The students believed that informal online learning through communication could improve their English and enhance their motivation and cultural acceptance of different people. Al-Sofi's (2016) study could have been improved by exploring students' actual use along with their perceptions. Alnujaidi (2016) addressed this shortcoming by means of a quantitative study on Saudi university students' use of social media for language learning and their perceptions and expectations of these applications. He found that students used a variety of applications, most commonly YouTube and Twitter. Learners had a positive attitude towards using social media to assist their language learning and towards engaging in authentic English communication online. The results also showed that social media networks helped learners to learn about different foreign languages and cultures, while students indicated that the use of social media in English enhanced their motivation, engaged them due to experiences being fun, and provided authentic English materials to enhance English communication. The study included myriad

OILE activities and can thus be seen to be extremely significant in developing the literature of OILE within this context. However, no power analysis was conducted prior to the study to determine whether the sample size was sufficiently representative.

Alsaied (2017) examined the relationship between female students' use of technology and their learning performance. The findings indicated that students valued the benefits of social media for language learning and engaged with English at a high level; further, this engagement appeared to be related to their learning performance. Overall, 76% of respondents used social media for entertainment, while 85% did so to communicate with friends and family. The study highlighted that learners tended to be extensive OILE users; however, but this is merely an estimation, as there is as yet no bench marking in the literature. Alsaied (2017) also noted that Facebook was not popular among the study population, with students preferring receptive media tools such as YouTube. She further argued that:

The cultural and religious ideology of some members of Saudi society is an obstacle inhibiting the use of Facebook for socialization by women. Some parents in the KSA may refuse to let their daughters use Facebook, even for educational purposes, believing that social networking is immoral, because it encourages abnormal or inappropriate practices. (p. 85)

Alshabeb and Almaqrn (2018) conducted a study on Saudi university English learners' use of social media through their mobile devices and their attitudes towards the use of social media both within and outside of the classroom. The researchers hypothesised that learners' levels of use of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) could be divided into three categories: beginner, intermediate, and advanced or expert. This hypothesis was not either supported or rejected conclusively, however, as there was no way to assert that learners were high or low users based only on mean values; the study could thus be improved by

means of a comparison between the mean values using more advanced techniques such as within subjects ANOVA. The results did suggest that 70% of the participants were intermediate users who occasionally interacted via social media applications in English, while 30% were advanced learners who frequently used various social media applications in English. Alshabeb and Almaqrn (2018) also found that learners had a positive attitude towards language learning, with learners expressing the idea that their motivation towards language learning increased as a result of social media use. The researchers thus suggested that educators should seek to bridge the gap between formal and informal learning rather than being “surprised by learners’ creativity in adapting new technology and social media to fit their own purposes” (Alshabeb & Almaqrn, 2018, p. 216).

To summarise, OILE research within the context of Saudi Arabia has moved beyond the implementation of new media in the classroom, and the focus now on learners’ use of OILE outside the classroom. Several studies within the context of Saudi Arabia have reported that, in general, most learners are high to moderate users, though they engage in receptive tasks more frequently than productive tasks. A few studies have also suggested that OILE use is related to students’ motivation. Nevertheless, none of the existing studies explicitly used the term OILE, and none conducted power analysis to determine relevant sample sizes. In fact, there are also some issues caused by the lack of a defined benchmark in the literature to determine OILE usage, as discussed in section 3.4.9. The current study examines whether students’ current motivation level relates to their OILE use, as well as investigating the nature of learners’ OILE experiences. In the coming section, therefore, the different types of OILE experiences are discussed.

### 3.4.7 The Nature of OILE Experiences

Several studies have explored the effectiveness of various informal learning resources and their frequency of OILE usage (Jurkovič, 2019; Kusyk, 2017; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Lee & Dressman, 2018; Lyrigkou, 2019; Sockett & Toffoli, 2012; Trinder, 2017), as noted earlier in this review. Sockett (2014) stated that learners might engage in OILE for several reasons, such as to improve their language skills or simply to socialise online using English; this highlights the importance of understanding learners' OILE experiences; however, currently, no study has addressed the varying natures of learners' OILE experiences. Lai, Hu, and Lyu (2018) argued that:

simply identifying and categorizing different types of technological resources to profile the nature of, and discuss the quality of, learners' out-of-class learning experiences might be misleading. Learners' different learning experiences with technology might be a more productive angle of categorization in understanding the nature and quality of out-of-class language learning. (p. 132)

Lai et al. (2018) therefore conducted a two-phase study on the technology experiences of Chinese students learning French, Spanish, German, Japanese, and Arabic, though not English. In the first phase, learners self-reported their proficiency levels in interviews and discussed their experiences of using various languages via technology. Then, based on these interviews, the researchers identified several main themes characterising learners' technological experience of learning different languages outside the classroom, and in the second phase, a questionnaire was designed based on these themes, including whether respondents used technology in language learning for entertainment, to seek information or for socialising purposes. A few other scales were also added: "performance expectancy (i.e., perceived usefulness of the behavior) and effort expectancy (i.e., perceived ease of the

behavior)”, and teacher and peer support (p. 126). Students’ motivation to learn languages was measured before they filled in the questionnaire, and this was generally found to be moderate ( $M= 4.61$ ), based on a six-point Likert scale. However, no information was provided about the theoretical framework used to assess learners’ motivation. The key findings from the quantitative data suggested that student instruction oriented out-of-classroom technological experiences was also influenced by their perceptions of its usefulness, whereas entertainment and information-oriented out-of-classroom technological experience was influenced by perceived ease of use. Lai et al. (2018) thus stated that “future studies are needed to explore further the myriad factors that influence these technological experiences” (p. 132).

Lamb and Arisandy (2019) tested English language learners’ use of OILE by listing 27 common technological activities and dividing them according to Lai et al.’s (2018) categories, self-instruction, entertainment, and socialising; for example, a statement such as “*I make videos in English using snapchat*” (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019, p. 23) would be categorised as socialising. This method has some merits; however, it is both difficult and somewhat arbitrary to categorise OILE activities under a single types of OILE experience, especially as Lai et al. (2018) reported: “The same technology, with its various functions and resources, was found to afford different types of learning experiences; for example, Facebook was utilized in both instruction-oriented technological experiences and entertainment- and information-oriented experiences” (p. 132). Hence, a student might post a video in English online both because they enjoy posting videos in English and for socialising purposes. Lamb and Arisandy (2019) found that students were more engaged with entertainment-oriented OILE activities and self-instruction OILE activities than with social-oriented ones, however, a point examined in more detail in section 3.5.1.

It is important to stress that OILE experiences are mutually inseparable, as highlighted by Lai et al. (2018) and Trinder (2017). Learners are thus likely to have multiple

purposes for engaging with language online simultaneously, such as to have fun, to learn about different cultures, and to improve their English. Furthermore, Trinder (2017) highlighted that students' perceptions of the benefits of OILE affect how they engage with English informally outside of the classroom: learners indicated that they watched American TV shows because they believed there were several potential benefits to such informal learning activities. The next few sections of this review thus seek to shed light on the types of OILE experiences identified in previous studies, highlighting the main findings of these studies in relation to each type of experience to clarify the need to investigate these experiences within a single study and to determine the implications of students' choices of various types of experiences.

#### ***3.4.7.1 Entertainment-Oriented OILE Experiences***

Enjoyment of using English online is often seen as a key factor in OILE, as highlighted by several scholars (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Sockett, 2013; Tan et al., 2010). Tan et al. (2010) found that approximately 77.06% of their sample engaged in English activities online with the aim of seeking entertainment or social networking. Furthermore, Sockett (2013) described OILE as “generally incidental with a focus on activities being communication and enjoyment rather than language learning” (p. 49). A more recent study about informal learning by Lee (2019) also indicated that enjoyment was among the main factors influencing learners' informal learning. However, while this theme has been identified in several previous studies, it has not been elucidated upon to any great extent, and one of the aims of the current study is to rectify this.

#### ***3.4.7.2 Seeking Meaningful Learning-Oriented OILE Experiences***

OILE is often assumed to imply unintentional learning, with any learning merely a “by-product” of engaging with OILE (Toffoli & Sockett, 2015, p.7). However, Lamb and Arisandy (2019) included deliberate learning when examining OILE among Indonesian university students, and their instrument thus used a subconstruct “mainly for studying” that

included items such as “*I study English and grammar online*” (p. 23). The findings of that study indicated that students engaged in OILE experiences for both deliberate and incidental learning, yet the need to investigate whether these types of learning overlap remains. Confirmatory factor analysis might help clarify the overlap between engagement for the sake of learning and unintentional learning. Furthermore, Lai and Gu (2011) and Ekşi and Aydin (2013) indicated that highly active users of technology in English showed higher metacognitive levels, focusing on form and evaluating the process of language learning. The current study thus focuses on learners’ explicit unintentional learning, despite acknowledging that learners might engage in OILE for learning purposes. As Trinder (2017) highlighted, learners might engage with English incidentally yet with the intent to improve their language skills. Another aim of this study is thus to investigate learners’ explicit incidental learning as defined above (see section 3.4.1.1). In fact, the extent of learners’ engagement in activities whilst being aware of the learning process is still underexplored, so this study also aims to establish both the various types of OILE experiences and their overlaps.

#### ***3.4.7.3 Socialising-Oriented OILE Experiences***

One of the main benefits of technology is the creation of opportunities for social interaction (Thorne, Black, & Sykes, 2009). Lai and Gu (2011) and Li, Snow and White (2015) found that learners were hesitant to socialise using English with strangers online, and this “stranger effect” is a recurring theme across studies. Lai et al. (2018) and Trinder (2016, 2017) further stated that participants were reluctant to socialise online mainly because they believe that such experiences are unauthentic. In Trinder’s (2017) study, despite participants being advanced learners, they remained reluctant to use the Internet for online communication, preferring face-to-face communication. Recently, similar findings were obtained by Lamb and Arisandy (2019), who found learners to be reluctant to engage in



socially-oriented OILE experiences. According to the learners in that study, the main reason for such reluctance was that they did not want to lose face during communication.

#### ***3.4.7.4 Influence of the Surrounding Environment on Students' OILE Use***

The context surrounding learners (including interactions with teachers, peers or parents) might affect engagement with the target language during technology use outside of the classroom (Ekşi & Alydin, 2013; Lai, Zhu, & Gong 2015; Lai et al., 2018; Mahdi & El-Naim, 2012). In Ekşi and Alydin's study (2013), the majority of the students were guided by teachers or peers in terms of using technology while learning English outside the classroom; students rarely took the initiative to engage with technology use outside of the classroom by themselves. Lai (2015a) thus suggested that teachers should influence students' beliefs in the usefulness of technology to encourage their engagement with English outside of the classroom. In Lamb and Arisandy (2019) and Lai et al. (2018), teachers had a higher level of influence on student experiences of using technology outside of the classroom than such students' peers. Both studies also indicated that the resources students used online were those suggested by their teachers or peers. However, Trinder (2017) noted that learners stated that neither their peers nor their teachers played any part in their independent out-of-classroom engagement with English, though the students preferred teachers to recommend materials for out-of-classroom informal learning. Mahdi and El-Naim (2012), however, found that students did not appreciate their teachers' presence in their informal online forums, and that such presence hindered students' communication with their peers. The need to understand these varying OILE experiences to gain a deeper understanding of this novel field is thus emphasised, and the next section discusses how the current research investigates both learners' OILE habits and experiences. Before that I will situate OILE experiences within a suitable theoretical framework.

### **3.4.8 Situating OILE Within a Theoretical Framework**

The framework for this section of the study is situated within OILE, as proposed by Sockett (2014), who introduced this term by describing OILE as a field focusing on the online activities that learners engage with informally and, generally, unintentionally. However, as discussed in section 3.4.1.1, intentionality is not a necessity for OILE. In his book “The Online Informal Learning of English”, Sockett (2014) discussed in detail how OILE is situated within various language learning theories; for the sake of space, these theories are not reviewed here, as Sockett (2014, pp. 20–30) offers a complete overview of the utilised theories. Sockett (2014) thus argued that “OILE should be considered as an opportunity to understand language learning from the full range of human experience” (p. 29).

As the aim of the current study is not merely to measure frequency of OILE but to understand the varying natures of OILE experiences, which has not previously been explored, the OILE experiences must thus be situated within a suitable framework. Several models are available for investigating learners’ use of technology for online learning experiences, yet no specific framework for OILE experiences has as yet been developed, as the OILE field is still in its infancy. Lai et al. (2018) proposed a model for learners’ experiences of technology use outside the classroom for learning languages other than English (see section 3.4.7). Briefly, Lai et al. (2018) proposed three aspects that govern learners’ experiences with utilising technologies for language development outside of the classroom. The first aspect is information and entertainment-oriented technology experiences, where learners might engage with English outside of the classroom for personal interest or to fulfil their needs by searching for information on the Web. Here, the main target is entertainment or information that might broaden their cultural understanding of others, and little attention is thus paid to language learning. The second aspect is instruction-oriented technology experiences, where learners seek informal learning to improve their language

skills. This involves conscious learning, which is generally characterised as boring by students, at least in Lai et al's (2018) study. The third aspect is social-oriented technology experiences, where learners seek to communicate and socialise in English via the use of technology. The different technology experiences proposed by Lai et al. (2018) can thus be used to understand the nature of OILE experiences, with some adjustments, as discussed in the methodology chapter (section 4.6.1.3). The necessary adjustments mainly related to replacing the scale related to intentional learning with a scale to capture explicit intentional learning or learners' desire to learn a language without engaging in structured learning. Importantly, learners might be experiencing any or all of these types of experiences, or even none, when engaging with technology, in this study the focus is on OILE, not simply technology use outside the classroom. Lai et al. (2018) suggested this idea as an expansion to their work, noting that these aspects might occur simultaneously. This makes it necessary to classify OILE habits as particular experiences, based on the convention that learners might engage in using English online to socialise and entertain themselves at the same time. Lai et al. (2018) thus informs the analysis of the OILE experiences in this study, yet the need for a model specific to OILE experiences remains. The next section scrutinises how OILE is currently measured in the literature.

### **3.4.9 Measuring Students' OILE Use**

Due to the private nature of informal learning, it is difficult to accurately examine how online informal language learning affects learners' progress (Kusyk & Sockett, 2012). Sockett (2013) asserted that:

The online informal learning of English is both a highly individualised phenomenon, and one which takes place within communities which (in the case of social networking, for example) have an element of privacy, and as such is somewhat more difficult to study than classroom learning phenomena.

(p.61)

Most of the studies reviewed have relied on self-reporting to assess learners' online habits; however, although this is a convenient method, it has several disadvantages (Scharkow, 2016). Schwarz and Oyserman (2001) and Scharkow (2016) highlighted that self-reporting methods are highly subjective, and Schwarz and Oyserman (2001) further argued that research in social science most often tries to measure certain behaviours while neglecting that people are unlikely to remember how often they do something as well as tending to adjust their answers due to social desirability. Scharkow (2016) attempted to assess the accuracy of self-reporting methods with regard to measuring Internet use by comparing such data with data on actual use obtained through user logs. Interestingly, while the self-reporting methods were not very accurate, the user logs were also questionable, as the researcher measured use on only one device (home PC), and while multiple people might be using the same home PC, the application employed in this study did not differentiate between users. Participants might also be using the Internet on portable devices (mobile phones, laptops and iPads). The researcher thus concluded that both measurement formats had drawbacks and that while self-reporting is not the best method, it is the most convenient one for researchers. Hence, I deduce that there are drawbacks in self-reporting scales just as there are in any other methods. Self-reporting is popular because it is convenient and cost effective. Researchers should therefore focus more closely on choosing rigid criteria when selecting their scales, as this is a factor that they can control (Boase & Ling, 2013; Romantan et al., 2008).

Several studies have explored students' self-reported habits of informal learning; however, these have all used different frequency scales, making it difficult to compare the results. Table 3-2 highlights this dilemma by describing the various scales used by some studies. It is also important to note that not all of the studies reviewed in this chapter reported their measurement scales; thus, the table only contains scales for the studies that did so.

Table 3-2: Scales assessing OILE habits used in various studies

Study	Aim	Scales for measuring frequency
Toffoli and Sockett (2010)	To examine informal learning in English using Web 2.0 in university students.	Frequency scale ranging from 1 to 4: 1=I do not do it. 2=I do it rarely (less than once per month). 3=I do it quite often (1 to 3 times per month). 4= I do it very often (once per week or more).
Jarvis (2014)	To examine formal and informal learning of English in Thai students.	Four-point frequency scale based on usage on an average week, ranging from every day, 4-6 days a week, and 1-3 days per week.
Trinder (2017)	To examine formal and informal learning of English in Austrian students.	Measured frequency of use via open questions. Results were analysed based on two categories: “daily” or “frequently”.
Kusyk (2017)	To explore OILE use and habits among French and German university students.	Used a six-point scale over an average week: never, 1-3 h/w, 2-3 h/w, 4-5 h/w, 6-7 h/w, other.
Mills (2018)	To explore: (a) Japanese university students informal learning habits. (b) the relationship between students’ informal learning habits, motivation and IP.	Used a five-point frequency scale: 1=never, 2 = rarely, 3 =occasionally, 4 =frequently, 5 =very frequently.
Jurkovič (2019)	To explore (a) Slovenian university students’ online informal learning habits using their smartphones and (b) the relationship between students’ informal learning habits and their perceived communicative competence.	Used a five-point scale: 1 = never or almost never, 2 =several times a month, 3 = several times a week, 4 =once a day, 5= several times a day.

Due to these widely different measurement scales, it is hard to compare results between previous studies, and there is as yet no standardised scale for measuring frequency of Internet use by language learners. Kysuk (2017) highlighted this issue, stating that researchers usually argued that their selected populations were frequent users, making it

difficult to rely on their interpretations, as frequency is a subjective term. A few researchers have used different approaches in their attempts to avoid the pitfalls of a lack of standardised validated scale for measuring OILE (Jurkovič, 2019; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). Jurkovič (2019) used a five-point scale, dividing the data obtained into two categories: “frequent users (values 5, 4, 3) and infrequent users (values 2 and 1)” (p. 31). According to Jurkovič (2019) this division was helpful when making comparisons with recent previous studies in OILE (Kusyk, 2017; Lyrikou, 2019; Trinder, 2017). However, it focuses only on the extremes, high users and low users, with no consideration of moderate users.

Lamb and Arisandy (2019) used a more innovative method: rather than asking participants how frequently they engaged in an activity, they asked participants to rate their use on a six-point Likert scale based on “how true of me” each item was, with points ranging from “not at all true of me” to “very true of me” (p.8). This was based on the researchers interpretation of Briggs's (2015a) advice that “it is more difficult to accurately gauge how often something happens than to state how representative it is of one’s behaviour” (p. 299). Whilst Lamb and Arisandy’s (2019) criteria were very solid, the data for the current study were collected before their article was published, and at the time that this study was carried out, the media and technology usage and attitude scale (MTUAS) by Rosen et al. (2013), which measures use over an average month of student life, seemed to be the best option available. Their frequency scale follows very rigid validation criteria, which asks participants to list their frequency of use, and then converts this to an estimated number of hours on a ten-point scale. A more detailed description of the scale is provided in the methodology chapter (section 4.7.1).

### **3.4.10 Summary of this Section**

This section began by defining the concept of OILE, then moved on to situating this contemporary field within traditional CALL research and discussing how OILE can be considered a subfield of CALL, assuming unintentional engagement. Also, an overview of the main findings of informal learning studies was provided, including the use of the Internet among other informal learning activities. The literature overall suggests that informal learning has a positive effect on language proficiency but that the strongest effect is usually on students' motivation. The section thus offered a review of OILE studies, with the key finding being that students from various contexts tend to engage with different degrees of OILE, which has led researchers in this field to recommend that the educational system consider informal learning activities as a way to bridge the gap between formal and informal learning. One shortcoming identified in all of the OILE studies reviewed is that no prior power analysis was conducted in any case, which significantly reduces the generalisability of the findings.

This section also addressed the different natures of OILE experiences and how this area is still under researched; no single study has previously investigated the different natures of various OILE experiences, though various studies have addressed single aspects. The section also discussed the theoretical framework that governs OILE variables, highlighting the scarcity of theoretical frameworks for OILE experiences that led to the current study adopting a framework related to technology use for language learning outside the classroom to understand learners' OILE experiences. The literature review thus clarifies the need for a specific framework related to the nature of OILE experiences. Issues related to the self-reporting method most commonly in measuring OILE use, despite it being a very convenient method, were also highlighted, leading to the conclusion that the drawbacks of this method are no worse than those of any alternative approach. In the coming section I will discuss the relationship between motivation, IP and online informal learning of English.

### **3.5 Relationships Between Motivation, IP and OILE**

This section reviews the literature related to motivation and OILE use; more specifically, it focuses on work examining L2 Motivational Self Systems and OILE use as a lead in to discussing the literature related to international posture and OILE use. The section thus highlights how this area remains underexplored and how the current study contributes to this burgeoning field. Some reflection on the directionality of the relationship between motivation and OILE is also included, highlighting the fact that it is challenging to ascertain causative relationships in this field, and the ways in which the current study addresses this issue.

#### **3.5.1 Motivation and OILE Use**

The field of OILE is in its infancy (Lee & Dressman, 2018; Lyrigkou, 2019), and, as yet, only a few studies have discussed the use of technologies for language learning in relation to students' motivation (Adolphs et al., 2018; Gleason & Suvorov, 2012; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; McCarty, 2009). Bodnar et al. (2016), in their evaluation of CALL studies and theories of motivation, stated that "a learner's motivational experience during practice has an influence on their actual practice behaviour and eventual learning gains. To understand the effects of practice, evaluations of CALL systems should include analyses of students' motivation" (p. 187), calling for more studies to utilise the concept of learners' future goals and pointing to the L2MSS created by Dörnyei (2009a) as an example. Bodnar et al. (2016) recommend the L2MSS initially because it is built on a theoretical foundation of motivational psychology but also because it has gained popularity in the field of SLA studies, with substantial validation across several studies, and has been generalised to multiple contexts (section 3.2.6). Additionally, the L2MSS framework views motivation as an internal process involving personally desired futures (Ideal L2 self), and this is a good fit for CALL. Section 3.2.5 offers a justification for employing the L2MSS as a theoretical framework in the current study which in short clarifies that the L2MSS offers a



good fit for OILE. The next section reviews the few studies that have addressed learners' motivation and their online practice.

McCarty (2009) engaged students voluntarily on a social network app (Maxi) to remove the barrier between students and teachers and enhance students' integrative motivation, while the other studies (Gleason & Suvorov, 2012; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018) all addressed learners' motivation and online practice using L2MSS. Gleason and Suvorov (2012) used the L2MSS to investigate adult learners' perceptions of the ways in which a computer-mediated technology, Wimba Voice (WV), could be used to develop learner's L2 selves. The study used a mixed-methods approach (questionnaires and interviews), and the findings highlighted that students had a wide array of perceptions, ranging from negative to positive, suggesting that individual differences played a major role in the findings. Additionally, no direct link was found between WV tasks and students' future selves, a fact attributed to individual differences across the sample and to the short span of the study. This study could have been improved by exploring wider age groups over a longer period of time, and the researchers called for more studies exploring whether a clear Ideal L2 self is associated with actions to improve the language; according to Al-Shehri (2009) and Dörnyei (2009a), the clearer the learner's L2 vision, the more willing the learner will be to improve their language use, presumably including taking advantage of various media and online platforms.

Little and Al Wahaibi (2017) explored learners' motivation to participate in social media platforms and the link between autonomy, identity and motivation. Their sample was a group of undergraduate students specialising in EFL, with data collected through focus groups, discussions and written transcripts of their language learning histories. These methods of inquiry seem to be efficient with advanced English learners, as is the case with their study, as lower-level learners might not be able to reflect on their language learning histories in this manner. The study employed Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) L2MSS and the self-

discrepancy model (Higgins, 1987; Lanvers, 2016) as its theoretical frameworks; however, the combination of these theories was unsuccessful, as the researchers could only rely on the self discrepancy model (Lanvers, 2016), this being an expansion of the L2MSS. The study found that motivation and autonomy enhanced learners' engagement in digital spaces, with Ideal L2 selves found to be entangled with national and religious interests; for example, students felt that they had a responsibility to change misconceptions about their religion. Students' future aspirations for English use thus seemed to be connected with cultural and religious affiliations; for example, one of the female participants stated that she wanted to be an international writer in order to spread the culture of Oman and let the world know more about its dress codes, food, and traditions, and more particularly the Islamic religion. This is an interesting finding that deserves to be explored further.

Adolphs et al. (2018) conducted a novel exploratory study on visualising the Ideal L2 self through technology that combined several approaches, such as 2D and 3D digital animation processes, using participants' photographs to allow them to create their "future selves". Audio recordings of proficient speakers were then combined with 3D and 2D animations, facial overlays, and facial masks to create proficient future images. The participants were interviewed several times to explore their perspectives on the extent to which these technologies used enhanced their Ideal L2 selves. Among all the approaches used—i.e., 3D and 2D animations, facial overlay and facial masks (see Adolphs et al., 2018, pp. 177–179 for images of these technological approaches)—the 3D approach was found to be the most realistic approach for the students. Furthermore, the participants highlighted that, the more life-like the technology, the more they could connect to the vivid future self. The study thus paved the way for innovative studies involving new technologies that might be beneficial in enhancing learners' Ideal L2 selves.

A key study with regard to my thesis is Lamb and Arisandy's (2019) mixed-methods study on Indonesian university students, which explored habits of OILE use and how these relate to learners' L2 motivation in light of the L2MSS. The study also examined how OILE use outside the classroom affects students' perceptions towards in-class learning. Students' levels of OILE use were reported to be high, based on the mean value, despite there being no benchmark in the literature for OILE use, and this use of technology was mainly for entertainment and self-instruction. After the questionnaire phase, several students were selected to participate in interviews based on their motivational profiles. Different patterns emerged among these learners, though the results generally showed that engaging with OILE activities outside the classroom did not negatively affect Indonesian learners' attitudes towards classroom environments, suggesting that students who engage in out-of-classroom English learning activities do not necessarily find classroom activities boring. Students' OILE habits correlated positively with their Ideal L2 selves but not with their Ought-to L2 selves, though the researchers acknowledged the fact that causality cannot be derived from such correlational studies: "it is possible that regular use of English outside class may help to foster images of a future English-proficient self or that those who already have such images are drawn to OILE as a way of reducing the discrepancy with their actual selves" (p. 12). They did find that self-reported language proficiency level was associated with OILE use, and that the higher the reported proficiency for language learners, the higher their tendency towards engaging with OILE. Again, causality could not be assumed from the study design, as they stated: "we cannot say whether this is because higher proficiency learners are able to indulge in more OILE, or because OILE helps to develop higher proficiency" (p. 12). Lamb and Arisandy's (2019) study could be improved by differentiating between learners' OILE frequency and OILE experiences as these were merged in their study.

### 3.5.2 IP and OILE Use

Few studies have investigated IP and informal learning. Mills (2018) investigated Japanese university students' international posture, motivation, and informal learning more specifically as MALL. In his study, L2MSS was used as a theoretical framework to understand learners' motivation, with two components included: Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self. Mills (2018) found that students generally had positive IP, though they were not interested in world news. Additionally, the students were found to engage in various informal language learning activities (MALL activities). The researcher highlighted that the learners' engagement seemed to be mainly focused on purposeful learning rather than informal incidental learning. In addition, a positive correlation was found between the learners' Ideal L2 selves and IP with regard to informal learning; however, no correlation was found between the Ought-to L2 self and informal learning. The study highlighted the way in which learners' desires to be part of an international community lead them toward greater engagement with informal language learning; however, one major short coming of the study is the assumption of causation from a correlative design; the study could therefore be improved by adding a supplemented qualitative method to properly assess this assumed directionality.

Yashima, along with various associates (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima et al., 2004), carried out studies relating IP to out of classroom activities. Yashima et al. (2004) investigated IP in relation to communication frequency in English both inside and outside of the classroom. The frequency scale included items such as "*I talked with friends or acquaintances outside school in English*" (p. 143). The results indicated that IP leads to more communicative behaviour. Yashima et al. (2004) further hypothesised that "learners who clearly visualize 'possible' or 'ideal' English-using selves are likely to make an effort to become more proficient and develop WTC and engage in interaction with others using English" (p. 143). This leads to the question of how applicable this is in a virtual

environment. In short, the relationship between IP and OILE, and indeed, informal learning in general, is still underexplored. Mills (2018) has been the only study thus far to examine relationship between IP and informal learning; further studies are thus needed in this novel area.

### **3.5.3 Summary of this Section**

This section presented the fundamental discussion underlying the current study with regard to motivation and OILE, highlighting how the L2MSS model is a good fit for OILE studies. It then discussed how some studies suggest that motivation, particularly the Ideal L2 self, is associated with engaging in OILE activities, and that the clearer the learners' visions of Ideal L2 selves, the more willing they are to engage with informal learning activities or vice versa. A discussion of the scarcity of studies relating IP to OILE highlighted that the original contribution of the current study is that it is the first exploring learners' motivation and IP in the context of OILE frequency and experiences.

In terms of the directionality of the relationship between motivation and OILE use, as well as the relationship between IP and OILE use or informal learning in general, however, causality is challenging to determine. The literature suggests that either technology affects learners' motivation and vision of the self (Adolphs et al., 2018; Gleason & Suvorov, 2012; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019) or vision of the self and motivation influence learners' use of technology (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016; Kusyik, 2017; Mills, 2018). All studies presented in section 3.5.1 were exploratory, offering no means to elicit directionality from them. Adolphs et al. (2018) and Lamb and Arisandy (2019) acknowledged that recent technological developments might have a positive impact on language motivation, and that determining causality in exploratory studies that rely mostly on correlational analyses is difficult, and, according to Stockwell (2013), the relationship between technology and motivation could run both ways simultaneously, as it is possible that learners whose usage of technology is high tend to have higher motivation towards learning English in a globalised digital world,

and vice versa. Cole and Vanderplank (2016) performed a regression analysis, supported by qualitative data, suggesting that motivation was a key factor affecting learners' engagement with informal learning. Al-Shehri (2009) and Dörnyei (2009a) also stated that the clearer the learners' L2 vision, the more willing they were to improve their English proficiency, and that this could be achieved through engaging with new media. Mills (2018) stated that IP and the Ideal L2 self enhance learners' informal learning; however, this was based on correlation analyses, and correlation offers no evidence of causation. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2011) suggested that researchers could utilise existing theories and then run statistical analyses to confirm suspected causality (such as regression analyses). There is some evidence (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016; Kusyk, 2017; Mills, 2018) that motivation and IP may lead to greater engagement with OILE, and this will be thoroughly addressed in the findings and discussion of this study (Chapter 6).

Overall, research linking student's motivation and their openness to the world with how they operate online using English in their free time is scarce and further research is needed in this area. None of the existing research examining learners' motivation and OILE has examined learners' OILE experiences, leaving this important concept unresearched; this study thus focuses on learners' motivation, IP and OILE experiences to examine how all of these factors relate to OILE frequency. In the following section, the theoretical frameworks utilised in this study are reviewed, and the aims of the study are defined in light of the four sections of the literature review to fully explain the contribution of this study.

### **3.6 Overview of the Theoretical Frameworks of the Study**

The different theoretical frameworks governing the variables of interest in this study (L2MSS, IP, and OILE) have been outlined in the literature review. This section thus recaps the theoretical frameworks that thus govern the study and offers a rationale for choosing these theories, which is most basically the consensus of experts in the field and an evaluation of the existing literature.

In order to evaluate students' motivation within this context, the L2MSS discussed in section 3.2.4 is used as a theoretical framework for interpreting quantitative and qualitative data related to learners' motivation. I have provided a justification for choosing the model in section 3.2.5. Briefly, the L2 Motivational Self System was chosen based on the system's three neat constructs that facilitate investigating it alongside other conceptually unrelated variables. Additionally, Bodnar et al. (2016) called for further integration of recent theories of L2 motivation when studying motivation and technology use for language learning, suggesting L2MSS as an example. The L2MSS is a well established theory, grounded on psychological theories (see section 3.2.2.3), and it has received significant validation across multiple contexts. Several recent studies exploring L2 motivation in relation to technology use have also suggested that the theory provides a good fit for such studies (see section 3.5.1). The instruments used for the model have also proved to have high reliability (section 3.2.6). The L2MSS also utilises the Ideal L2 self, a construct very closely related to IP, as discussed in section 3.3.3; L2MSS is thus also a good fit for IP studies.

The second framework is learners' IP, which refers to learners' openness to the world and includes "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (Yashima, 2002, p. 57). Several L2MSS studies have found IP to be closely related to learners' motivation (Islam, Lamb, & Chambers, 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009), and IP also affects students' motivation levels toward learning English and their communicative competence (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima et al., 2004). This study thus employs the concept of IP (see section 3.3) to understand Saudi female students' global perspectives.

The third framework is based on two dimensions: the use of OILE, and the nature of OILE experiences, as presented in section 3.4 . To understand learners' OILE habits (OILE frequency), Sockett's (2014) definition of OILE (see section 3.4.1) was adopted to design an instrument to assess OILE habits, as discussed in the methodology chapter: section 4.6.1.3. To understand learners' OILE experiences, a framework was derived from Lai et al. (2018) which essentially discussed the nature of students' technology use for language learning outside of the classroom (see section 3.4.7). The need for a confirmed framework specifically designed based on learners' OILE experiences remains, thus this study will introduce a framework specifically for OILE experiences.

This study is thus based on several theoretical frameworks within L2 research: L2MSS, IP, and OILE (frequency and experience). These variables are closely interrelated, and the schematic representation in Figure 3-2 shows the links between the theoretical frameworks in this study.

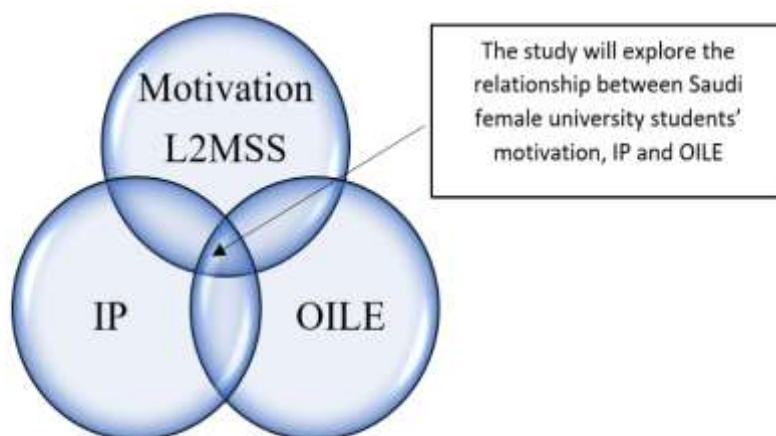


Figure 3-2: Schematic representation of the theoretical frameworks used in the study



### 3.7 Research Aims

OILE is a crucial new field, as modern learners spend most of their time online. The relevant literature reveals that motivation and other affective factors may influence learners' engagement with OILE (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016; Mills, 2018; Trinder, 2016, 2017), yet few recent studies have examined OILE and motivation from the standpoint of the self using L2MSS theory (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018). In addition, the literature review highlights the association between the Ideal L2 self and IP (Islam et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009), as well as the relationship between informal learning and learners' Ideal L2 selves and IP (Mills, 2018).

IP has not previously been investigated within the context of Saudi Arabia. As such, investigating it should provide the educational system in Saudi Arabia with a better view of the current status of learners' IP and whether any intervention is required to broaden learners' horizons and enhance their IP, eventually generating higher motivation. Additionally, L2MSS studies suggest that learners with a higher Ideal L2 selves are more likely to engage in English informally, predominantly seeking to improve their language skills (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009a). Mills (2018) suggested that both learners' IP and Ideal L2 self are positively correlated with informal language learning, and learners with a vivid Ideal L2 self and a positive global outlook might view English media as a way to connect with the international English-speaking community. This study thus investigates whether motivation, IP, and OILE experiences relate to more extensive OILE practice, as this topic is under-researched, with few studies confirming the relationship between L2MSS components and informal language learning (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017) or the positive correlation between both Ideal L2 self and IP and informal language learning (Mills, 2018). Further, the different natures of OILE experiences (OILE for enjoyment, OILE for socialising and OILE to seek meaningful learning) has been unexplored, along with how

these experiences contribute to greater OILE use. The original contribution of this study thus lies in examining the relationships between learners' motivation, IP, OILE experiences, and OILE use. The research aims of this study are outlined in more detail below:

- The first aim is to explore students' motivation through the lens of the L2 Motivational Self System.

As highlighted in this literature review there has been a surge of research on L2MSS in recent years. Even within the context of this study ( Saudi Arabia), several studies have investigated students' motivation through the lens of L2MSS (Al-Shehri, 2009; Alshahrani, 2016; Moskovsky et al., 2016). However, according to Bodnar et al. (2016), the L2 Motivational Self System remains under researched in terms of motivation and technology. Additionally, only a few studies have employed this theory to understand learners' use of informal learning (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018). This study thus focuses on determining the level of learners' motivation through the lens of the L2 Motivational Self System in order to create a starting point for answering subsequent research questions. The choice of the L2MSS for this purpose is based on the literature as well as on my own evaluation of other contemporary theories, as noted earlier in this chapter (see section 3.2.5).

- The second aim is to explore the nature of Saudi female students' International Posture.

To the best of my knowledge, IP has not yet been investigated within the Saudi context. This study thus contributes to the field in the context of Saudi Arabia by investigating Saudi female students' International Posture using a mixed-methods approach. This also adds a methodological contribution to the study, as most of the studies reviewed have relied on quantitative approaches.

- The third aim is to explore the relationship between IP and student motivation.

As noted, several studies have previously investigated IP in association with L2MSS (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009). Most studies have confirmed a strong association between the Ideal L2 self and IP (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011; Yashima, 2009), with other researchers going so far as to consider IP and the Ideal L2 self as a single variable (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013). The Ought-to L2 self was found to be unrelated to IP in most studies (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Kormos et al., 2011), though IP was also found to be related to L2 learning experiences (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013, Kormos et al., 2011; Lamb, 2012). This study thus explores the relationship between IP and L2MSS components within a new context (Saudi Arabia) in order to broaden the understanding provided by the existing literature.

- The fourth aim is to explore students' OILE use and the nature of their OILE experiences.

As noted, OILE is a relatively new but rapidly growing field, and several recent studies have examined student frequency of OILE use (Jarvis, 2014; Jurkovič, 2019; Sockett, 2013; Trinder, 2017). Furthermore, in the context of Saudi Arabia, several studies have already explored the use of social media for language learning (Alsaied, 2017, Alnujaidi, 2016; Mahdi & Naim, 2012; Mitchell, 2012). However, most of these studies have focused on a few particular applications, while the current study instead explores the frequency of learners' OILE use overall by considering myriad OILE activities. Additionally, Sockett (2014) highlighted, understanding students' OILE experiences is of vital importance, and this study thus explores the nature of learners' overall OILE experiences, offering an original contribution to the field in which most previous studies have focused on specific OILE activities.

- The fifth aim is to explore the relationships between OILE use, L2MSS components, IP and OILE experiences.

Several researchers have asserted that learners' motivation is a key factor affecting the success of informal learning (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016; Kusyk, 2017; Mills, 2018). Lamb and Arisandy (2019) in particular explored the relationship between OILE use and L2MSS components, and thus examined how OILE use affects learners' attitudes towards classroom experiences, while Mills (2018) identified a relationship between Japanese university students' Ideal L2 selves and their IP with informal language learning habits; as evidenced by these publication dates, this field of research is relatively new, however, and the current research goes further by not only exploring the relationship between OILE use and various L2MSS components and IP but also considering the different natures of various OILE experiences and their relationship to OILE use. Chapter 4 thus discusses the methodology adopted to achieve the aims of the study.

## **Chapter 4 : Methodology**

### **4.1 Introduction**

I commence this chapter by positioning myself as a researcher within a research paradigm and follow this with a brief narrative of the common research paradigms. I move on to discuss mixed-methods research and the rationale behind adopting this method. Following this is a presentation of the research design and a discussion of the sample of the study. Then, I present the research instruments, which are questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. Next, I present the pilot of the questionnaire, followed by a detailed explanation of the final constructs included in the questionnaire. After that I discuss ethical aspects and present the data collection and analysis procedures. Finally, I reflect on the quality of the study and, more specifically, the validity and reliability of this research.

### **4.2 Research Approach**

This study used a mixed-methods approach (quantitative and qualitative) to examine students' motivation, International Posture, how this predicts their engagement/non-engagement with OILE and the nature of students' OILE experiences. In applied linguistic research, Dörnyei (2007) emphasised that "a mixed method inquiry offers a potentially more comprehensive means of legitimizing findings than do either QUAL or QUAN methods alone" (p. 62). However, quantitative data approaches are very common within the field of L2 motivation (Dörnyei, 2007). Hence, initially the quantitative data approach was used to explore and understand all the variables in this study (i.e., students' motivation under the lens of the L2 Motivational Self System, students' International Posture, students' OILE habits and their OILE experiences). Then, a qualitative approach was employed using purposeful sampling based on the quantitative results, aiming to confirm and provide an in depth understanding of the research questions (Dörnyei, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003b). I will discuss the design later in this chapter, but first I need to highlight that the

research follows a paradigmatic approach that entails mixing research methods. Therefore, it is necessary to provide a brief summary of research paradigms to show my awareness of them, followed by a description of mixed-methods research and the rationale for using mixed-methods research.

### **4.3 Brief Overview of the Key Research Paradigms**

A paradigm describes how a researcher views the world; more specifically, it is how one views a research phenomenon and what exactly is considered an acceptable research phenomenon (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014; Grix, 2004). Creswell (2014) defined a research paradigm as “a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study” (p. 35). There are generally three worldviews/paradigms: positivism, constructivism/transformational, and pragmatism. It is pertinent to note that constructivism and transformational are sometimes presented as two distinct paradigms (see Cohen et al., 2011, p. 47). First, the positivists’ assumption echoes the traditional approach to scientific research, which implements quantitative methods, where a researcher starts with a theory and gathers information that might support or reject that theory, and then, after making the required amendments, tests can be carried out. Thus, the focus is on the theory and examining relationships for the sake of generalising the findings. The researchers follow a deductive approach, as they are concerned with theory verification, and when reporting the data, they usually follow a systematic and defined structure. Second, the constructivism paradigm where researchers are keen to understand the meaning individuals ascribe to a certain phenomenon or behaviour. Thus, the focus is on meaning and individual experiences, which could be varied and complex. The researchers’ main concern is theory generation. Researchers normally follow an inductive approach, and they are concerned with understanding the complexity of the situation. This approach has a flexible structure when reporting the data findings. The transformational paradigm also adopts a qualitative approach, is devoted to empowerment and is considered change and justice

oriented (Cohen et al., 2011; Creswell, 2014). Finally, the pragmatic paradigm where researchers focus on the problem being studied and “instead of focusing on methods, researchers emphasize the research problem and use all approaches available to understand the problem” (Cresswell, 2014, p.10).

Before the emergence of the pragmatic paradigm, research in the humanities domain fell within two distinctive paradigms, positivist and interpretivist, which led the purists of these paradigms to adopt quantitative and qualitative methods, respectively (Grix, 2004). For more than a decade, the advocates of each method engaged in fiery disputes defending their chosen paradigm and the methods associated with it, be it quantitative or qualitative, and this resulted in a “paradigm war” (Gage, 1989, p.4), which dominated the research world between 1970 and 1980, with each group arguing that their methodology was the most efficient approach. Positivists, nowadays labelled as post positivists (Creswell, 2013), maintain objectivity by employing scientific methods using quantitative methods, while interpretivists, also called constructivists, believe that the world is socially constructed and are concerned with finding meaning through a qualitative approach. This dispute resulted in two different research classes: “one professing the superiority of ‘deep, rich observational data’ and the other the virtues of ‘hard, generalizable’ data” (Sieber, 1973, p.1335). Then, in 1990, the paradigm controversy diminished and was followed by a period of pacification. Mixed-methods research gained ideological acceptance due to the realisation that a quantitative or qualitative method alone would not necessarily provide a sufficient answer to the research questions and that a method accommodating the two different approaches was needed (Dörnyei, 2007; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Thus, the rationale for choosing mixed-methods research was based on the need to reduce the weaknesses associated with each method (Creswell, 2013; Dörnyei, 2007; Grix, 2004).

## 4.4 Research Design

A researcher should ensure that the research design that is employed in his or her study is rigorous and aligned with the objectives of his or her research. To achieve this, it is important that the researcher understands the inherent differences between research designs and the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003a) there are more than 40 mixed-methods designs available in the existing literature. However, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) provided a more simplified typology and classified mixed-methods designs into four main categories. In the following section, I will briefly review these designs and provide an overview of the strengths and weaknesses of each model.

The first design is the triangulation design; the aim of this design is to gain a full understanding of the topic with the underlying objective of eliminating the weaknesses of quantitative or qualitative method. The main strength of this model is its “intuitive sense” (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 66), which makes it a desirable option for novice researchers since data are collected at the same time and analysed in separate chapters, and the discussion section includes a report comparing the results from the data. One major weakness of this approach is that researchers may encounter problems if the quantitative and qualitative data show huge divergence; moreover, failing to follow up or explain the divergence might jeopardise the validity of the study (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The second design is the embedded design which involves the use of different data to answer different research questions. The advantage of this method is that it can be employed when the researcher has a limited amount of time available. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) highlighted the lack of sufficient research on the effectiveness of this design, and thus it is not an appropriate choice for novice researchers. The third design is the explanatory design, which is also referred to as an explanatory sequential design. It involves two phases, collecting quantitative data and analysing it and then using the results to plan the second



qualitative phase or to choose participants for the qualitative data. The main intent of this design is to use qualitative data to explain the quantitative findings. The advantage of this model is that it is very rigorous and straightforward; however, it requires a great deal of time (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Dörnyei, 2007). The fourth design is the exploratory design which involves employing the result of the first method (qualitative) to develop the second method (quantitative instrument). It is commonly employed when there is no pre-existing instrument, framework, or theory for the intended topic. This model offers the same advantages as that of the explanatory design because it can be a very straightforward model. However, it can also be time consuming, and researchers need to ensure that the developed instrument is valid (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007).

This study employed an explanatory sequential design (see Figure 4-1 below), where quantitative data were collected and analysed and then participants were chosen for the qualitative phase based on an aggregated score related to L2MSS constructs and IP scale. It is pertinent to note that the participant selection model explained by Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) suggested that the emphasis is placed on qualitative data. However, they stated that mixed-methods research has an “infinite number of designs options” (p.59). Thus, in this study both quantitative and qualitative data have equal weight. According to Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003b), in such designs the first phase is the quantitative approach, which is often an exploratory study, and the second phase is a confirmatory study. The final stage includes interpretations of the findings based on the two methods.

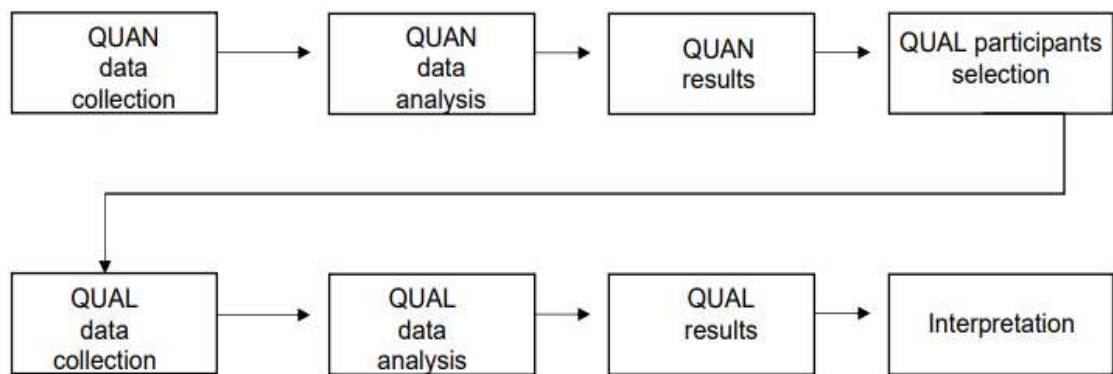


Figure 4-1: Design of the study (adapted from Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007, p. 76; Cresswell, 2014, p.220)

In brief, this design is extremely helpful in purposeful sampling, which is employed in this study (Cresswell & Plano Clark, 2007). The first phase relied on collecting quantitative data and then analysing it, after that the result is used to select participants with different motivational profiles and OILE habits for the interviews (a detailed description of the method employed to choose participants is provided in section 4.10.2). It is pertinent to note that the interview guide was pre-planned before the start of data collection, and the aim was to gain a broad understanding of the students' motivation, students' International Posture and students' OILE use.

## 4.5 Sampling

### 4.5.1 Description of the Sample

The sample was taken from female foundation year students at King Abdulaziz University who were studying an intensive English language course. There are four courses on offer, and each course is taught over a six-week module. This equates to four modules per year. The research focus was on students who were studying in Levels two, three, and four. Level one, was excluded as students at this level have a very low level of English proficiency and are unlikely to engage in any English learning activities. The target context

contains high-stakes exams, and success in the English courses will qualify these individuals to progress to complete their desired major in highly competitive subjects, such as medicine, engineering, and pharmacy, where English will be the medium of instruction and a high level of English language proficiency is required. Those who are specialising in humanities studies might not use English in their academic studies after the end of their foundation year. However, the English courses constitute a major component of their GPA and remain important whether or not they aspire to learn the language (English Language Institute, 2020). Another important point is that due to the segregation of male and female students in the educational context of this research, Saudi Arabia, the participants were female only (see Chapter 2, section 2.2).

#### **4.5.2 Selection of the Sample**

The study relies on a convenience or opportunity sample, which is very popular in L2 research (Dörnyei, 2007). Because I work at this university, it was convenient to pursue approval from the institution and collect data from it. As mentioned previously, the sample consisted of only females due to the segregation between male and female students; it was difficult to reach the male section despite the fact that the questionnaire is online, as someone was needed to administer the online questionnaire on the male campus. An attempt was made to distribute the questionnaire to the male section by sending a link to the questionnaire through email to the administration of the male section and asking for their cooperation in administering the questionnaire. However, only 15 male students completed the questionnaire, and this might not be representative enough for the male samples compared to 550 female participants. Therefore, the focus of this research remains on female students only, and the 15 male students were subsequently removed from the study.

### 4.5.3 Sample Size

A retrospective power analysis was carried out, using G\*power software (Version 3.1), which is a very useful analysis to conduct prior to data collection to identify the appropriate sample size required for the inferential statistics of quantitative data (Allen, Bennet, & Heritage, 2014). In all the main inferential tests utilised in this study, a medium effect size was hypothesised to be present, with an assumed power of 0.9 (i.e., a 90% chance of finding a difference). According to Cohen (1992), this serves as a generally accepted measure of power. The significance level was corrected based on the number of repeated tests. Several inferential tests were carried out to answer the research questions of this study (see section 5.5). However, the power analysis only included the two inferential tests that are directly motivated by the research questions: First, a series of Pearson's correlation tests (two-tailed tests) between all the variables (i.e., seven variables and one outcome). For the series of correlation, a medium effect size of 0.30 and a power of 0.90 were entered into G\*power, and the significance level was adjusted ( $p < .007$ ). The minimum sample size for these tests is 528. Second, a stepwise multiple regression analysis based on OILE as an outcome, a power of 0.90 and a medium effect size of 0.15 with a significance level of ( $p < .05$ ) were entered into G\*power. The minimum sample size for this test is 130. Thus, the minimum sample size for this study is 528. I was determined to collect a larger number, and I ultimately gathered data from 550 students.

For the sample size of the qualitative data the focus was on purposive sampling as Dörnyei (2007) highlighted that “qualitative inquiry is not concerned with how representative the respondent sample is or how the experience is distributed in the population” (p.126). Thus, the qualitative data focus was more on the sampling plan than on the sampling size (Dörnyei, 2007). I will discuss the plan for qualitative data collection later in this chapter (section 4.10.2).

## 4.6 Instruments of the Study

As discussed previously, this study used a mixed-methods approach, and for this reason the study contains quantitative and qualitative measures. In the coming section, I will describe the design of the questionnaire and the semi-structured interviews.

### 4.6.1 Questionnaire

The questionnaire contains three overarching constructs (see Appendix A: Questionnaire for the pilot study), which are as follows: L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS), International Posture (IP), and online informal learning of English (OILE). Each construct contains several subconstructs as described below.

#### 4.6.1.1 Motivational Scales

Table 4-1 below presents the number of items relevant to each sub-construct (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience) followed by a description of each sub-construct.

Table 4-1: L2 Motivational Self System scales

Sub-constructs	Total number of items	References/ Sources
Ideal L2 self	10 items	Adapted from (Taguchi, Magid & Papi , 2009)
Ought-to L2 self	10 items	
L2 learning experience	6 items	

*Ideal L2 self:* This is the image the learner forms about a proficient language speaker that he or she aspires to achieve. This construct is considered the core of Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) L2 Motivational Self System theory. The variable aims to measure students' future image of themselves as language learners.

Example: *I can imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.*

*Ought-to L2 self*: This is the image the learner feels obligated to meet, and this image is usually instilled by others. The variable aims to assess the role of different others (parents, teachers, friends and significant others) in learners' motivation to learn English. It could also refer to life obligations and external pressures (see section 3.2.4). Ought-to L2 self scale was found to have several limitations in previous studies (Lamb, 2012). Hence, in this study, I adapted Taguchi et al. (2009) questionnaire where "all the statements included the pronouns "I" or "me" and so made explicit reference to the subjects' own self" (Lamb, 2012, p.1007). In Dörnyei's (2009a) L2 Motivational Self System model and the scale used by Taguchi et al. (2009), there was no differentiation between the others, as in some items the others were teachers or parents etc. Lanvers (2016) proposed the self-discrepancy model and suggested differentiation between these "others". On this occasion, it was not practical to include items for every—or even for some—different others, as this would have resulted in a very long questionnaire. Hence, all possible others (friends/parents/teachers/other people) were included in every item related to Ought-to L2 self to clarify and provide the students with several examples of what "others" means.

Example: *I study English because my friends/parents/teachers/other people think it is important.*

*L2 learning experience*: This variable aims to measure the learners' attitude towards the immediate learning context, and the whole experience of learning English. The scale did not include any item evaluating teachers, as learners might feel uncomfortable evaluating their teachers in the presence of those teachers.

Example: *I like the atmosphere of my English class.*

#### **4.6.1.2 International Posture Scales**

International Posture refers to the learners' openness towards the world, their tendency to be part of the international community and to be interested in what is happening in the world, and their willingness to communicate with different others (Yashima, 2002).

Yashima (2009) proposed four subconstructs under International Posture, Table 4-2 lists the number of the items relevant to each sub-construct followed by a description of each sub-construct.

Table 4-2: International Posture scales

Sub-construct	Total number of items	References/ Sources
Intergroup approach avoidance tendency	4 items	Adapted from (Yashima, 2009)
Interest in international vocation or activities	4 items	
Interest in international news	4 items	
Having things to communicate to the world	3 items	

a) *Intergroup approach avoidance tendency*: This refers to the learners' openness to different cultures.

Example: *I would talk to an international student if there was one at the university.*

b) *Interest in international vocation or activities*: This refers to the learners' desire to work overseas or to be part of any international vocations or activities.

Example: *I am interested in international career.*

c) *Interest in international news*: This refers to the learners' interest in international affairs

Example: *I often read and watch news about foreign countries.*

d) *Having things to communicate to the world*: This refers to the learners' desire to spread certain messages and thoughts to the world.

Example: *I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.*

#### **4.6.1.3 Online Informal Learning of English (OILE) Scales**

The section began by asking participants about their general Internet use and language preference when online (see Appendix A: Questionnaire for the pilot study). Next, they were shown the OILE section which consisted of the following subsections: frequency of OILE, nature of OILE experiences, and Quality of English language when using OILE.

1. *Frequency of OILE use:*

The frequency of OILE use refers to learners' habits of using English in an informal environment, and the items included different skills practised by learner's online. Most items were adapted from the literature; below, I have presented an example followed by Table 4-3 that shows the number of items and references from where the items have been adapted:

Example: *I talk online in English using voice services.*

Table 4-3: Frequency of OILE scale

Scale	Total number of items	References used in writing the items of this scale/ Sources
Frequency of OILE Use	13 items	Adapted from ( Briggs, 2015b; Freed, Dewey, Segalowitz, & Halter, 2004; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010). Two items were added by the researcher: one is related to reading online and the other is related to chatting via voice services.

2. *Nature of OILE experiences:*

This section is based on the study of Lai et al. (2018), which proposed several types of experiences that influence learners' use of technology outside the classroom. I adapted their main types of experiences, and the items were mostly based on the literature, as shown in Table 4-4. Below is an explanation of each of the sub-constructs related to the different types of OILE experiences followed by Table 4-4, which shows the number of items and the sources that were used when constructing these scales.

a) *Enjoyment of OILE:*

This refers to learners' use of OILE because they enjoy using it.

Example: *When I am online, I quite enjoy using English.*



b) *Seeking meaningful OILE Experience:*

This refers to learners’ desire to improve their English proficiency by engaging in online informal learning. It does not explicitly include purposeful learning, but it includes that kind of learning along with unintentional learning based on Sockett’s (2013, 2014) conventions, whereby learning might be a by-product of engaging in OILE.

Example: *I listen to English songs online to improve my English.*

c) *OILE for socialising:*

This refers to seeking online opportunities to socialise with English speakers.

Example: *If I use English online it’s to interact with English speaking people.*

d) *Influence via social networks on students’ OILE use:* This refers to the surrounding environment that affects the students’ online informal engagement with English; more specifically it refers to the influence of the surrounding community (e.g., teachers, parents and peers) on students’ online practice.

Example: *When online, I use English because my friends are using it.*

Table 4-4: Nature of OILE experiences scales

OILE	Sub-constructs	Total number of items	References/ Sources
Nature of OILE experiences	Enjoyment of OILE	3 items	All items were written by the researcher.
	Seeking informal meaningful learning via OILE	3 items	Adapted from (Lai et al., 2018; Trinder, 2017).
	OILE to socialise	3 items	Adapted from (Lai et al., 2018; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010).
	Influence via social networks on students’ OILE use	5 items	Two items were adapted from (Lai et al., 2018; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010)

It is of note that learners might engage in informal online activities for all or some of the above reasons, as well as for other reasons that will be explored in the qualitative phase. I acknowledge that it is difficult to make stipulations about why learners engage with English online. However, it is hoped that these items will provide some useful insights and that the interviews will provide an in-depth explanation, as the students will be asked about their reasons for engaging in OILE and what kinds of experiences influence their OILE use. The items of the scales were adapted from the literature, but the scales have never been employed before as a whole. However, factor analysis was carried out upon finishing the data collection and confirmed the validity of the proposed scales, as explained in section 5.3.

### 3. *Quality of OILE*

This construct was added to assess the quality of English interactions and to discover whether students engage in very simple language expressions or use more complicated structures of English. An example is provided below, followed by Table 4-5, which lists the sources that were consulted when constructing this scale.

Example: *My messages in English are getting longer/more complicated.*

Table 4-5: Quality of OILE scale

Scale	Total Number of Items	Sources/references
Quality of English when using OILE	3 items	Adapted from (Freed et al., 2004; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010). One item was written by the researcher.

#### 4.6.2 Semi-Structured Interviews

Interviews are the most common instrument in qualitative data collection in various disciplines including applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 2007). This study employed semi-structured interviews. One main advantage of this type of interview is that it is pre-planned so the researcher can follow the interview guide while having the opportunity to expand

further on any topic (Dörnyei, 2007). The interview guide used in this study contains three main sections: learners' general experience of learning English, learners' motivation (L2MSS); the nature of learners' International Posture; and learners' OILE habits and the nature of learners' OILE experiences. The interview guide for the first and second parts (i.e., motivation and International Posture) was adapted from Islam (2013). One question about the use of English outside school was added by the researcher. The third part, "Online Informal Learning of English (OILE)," was adapted from Zeng (2015). The last two questions in the OILE part were added by the researcher (see Appendix B: Interview guide).

## **4.7 Piloting the Instrument**

In alignment with Dörnyei's (2003) suggestions, the pilot study was undertaken in two stages: initial piloting and final piloting. Translation of the instrument and construction of the online questionnaire were done after the initial piloting and as such I will review the process of translating and building the online questionnaire in this section.

### **4.7.1 Initial Piloting**

This part was carried out by asking a family member holding a PhD in cognitive psychology, and a friend doing a PhD in TESOL to complete the English version of the questionnaire whilst thinking aloud. The purpose was not to answer the questionnaire but to give feedback about the clarity of the items. One major concern that I had was with the scale used to report the frequency of online practice. Hence, to get various opinions, I provided the participants with two scales (one measures the usage over an average day, and the other measures the usage over an average week), and I asked them to evaluate which one was easier to deal with. Participants reported that some items are unlikely to be done daily (such as watching movies). Therefore, I changed the scale to measure frequency over an average week. Then, I searched the literature related to technology usage to find a suitable scale and decided to adapt a scale from the Media and Technology Usage and Attitudes Scale

(MTUAS) designed by Rosen et al. (2013) which according to the researchers is suitable for use in different fields. As discussed in the literature review, Rosen et al. (2013) followed rigid criteria to validate the scale (e.g., Factor analysis, also asking participants in a pre-study to report hours of media use and then compare their answers with the new MTUAS which showed a positive correlation between the reported hours and the chosen answer in the questionnaire) and the researchers produced a ten-point frequency scale to measure media usage (i.e., based on monthly, weekly, daily and hourly basis). Table 4-6 below shows Rosen et al.'s (2013) original scale. However, the scale was reduced to a five-point scale limiting it to weekly use to accommodate the participants' view, as in the pilot study the respondents preferred the weekly scale and more specifically to be consistent with the five point Likert scales used for the other variables in this study.

Table 4-6: Media and technology usage scale (Rosen et al., 2013, p. 2508)

Never (1)	Once a day (6)
Once a month (2)	Several times a day (7)
Several times a month (3)	Once an hour (8)
Once a week (4)	Several times an hour (9)
Several times a week (5)	All the time (10)

Furthermore, the respondents reported difficulty in answering the following question about their percentage of English language use when online:

Please estimate how much you use English when online:

Zero	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%	100%

Thus, this question was replaced with another question adapted from Jarvis (2014) which asked about the main language used when online and whether “only Arabic, only English, mainly Arabic and some English, or mainly English and some Arabic” was used.

As a result of this pre-pilot run, concerns were raised over some items in “the intergroup approach avoidance tendency,” especially this sentence “I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.” The respondents were from the same

context (Saudi Arabia) and they said that female participants might be reluctant to answer such questions due to cultural restrictions. I was eager to know how students would respond to this construct, so I did not make any changes to it as I wanted to test it first. Unfortunately, after the final piloting, these items had to be omitted. I will discuss these changes later in section 4.7.4.

#### **4.7.2 Translation of the Questionnaire**

After making the necessary changes to the questionnaire, the questionnaire was translated to Arabic by me. I have translated it by myself because I have previous experience in (English to Arabic) translation. Then, the translation (Arabic version) was sent to a professional translator to translate it into English. This procedure was taken because back-translation increases the accuracy of the translated instrument (Su & Parham, 2002). I compared the two texts to ensure that the meaning had not changed and I made some changes to the Arabic version to make the meaning more accurate. Furthermore, one single change was made to the English version to match the meaning in Arabic, which is shown below:

---

<b><u>Interest in international news:</u></b>	<b><u>This item was rewritten to:</u></b>
I often read and watch the news about foreign countries.	I am interested to read and watch news about foreign countries.

---

#### **4.7.3 Building an Online Questionnaire**

The questionnaire was constructed online, but the administration was completed during class time to increase the response rate, as Dörnyei (2007) suggested that the researcher's presence during data collection increases the response rate. I was very keen to use an online questionnaire because of the logic features available in online questionnaires. I felt it would be easier to build an online questionnaire that would direct the user to the next question based on their answer rather than asking the participant to skip the irrelevant questions on the paper-based questionnaires. In the study questionnaire, there was a question under "the

online informal learning of English” that asked respondents to specify the number of hours spent on the Internet. If the respondents indicated that they did not use the Internet, a question appeared asking about their reason for not using the Internet, and then the questionnaire was terminated. Additionally, another question was asked about the language that was used when online. If the respondent chose Arabic only, a question would appear asking for the reason, and then a further question was asked about the respondent’s willingness to participate in the interview. Following that, the respondent was directed to the end of the questionnaire. Moreover, the online questionnaire has a feature that generates a number for each participant. When the questionnaire was completed, the respondent was thanked, and a participation number appeared on the screen. The respondent was asked to capture the screen or keep a record of this number as this was the only way to identify respondents and would be required if the participant wanted to withdraw from the study. The numbers also helped to match the questionnaires with the selected interviewees. The questionnaire was designed using Qualtrics, and the generated link was mobile compatible. Qualtrics also provides a feature that generates a barcode for the questionnaire instead of a link. The barcode made the administration process very smooth as it was included in the study’s information sheet (see Appendix C: Information sheet). The distributed sheet was in Arabic, and students were asked to scan the barcode using Snapchat or any barcode reader application on their phones. As Snapchat is a very popular application in Saudi Arabia, most students had this application and managed to open the link through it. A detailed description of the administration procedures will be provided later (section 4.10.1).

#### 4.7.4 Final Piloting

The study was piloted in four classrooms, and the total number of respondents was 46 participants. This is an acceptable number, as according to Dörnyei (2003) “the typical sample size at this stage is around 50 (+/-20)” (p.68). After the piloting of the study, data were downloaded from Qualtrics to SPSS (version 25) for the reliability test. Negatively worded items were reverse coded. Table 4-7 presents the results of Cronbach’s alpha.

Table 4-7 : Reliability analysis of the pilot study

No.	Name of the scales	Excluded participants	Number of Items	Cronbach’s Alpha Value
1	Ideal L2 self	2	10	.83
2	Ought-to L2 self	0	10	.76
3	L2 learning experience	0	4	.03
4	Intergroup approach avoidance tendency	0	4	-.49
5	Interest in international vocation or activities	1	4	.68
6	Interest in international news	0	4	-.06
7	Having things to communicate to the world	0	3	-.01
8	Frequency of OILE	9	13	.86
9	Enjoyment oriented OILE experiences	3	3	.92
10	Seeking meaningful OILE experiences	3	3	.96
11	OILE to socialise	3	3	.97
12	Influence of the immediate environment on students’ OILE use	3	5	.97
13	Quality of OILE	3	3	.96

In general, for a 10-item scale the reliability score should not be less than (.8). However, Dörnyei (2007) explained that in applied linguistics and language research it is difficult to have long scales because researchers usually test various constructs at the same time. Thus, for shorter scales the Cronbach’s alpha should not be less than (.7) and if the

Cronbach's alpha is less than (.6) this means that the reliability is at risk. Table 4-7 shows that Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and all of the OILE scales had acceptable reliability. However, International Posture items were considered problematic, as the Cronbach's alpha was low in most sub-constructs. To improve the reliability of the scale, the construct of "intergroup approach avoidance tendency" was omitted because it had a low reliability (-.49). This might be due to the cultural aspects of the Saudi context, as females rarely engage with foreigners and there are no international students at this university. The rest of the IP constructs were gathered under one construct called "International Posture" considering IP as a single construct without any sub-constructs is not a new approach as it had been done previously in Islam et al. (2013). Composing all items of IP in a single scale increased the reliability of the scale to (.75) with a mean inter-item correlation of (.21), which is considered an acceptable value based on Briggs and Cheek's (1986) guidelines. Another construct that was also problematic was "L2 Learning Experience," with a Cronbach's alpha of (.03). I was eager to examine students' attitudes towards the L2 learning environment, so to increase the reliability of this scale a few items were added that were adapted from (Ryan, 2008).

Furthermore, the piloting raised some concerns regarding missing answers as the number of missing answers was sometimes high, which led to the exclusion of some participants as shown in Table 4-7 above. Dörnyei (2007) emphasised that with missing data, it is usually unclear if the "lack of response is meaningful or not" (p.204), and for statistical procedures missing answers can invalidate the data set of the respondents. This led me to choose the forced answer option in the online questionnaire to prevent missing data in the data collection of the main study. Table 4-8 clarifies the changes applied to the questionnaire after the pilot study.



Table 4-8: Amendments made to the questionnaire after the pilot study

Items	Amendments after piloting
<p><b>a) Intergroup approach avoidance tendency</b>            25-I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can.*            32-I would talk to an international student if there is one at the university.            29-I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.*            35-If an opportunity comes, I would like to make friends from other non-Arabic speaker countries.</p>	<p>The whole construct was deleted as it had a low reliability in the pilot study.</p>
<p><b>b) Having things to communicate to the world</b>            39-I have issues to address with people in the world.</p>	<p>This item was deleted in order to increase the reliability of the whole IP scale.</p>
<p><b>c) Interest in international vocation or activities</b>            26-I am interested in an international career.            38-I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.*            27-I would rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently.*</p> <p><b>d) Interest in international news</b>            38- I am interested to read and watch news about foreign countries.            30-I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.            36-I have a strong interest in international affairs.            31-I am not much interested in overseas news. *</p> <p><b>d) Having things to communicate to the world</b>            37- I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.            34-I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues.            28-I have no clear opinions about international issues.*            *negatively worded items</p>	<p>These 10 items were gathered under one construct called “International Posture”, the negatively worded items were kept the same although the rest of the constructs in this study do not contain any negatively worded items. This is because I followed the views of these researchers (Chyung, Barkin, &amp; Shamsy, 2018; Weems, Onwuegbuzie, &amp; Collins, 2006; Weems, Onwuegbuzie, &amp; Lustig, 2003) who argued that negatively worded items do not necessarily improve the reliability of the scale. In the questionnaire used in the pilot study, items were taken from Yashima (2009) with minor adaptation and without re-wording the negative items because I was eager to test the scale as it is. Then after the piloting, all the items related to IP were grouped under one construct which showed an acceptable reliability (.713).</p>
<p><b>L2 Learning experiences</b></p> <p>1- Learning English is great.            2- I feel excited during my English classes.</p>	<p>These items were added to “<b>L2 learning Experience</b>”. The first item was adapted from Ryan (2008). The second item was written by me. It was hoped that adding more items might increase the reliability of the scale. The items were translated by me and a colleague was asked to back translate the items to check that the translation is accurate.</p>

As shown in Table 4-8 above, amendments were applied to the online questionnaire (see Appendix D for the paper version of the final questionnaire used in the main study), and another barcode was generated and added to the information sheet of the main study. Dörnyei (2007) asserted that piloting is more important in quantitative research than in qualitative research. Nonetheless, the interview was also piloted on two students who were chosen randomly. The aim of the pilot study for the interview is to check that the questions generate enough answers and to ascertain that the interview questions do not interfere with the flow of the interview (Dörnyei, 2007). The interview guide seemed to generate enough meaningful and relevant answers, and thus no major amendments were made

#### **4.8 Final Questionnaire**

The online questionnaire used in both the pilot and the main studies contains five sections, excluding the consent form, which appears at the beginning of the questionnaire. Table 4-9 presents the main sections of the final questionnaire (for the paper version of the final questionnaire, see Appendix D). Also, each section includes the total number of items in each scale and the serial number of items in each scale.

Table 4-9: Main sections of the final questionnaire

<b>➤ Section One: Students' Information (2 questions)</b>		
Two questions related to the background information (course level and track of study)		
<b>➤ Section Two: L2 Motivational Self System (3 sub-constructs)</b>		
Ideal L2 self (10 items in total)	Item number: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 13, 14, 19, 20	
Ought-to L2 self (10 items in total)	Item number: 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 16, 18, 21, 22, 25	
L2 learning experience (6 items in total)	Item number: 11, 15, 17, 23, 26, 24	
<b>➤ Section Three: International Posture (10 items)</b>		
Item number: 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36		
<b>➤ Section Four: Online Informal learning of English (OILE)</b>		
Frequency of OILE (13 items in total); Item number: 37 to 49		
1) Natures of OILE experiences (4 sub-constructs)	Enjoyment of OILE (3 items in total)	Item number: 50, 52, 56
	Seeking meaningful learning via OILE (3 items in total)	Item number: 51, 57, 62
	OILE to socialise (3 items in total)	Item number: 66, 60, 63
	Influence via social networks on students' OILE use (5 items in total)	Item number: 54, 55, 61, 64, 65
Quality of English when using OILE (3 items in total)	Item number: 53, 58, 59	
<b>➤ Section five: Invitation to the Interview</b>		
This section invites the students to participate in a face to face interview. Students who volunteered to participate in the interviewee were asked to provide their email addresses or phone numbers. Students were not asked to provide their names, and each was given a participation number at the end of the online questionnaire. This number would be used if they wished to withdraw from the study.		

## 4.9 Ethical Considerations

A researcher must abide by a set of ethical and moral rules that guide the research when dealing with humans (Cohen et al., 2011; Dörnyei, 2003; Grix, 2004). This study involves “human” adult students studying at the university, and therefore some ethical issues had to be considered. First, at the stage of designing the research instruments (questionnaire and semi-structured interviews) I paid attention to the wording of the items in the instrument. In particular, I did not include any item that evaluates the teachers directly as students might feel uncomfortable doing this in the presence of their teacher. Furthermore, the questionnaire does not contain any sensitive questions, and no risk was foreseen as a result of participating in this study. However, to get additional confirmation, I consulted a colleague about the suitability of the questionnaire, and she asserted that it is very suitable for Saudi students and no alteration was suggested.

After that I sought ethical approval from the Department of Education in the University of York. I completed all the necessary forms and I was granted ethical approval. Then, I contacted the targeted institute (ELI) by email and sent them an information sheet about my study and was granted approval after completing the required forms. However, the institute did not approve of the interviews being audio-recorded, and I respected their request. The questionnaire was administered in my presence as according to Dörnyei (2003) and Cresswell (2014) the researcher’s presence during data collections increases the response rate. The aim of the study was delivered to the students both verbally and in written format. Students were informed that their participation was entirely voluntary and that they could withdraw within two weeks from the time data were collected. Also, students were assured that all data would be totally confidential and that they would not be asked to give their names as they were identified by their participation numbers only, which were generated at the end of the questionnaire.

Similarly, before conducting the interviews the purpose of the study was explained to the students with withdrawal procedures provided in both written and verbal format. Two consent forms were provided to the students; one for the qualitative data and the other one for quantitative data. Data were kept by the researcher and stored in a password-protected computer. Moreover, I clarified in the consent sheet that data would be kept for five years after the completion of this study, all data files would be electronic, and only the researcher would have access to these files.

## **4.10 Data Collection Procedures**

### **4.10.1 Procedures for Administering the Questionnaire**

Upon arrival, I went to the Head of the Graduate Studies and Research Unit in the English institute at the university and collected the data collection approval form, which I had requested by email prior to my arrival. I was instructed to go to a member in the schedule committee who had prepared a list containing class times, venues, teachers' names, and teachers' email addresses. I emailed the teachers in advance asking their permission to visit their classes for 20 minutes to administer the online questionnaire. Each teacher sent me a time of her preference and I tried to accommodate the time slots given by the teachers to minimise disruptions to their classes. I prepared a sufficient number of copies of the information sheet, which was written in Arabic, and I copied it on two-sided paper to avoid carrying large piles of papers on the administration days. Then, I visited each class at the time given, where I distributed the information sheet and explained the aim of the study verbally. I also showed the students' how to scan the barcode using their phones, which directs them to the questionnaire's link; they needed to read the consent form and agree to participate by clicking the agree button before completing the questionnaire. Most students managed to scan the barcode and open the questionnaire using Snapchat on their phones. Those who did not have Snapchat on their phones were sent the link via "Airdrop". I also carried two iPads as a back up to be given to any student whose phone was not working for

whatever reason. In general, the response rate was 100% in each class. I kept records of the number of attendees in each class and crosschecked it with the data generated online in order to know the response rate and the total number of the participants was 550 students.

#### 4.10.2 Procedures for Selecting the Interviewees and Conducting Interviews

The study employed an explanatory sequential design, through which quantitative data were collected and analysed, followed by the qualitative data phase. Participants for the interview were selected according to their Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self and IP profiles and the aim was to categorise their profiles into three main dispositions: high, neutral and low. Also, non-English users of online activities were interviewed regardless of their profiles to gain a deeper understanding of why they avoid engaging with English when online.

I downloaded the collected data from Qualtrics to SPSS and I selected respondents who were willing to participate in the interview phase. 76 of the participants agreed to participate in the interviews. In order to divide respondents into the three categories (high, neutral, low). I followed the same procedures used by Al-Qahtani (2015) who classified learners' self-guides through the following procedures: First, the scores for each scale (e.g., Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self and International Posture) were computed in SPSS. Then, to calculate the length of the category for a five-point Likert scale, the following law was used:

$$\text{Degrees of freedom of the item's responses } (5-1) / \text{Levels of answer} = \text{Length of category}$$

$$[(5-1) / 5] = (0.8)$$

Hence, the score of the respondents' answers ranged as follows:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Less than 1.8	1.8-2.6	2.6-3.4	3.4-4.2	4.2-5

Then the three main dispositions were classified as follows:

Variable	Low	Neutral	High
Ideal L2 Self			
Ought-to L2 self	1 to 2.6	2.6 to 3.4	3.4 to 5
International Posture			

Any participant who scored 2.6 was considered as having a low profile, any participant who scored between 2.6 to 3.4 was considered as having a neutral profile and any participant who scored higher than 3.4 was identified as having a high profile. The aim was to interview two participants from the three dispositions for each variable. The non-OILE users were also interviewed to get a deeper understanding of their avoidance of using English when online. After following the previously mentioned criteria, two participants were chosen from each disposition, except for the “Low Ideal L2 self” where only one participant was found, who was also a non-English user of online activities. It is important to note that a participant might have various profiles towards each variable, such as a high or low profile for all variables. In short, 19 participants were chosen, and each participant had a different profile with regard to the other variables (see Appendix E for the interviewees’ profiles with regard to Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self and IP). Table 4-10 shows the total number of participants according to the three dispositions:

Table 4-10: The profiles of the selected interviewees

Constructs	High	Neutral	Low
Ideal L2 self	2	2	1*
Ought-to L2 self	2	2	2
International Posture	2	2	2
Total		17	

\*1 (non-English user of online activities)

Two non-English users of online activities were chosen regardless of their profiles; however, after analysing the data their motivational profiles appeared to be as follows (see Table 4-11) below:

Table 4-11: The profiles of the non-OILE users

Participants	Ideal L2 Self	Ought-to L2 self	IP
1	Neutral	High	Neutral
2	Low	Low	Neutral

After choosing the desired profiles of the participants (i.e., two from each disposition to get various profiles), they were contacted (by email or phone) to arrange a time for the

meeting. I booked a meeting room for this purpose and since I work at the university it was very easy for me to book the room and access all of the university facilities. Furthermore, as recording the interview was not allowed by the institute, to overcome this challenge I had to follow the following protocol: I kept a one-hour slot between interviews, so I would be able to write down the respondents' answers immediately. I also took notes during the interview and if the students said something that captured my attention, I asked them to excuse me for a moment while I wrote their sentences verbatim. I sent the Arabic version of the interview transcript to each student by email so they could review it and comment on it. 17 participants responded and added some comments, while two participants did not reply to my email. I then translated the interviews from Arabic to English. The interviews were carried out over three weeks from the end of April to May 2018.

#### 4.11 Timeline of Data Collection

The field trip was carried out in Saudi Arabia from March to May 2018 because summer break in Saudi Arabia starts around mid-May. I therefore had to finalise the process by that time. The following Table 4-12 presents the milestones of the fieldwork:

Table 4-12: Timeline of data collection

Time plan	Research Technique	Data Generated
13 <sup>th</sup> to 15 <sup>th</sup> March 2018	Piloting the questionnaire.	46 participants answered the pilot online questionnaire.
16 <sup>th</sup> to 20 <sup>th</sup> March 2018	Test the reliability of the questionnaire after the pilot study. Make the necessary changes to the online questionnaire.	After the reliability test, the final online questionnaire was generated.
21 <sup>st</sup> March to 19 <sup>th</sup> April 2018	Administer the online questionnaire.	550 participants answered the online questionnaire.
20 <sup>st</sup> April to 23 <sup>rd</sup> April 2018	Analysing the data and choosing participants for the qualitative phase.	
24 <sup>th</sup> April to 15 <sup>th</sup> May 2018	Face to face interviews.	Interview minutes for 19 participants - no audio recordings.



## **4.12 Data Analysis Procedures**

### **4.12.1 Procedures for the Analysis of Quantitative Data**

Initially, factor analysis was conducted to confirm the validity of the scales and to ensure that the scales were identified as separate constructs. Then, the reliability of the scales was assessed, and descriptive statistics for all the scales were provided. In order to answer the first, second and fourth research questions (which asked about the level of students' motivation, the nature of students' IP, the level of OILE frequency and the nature of OILE experiences), mean values of the scales were provided. In addition, to assess the significance of the differences in the mean values for L2MSS constructs as well as the mean values of the three scales related to OILE experiences, a series of one-way repeated measure ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) were conducted. Then, to answer the third research question (i.e., how does IP relate to students' motivation?), a correlation analysis was conducted. Also, a series of bivariate correlations were conducted to answer the fifth research question (i.e., how does OILE relate to students' motivation, IP and the nature of OILE experiences?). Fisher's Z transformation was applied using an online calculator to understand the strength of the correlation between two sets of correlations. Then, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was conducted based on the frequency of OILE as an outcome. The stepwise regression analysis helped to clarify the interrelationship of many variables and evaluate the joint effect of the variables on the outcome. I will provide a detailed description of how I approached each research question with the appropriate statistical analyses in the next chapter (Chapter 5: Final Research Instruments).

#### 4.12.2 Procedures for the Analysis of Qualitative Data

The study involves two types of qualitative data (open-ended questions and semi-structured interviews). Interview minutes were written on the same day that the interviews were performed because the institute did not permit interview recordings; as such, the minutes reflect the meaning intended by the participants but not necessarily their exact words. As mentioned in the procedures for qualitative data collection, I followed a rigid protocol to eliminate any possible weakness resulting from the institute’s prohibitions against audio recording. After data collection, the qualitative data (interview minutes and answers to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire) were uploaded to NVivo (Version 12) and prepared for coding which “is simply a name or label that the researcher gives to a piece of text that contains an idea or a piece of information” (Cohen et al., 2011, p.559).

The main approaches used to analyse the data were the deductive approach or theory-driven code system, where predetermined themes were used, but in order not to force fit data into a pre-existing category, I was open to generating new codes using an inductive approach (bottom up) (Creswell, 2013; Saldaña, 2013). The following figure (Figure 4-2: Coding under a predefined theme) provides an example of the deductive coding. However, it is pertinent to note that the process was iterative and the example might be a very simplistic representation of the reality.

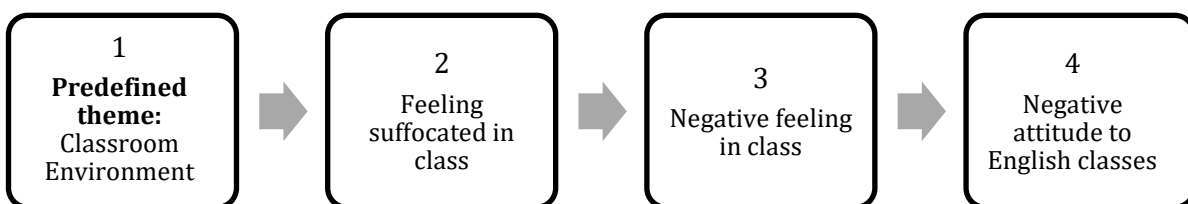


Figure 4-2: Coding under a predefined theme

For the codes that did not seem to fit under any pre-defined themes I would code them and leave them until later to find a theme for the new ideas, so they would be coded inductively (bottom-up approach). The following (Figure 4-3: Inductive coding from codes to emerging themes) provides an example of inductive coding:

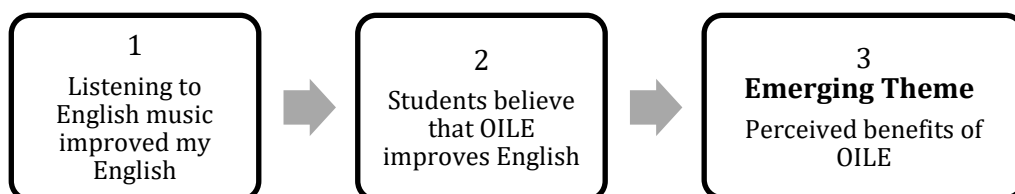


Figure 4-3: Inductive coding from codes to emerging themes

The coding was mostly done on a sentence level, and if the sentence contained different meanings then two codes for one sentence were permissible. For the sake of coherence, I will recap the qualitative data analysis process again in the coming chapter (Chapter 5). Upon completion of the coding process, I shared 10% of the data with a second coder. This coder holds a PhD degree in TESOL and had no previous knowledge of the L2 Motivational Self System model but indicated that she had some knowledge of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). For this reason, I explained the similarity between these two concepts (see section 3.2.3.2). I shared with the coder, via email, the coding key and two randomly chosen interviews (Interviewees 1 and 8). The coder carried out the coding manually and sent a scan of the documents via email. I checked her coding and found that, given that my approach was iterative and kept changing, our final coding grids were not 100% identical; however, they were relatively similar. After discussion, we reached 90% agreement which, according to Matthew, Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014), is an acceptable percentage.

## **4.13 Assessing the Quality of This Research**

### **4.13.1 Validity of the Research**

Validity is a cornerstone in evaluating the quality of the research. The term has different meanings in quantitative and qualitative research, but the two methodologies share some common grounds related to validity. Cohen et al. (2011) and Dörnyei (2007) highlighted that validity can never be absolute in research and researchers should follow certain guidelines to achieve a relatively acceptable level of validity. Validity in quantitative research can be achieved by careful sampling, the use of suitable instruments, and precise selection of suitable statistical analysis methods. For qualitative data, validity can be maximised by the researchers' honesty, precision, and objectivity in analysing and reporting the data.

Furthermore, validity has various types which have been summarised by Cohen et al. (2011, pp. 183 –193). However, Dörnyei (2007) provided more simplistic typologies of research validity and presented two main approaches for assessing the validity of a study. First, there are two main types of research validity: external and internal validity. Internal validity refers to the extent to which the researcher could conclude that “the outcome is indeed a function of the various variables and treatment measured” (p. 50). Meanwhile, “external validity” refers to how generalisable the findings are to other samples. Second, “measurement validity” relates to the construct validity and how well the test is measuring what it is intended to measure (p. 50).

Validity in qualitative research has a slightly different meaning, and some researchers (Creswell, 2014) have suggested the use of the term credibility rather than validity. To achieve research credibility in qualitative research, Cohen et al. (2011) and Dörnyei (2007) suggested that the researchers should be transparent in reporting their findings. Moreover, they noted that researchers can benefit from a peer debriefing when

analysing the qualitative data, as this provides an external evaluation of the research procedures and findings.

While all quantitative and qualitative data have to follow certain validity requirements as highlighted above, Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006) have argued that research validity in mixed-methods should be addressed differently than in single method research. Moreover, according to Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006), legitimation is a more appropriate term than validity in mixed-methods research. Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) asserted that “validity needs to be discussed from the standpoint of the overall mixed methods research” (p. 146). Furthermore, Dörnyei (2007) noted that validity in humanities research has been criticised and that, in the end, researchers should be concerned with producing honest and legitimate research.

This chapter illustrates the steps I undertook to ensure I did not slip into invalidity in all the study stages with regard to both quantitative and qualitative data. In the design stage, I set an appropriate timescale for each step of the study, and because part of my research is about a contemporary issue, which is OILE, I ensured that enough resources were there to embark on this study. I assessed the construct validity by following the suggestions of Cohen et al. (2011) and Dörnyei (2007) and asked experts in the field to comment on the instrument of my study. Because this research is a supervised PhD study, I consulted my PhD supervisor on the appropriateness of the instruments used in this study. Also, I asked one of my colleagues who holds a PhD in applied linguistics to evaluate this study instrument after providing her with a brief verbal summary of the literature and the meaning of each construct. Both confirmed that my questionnaire is measuring what it claims to be measuring. For the stage of data gathering, I tailored my research questionnaire to meet the institution’s class time constraints, so it did not take longer than twenty minutes to complete. Furthermore, I used G\* power software to determine the minimum number of the sample size.

At the data analysis stage, my quantitative analysis ( see section 5.5) highlights how I strived to choose the appropriate analysis and to avoid making a “Type I” error, which means assuming that there is a significant effect in the population when in reality there is no effect (Field, 2005, p.31). I corrected the significance levels for all the repeated measures/tests which will be described in Chapter 5. For the qualitative data, I aimed for transparency by reporting the procedures for data collection and analysis in detail; I have also included the coding table (see Table 5-6) in the coming chapter (Chapter 5).

#### **4.13.2 Reliability of the Research**

According to Cohen et al. (2011), reliability means “consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents” (p. 199). Guba and Lincoln (1994) argued that reliability is related to the positivist approach (quantitative research), but it is not exclusive to it. For the quantitative data, I limited the assessment of reliability to the most common type: which is the internal consistency tests using Cronbach’s alpha (Dörnyei, 2007). This is a test that measures “internal consistency among the items” (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 201). In order to ensure the consistency of the qualitative data, I followed the suggestions of Cohen et al. (2011) and Dörnyei (2007) by asking a second coder to assess the accuracy of my coding for 10% of my data. This was described in the previous section (4.12.2).

#### **4.14 Chapter Summary**

This chapter discussed the methodology of this study. It started by presenting the research approach and clarifying the rationale for choosing mixed-methods approach. Then, the design of the study was presented. Following this, I described the sample of the study and the sample selection criteria followed by G\*power analysis to determine the sample size. Then, I presented a description of the instruments of the study which were a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview. I then described the piloting of the study and the final questionnaire resulting from the pilot. After that, I acknowledged all the ethical guidelines that I had to follow in this study. Then, the administration procedures were thoroughly described, and I presented the procedures for selecting interviewees along with a description of the process of conducting these interviews. Next, I presented the techniques for data analysis for the quantitative data and qualitative data. Finally, I discussed the quality aspect of this study more specifically, reliability and validity of the research. In the next chapter, I will present the final research instruments.

## **Chapter 5 : Final Research Instruments**

### **5.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter (Methodology chapter), I discussed the methods and the reliability of the pilot study. In this chapter, I will present the reliability and validity of the instruments used in the main study by providing factor analysis to identify the questionnaires' scales, after which, the scales' reliability and data normality will be provided. Next, I will highlight how I planned the analysis of quantitative and qualitative data for the main study and present the frequency or themes related to the qualitative data. This chapter will clearly show the rigour in my analysis and the following chapter will integrate and present the findings of both qualitative and quantitative data.

### **5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis**

Upon completion of the data collection, which included 550 students, data were downloaded from Qualtrics to SPSS (Version 25). Then, it was pertinent to confirm that the items of the scales are “addressing the same underlying concept” (Cohen et al., 2011, p.674). This can be done through exploratory factor analysis (EFA) which is a statistical technique used to identify clusters of items and summarise the data into a more manageable size. This was not conducted in the pilot study because the sample size was too small (i.e., sample size < 50) for a factor analysis (Field, 2005). In this study's questionnaire, two types of scales were used: one was a 5-point Likert scale used for the L2MSS, IP, and OILE experiences and the other was a 5-point frequency scale used for the frequency of OILE (see Appendix D for a paper version of the online questionnaire). Factor analysis was first conducted separately on each scale and then again on a combination of these scales. The differences in the scales did not affect the result; therefore, in the following section, the factor analysis result includes all the questionnaire items for one run of the analysis.



Prior to analysing the output of an EFA, several assumptions have to be considered. First, the factor selection should be based on the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test that measures the sample's suitability for factor analysis. The index for KMO should typically range between 0.00 and 1.00, with the commonly recommended value being 0.6 (Pallant, 2016). A KMO index between 0.50 and 0.70 is defined as moderately acceptable, between 0.70 and 0.80 is considered acceptable, and between 0.80 and 0.90 is considered perfect for performing the EFA. For this study, the KMO including all the items (initial analysis) was 0.90, which suggests that the data were suitable for EFA analysis. Furthermore, Bartlett's test, which confirms the correlation between items, was statistically highly significant at a  $p$ -value  $< .001$ . After confirming the suitability of the data for EFA, the next step was extracting the variables which can be accomplished by several approaches. The most frequently used method is principle components analysis (PCA) in SPSS (Field, 2005). After applying PCA and generating the total variance matrix, a few guidelines had to be observed when extracting the factors. For example, the eigenvalues—which represent the variance—should be higher than one for each extracted factor. When performing factor analysis, high item loadings and low item loadings can be adjusted by rotations, thus providing a simple version that is much easier to interpret. The two main rotation methods are oblique rotations and orthogonal rotations (Field, 2005). Field (2005) simplified these terms by stating that, for orthogonal rotations, factors are rotated to keep them independent as this type of rotation ensures that factors remain uncorrelated, while factors in oblique rotations can correlate. In both of these methods, there are a number of techniques to select from such as oblique oblimin/promax or orthogonal varimax/quartimax (Field, 2005, p. 636). Allen et al. (2014) suggested that, for social science research, the factors are expected to correlate, and that is why, oblique rotations may be a better option for this field. Hence, I conducted oblique rotations using the oblimin method, a commonly used approach in social science studies (Allen et al., 2014).

The initial result indicated that the data contain 14 extracted factors (eigenvalues > 1.00) and that the total variation is equal to 61.31%. Next, other rotations were performed and items with low loading (values < 0.4) were excluded from the analysis to improve the scales (Pallant, 2016). Furthermore, any factor with one item loading was excluded. Thus, 23 items were dropped, 3 of which related to “the quality of online interactions” scale; hence, this scale was omitted. The items related to “enjoyment of OILE” were loaded with “seeking meaningful OILE experience” and creating one factor which is acceptable as enjoyment can conceptually be linked to seeking meaningful informal learning; therefore, this factor was named as “OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language”. The final results included eight factors with acceptable eigenvalues (eigenvalues > 1.00), and the total of variation equalled approximately 60% (59.54%). The details of all the loadings of each item and the final items included in this study are reported in the tables below; the factors were divided into three tables for ease of presentation, but these are a result of one factor analysis, as highlighted above.

The first table of the factor analysis includes factors related to the L2 Motivational Self System (see Table 5-1). The first factor is related to the Ideal L2 self and consists of eight items that explained 7.81% of the variance. The second factor is related to the Ought-to L2 self and consists of five items that explained 5.21% of the variance, with a loading ranging from (0.67) to (0.83). Finally, the third factor is related to the L2 learning experience and consists of five items that explained 7.39% of the variance, with a loading ranging from (0.73) to (0.81).

Table 5-1: The final results of the factor analysis for the L2MSS scales

Item	Loadings*		
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.	.751		
I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	.718		
I can imagine myself living abroad and having a conversation in English.	.713		
I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently.	.653		
I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.	.601		
I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	.591		
I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	.557		
I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends online.	.530		
I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my friends/parents/teachers/other people will be disappointed with me.		.829	
Studying English is important to me because my friends/parents/teachers/other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.		.797	
Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my friends/parents/teachers/ other people.		.761	
If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting my friends/parents/teachers/other people down.		.692	
My friends/parents/ teachers/other people believe that I must study English to be an educated person.		.672	
I like the atmosphere of my English classes.			.810
I feel excited during my English classes.			.780
I find learning English really interesting.			.763
I always look forward to English classes.			.744
I really enjoy learning English.			.727
Percentage of variance :	7.805	5.209	7.393

\*Rotation converged in six iterations

The second table (Table 5-2) of the factor analysis contains the items related to the International Posture scale and includes five items that explained 3.63% of the variance, with a loading ranging from (0.58) to (0.76). Table 5-2 below shows the loading of each item.

Table 5-2: The final results of the factor analysis for IP

Items	Factor loading*
I have a strong interest in international affairs.	.759
I often read and watch news about foreign countries or international events.	.704
I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues.	.694
I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.	.665
I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.	.575
Percentage of variance :	3.625

\*Rotation converged in six iterations

Table 5-3 below reports the factors related to OILE. Factor 5 consists of 10 items that explain 24.99% of the variance, with a loading range from (0.62) to (0.75). All the items loaded into this factor were related to the scale of frequency of OILE. The rest of the factors were related to OILE experiences, with factor 6 consisting of five items that explained 4.89% of the variance, with items loading range from (0.51) to (0.77). All the items loaded into this factor were named “OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language” and, as mentioned previously, they were originally designed to form two scales; one related to the enjoyment of OILE and the other related to seeking meaningful learning. However, the fact that they are loading together suggests how they are related as conceptually enjoying OILE or seeking something through OILE may indicate similar meaning. Next, factor 7 consists of three items related to the influence of peers/teachers on OILE use and explained 2.78% of the variance, with a loading range from (0.63) to (0.72). Finally, factor 8 was based on two items that explained 2.49% of the variance, with a loading range from (0.50) to (0.60). All the items loaded onto this factor were related to using OILE to socialise which basically refers to learners’ desire to socialise online using English. This scale only includes two items although it was originally designed based on three items; however, one item was dropped

because of its low loading and the other two were retained as Henson and Roberts (2006) suggested that two-item scales can be kept in factor analysis. Furthermore, the internal consistency using Cronbach's alpha for all the factors was within acceptable reliability ranging from (0.65) to (0.90), as will be presented in section 5.4.

Table 5-3: The final results of the factor analysis for the OILE scales

Items	Loadings			
	Factor 5	Factor 6	Factor 7	Factor 8
Use social network sites (Twitter, Facebook, etc.) to communicate with English speaking people.	.745			
Chat online with native or fluent speakers of English.	.736			
Write emails in English outside the classroom.	.724			
Use voice services such as (Snapchat, Tango, Facebook) to talk to people in English.	.720			
Read written documents in English on the Internet.	.716			
Talk online in English using voice services.	.711			
Use instant text messages (What's App, Facebook messenger) to chat in English with friends.	.691			
Chat online in English with people I have never met in person.	.683			
Tweet in Twitter using English.	.678			
Read news in English on the Internet.	.621			
I listen to English songs online to improve my English.		.771		
When I am online, I quite enjoy using English.		.724		
I use English online because it is very interesting and entertaining.		.657		
I chat online in English to improve my English.		.569		
I feel excited when I use English online.		.508		
My teachers encourage me to use English on social media.			.716	
My friends encourage me to use English on Online chat.			.626	
If I use English online, it's mainly because my friends do this.			.625	
If I use English online, it's to interact with English speaking people.				.598
I use English online to make international friends.				.495
Percentage of variance:	24.988	4.893	2.780	2.492

\*Rotation converged in six iterations

### 5.3 Assessing the Normality of the Data

After confirming the validity and reliability of the items of the constructs, the individual items for each construct were aggregated by calculating the means to form a composite scale. Before carrying out any further analysis, it was essential to assess the assumptions of normality of the data. According to Kim (2013), there is no standardised method to test normality—inspecting histograms is useful with a small-to-medium sample size (i.e., 50 or more), but for a large sample size (i.e., larger than 300), this method may not be reliable. As the sample size for this study was considered large (i.e., 550), normality had to be assessed in several ways. First, it was assessed through performing normality tests and producing histograms and then checking them simultaneously for where they both confirmed normally distributed data (see Appendix F for the histograms and Q-Q plots). Second, the skewness and kurtosis of each scale were observed. Skewness measures asymmetry, while kurtosis measures the peakedness of data (Pallant, 2016). Table 5-4 below provides the skewness and kurtosis for all eight scales used in this study.

Table 5-4: Normality of the data (Skewness and Kurtosis)

No.	Constructs	Distribution	
		Skewness	Kurtosis
1.	Ideal L2 Self	-.71	.63
2.	Ought-to L2 Self	.34	-.60
3.	L2 Learning Experience	-.46	-.40
4.	International Posture	.09	-.54
5.	Frequency of OILE	.89	-.13
6.	OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language	-.68	.15
7.	OILE to socialise	-.24	.59
8.	OILE via peers'/teachers' influence	-.41	-.31

As a general rule, the skewness and kurtosis should be zero for perfectly normally distributed data. However, in social sciences studies, it is impossible to have zero skewness and kurtosis (Pallant, 2016). Kim (2013) highlighted that the Z score, which is the skewness

value divided by the standard error, may assist in determining the normality distribution of small-to-medium size data (i.e.,  $50 < n < 300$ ), but for large data (i.e., larger than 300), a researcher may “depend on the histograms and the absolute values of skewness and kurtosis without considering Z-values. Either an absolute skew value larger than two or an absolute kurtosis larger than seven may be used as reference values for determining substantial non-normality” (p.53). Hence, the absolute values for skewness and kurtosis were inspected which seemed to fall within the recommended range (see Table 5-4 above), and the histograms are not severely skewed except for the OILE construct, but the skewness and kurtosis were within the acceptable range (see Appendix F for the histograms and Q-Q plots). Thus, it is reasonable to conclude that the data of this study are normally distributed.

#### **5.4 Reliability Analysis of the Final Scales**

This section reports the results of internal consistency which shows whether the items of the scale are measuring the same underlying construct (Pallant, 2016). Normally, for a 10-item scale, the reliability score should not be less than (0.8). Dörnyei (2007) explained that, in applied linguistics and language research, it is unlikely to have long scales as researchers usually test various constructs at the same time, which is also the case in the present study. Therefore, Dörnyei (2007) suggested that Cronbach’s alpha should not be less than (.07). However, Pallant (2016) and Cohen et al. (2011) highlighted that a reliability of (0.6) may also be acceptable in the field of social science for short scales. Moreover, Pallant (2016) and Briggs and Cheek (1986) recommended reporting the mean inter-item correlation to support Cronbach’s alpha for short scales and noted that the acceptable range should be between (0.2) and (0.4). Table 5-5 below provides the Cronbach’s alpha value for each scale along with the mean inter-item correlations. For the short scales (i.e., OILE to socialise and influence of teachers/peers on OILE use), the means of inter-item correlations were within the acceptable range. It is pertinent to note that there were no missing answers in this study because of the forced answering feature on the online questionnaire. However, the OILE part

depends on the answer of the student, as highlighted in the Methodology Chapter (section 4.7.3). Four students reported that they did not use the Internet at all and 91 students reported that they only used their L1 when online; these 95 students were exempted from completing the section for OILE constructs. Their data in the motivation and IP parts were retained to examine the motivation and International Posture of the non-OILE users. Hence, from scale 1 to 4, the number of the students was 550, and from scale 5 to 8, the number of students was 455.

Table 5-5: Reliability analysis of the scales in the final questionnaire

No.	Name of the scales	Number of items	Cronbach Alpha Value	Mean Inter-item correlations
1	Ideal L2 self	8	.84	.41
2	Ought-to L2 self	5	.81	.47
3	L2 learning Experience	5	.90	.65
4	International Posture	5	.77	.40
5	Frequency of OILE	10	.90	.49
6	OILE for enjoyment/ improvement of English language	5	.84	.52
7	OILE to socialise	2	.64	.48
8	OILE via peers'/teachers' influence	3	.65	.38



## 5.5 Planning the Quantitative Data Analysis

In this section, I presented the research questions and the suitable test for each question. However, the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data will be presented in the subsequent chapter, and as stated above, data was normally distributed because of which parametric tests were used in this study (Allen et al., 2014; Field, 2005).

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**Q1: What is the level of Saudi female university students' motivation towards learning English in terms of different L2MSS components (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience)?**

To answer this research question, the mean value for each construct was reported, and then to confirm the statistical differences between the means, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within subjects ANOVA) was conducted to compare the means of the three components of L2 Motivational Self System. The ANOVA analysis is not directly motivated by the research question but serves as an additional analysis to support the evaluation of which component is higher, especially as there is no established norm in published research for evaluating the level of L2MSS components.

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**Q2: What is the nature of students' International Posture (IP)?**

To answer this research question, the mean value was reported, and then qualitative data were used to expand on this.

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**Q3: Is there any significant relation between learners' motivation, more specifically their Ideal L2 self, and their IP?**

To answer this research question, a series of bivariate correlation were conducted and the strength of the correlations between IP and L2MSS components was examined through a statistical procedure using Fisher's Z transformation. To correct for the multiple tests (i.e., the series of bivariate correlation analyses), the Bonferroni correction was applied.

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**Q4: What are students' habits in respect of online informal engagement with English (OILE)? What is the nature of their OILE experiences?**

To answer the first part of this research question, descriptive statistics were reported, and then the OILE frequency scale was divided into three categories: High OILE users, Moderate OILE users, and Low OILE users.

For each nature of the OILE experiences, first, the mean values were reported, and then, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) was conducted to confirm the significant differences between the means of the three OILE experience constructs. Qualitative data would add further meaning to these numbers.

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**Q5: How do students' self-reported habits of OILE relate to: Motivation, IP, and OILE experiences?**

To answer this research question, a series of bivariate correlation analyses were conducted, and in an attempt to understand the strength of the correlation between two sets of correlations, Fisher's Z transformation was employed. In addition, the Bonferroni correction was applied to correct for multiple tests related to Fisher's Z transformation. Furthermore, to understand if any of the variables predicted OILE use, a multiple regression analysis was conducted based on OILE frequency of use as an outcome, and the predictors were IP, L2 Motivational Self System components (three subconstructs), and OILE experiences scales (three subconstructs).

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## 5.6 Planning the Qualitative Data Analysis

In this section, I will present how I planned to analyse the qualitative data, and the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data will be presented in the next chapter (Chapter 6: Findings and Discussion). There are two types of qualitative data in this study. First are open-ended questions in the questionnaire that concern why students do not use the Internet or why they avoid using English when online (91 students indicated that they do not use English when online at all and provided a brief overview of their reasons, and 4 students indicated that they do not use the Internet). Second are semi-structured interviews. The selection criteria for the interviewees was mentioned in the Methodology Chapter (4.10.2), as 17 participants were selected based on their motivational profiles and International Posture level and two participants were selected to represent the voice of non-English online users. The aim was to select two participants from each profile (e.g., high Ideal L2 self, neutral Ideal L2 self, and low Ideal L2 self). However, it is pertinent to note that each participant showed different dispositions related to each variable; for example, the two students who were chosen to represent the voice of the high Ideal L2 self may have different dispositions regarding Ought-to L2 selves or IP. In short, if the aim is to select two participants who represent, for example, the low Ideal L2 self, the other variables do not necessarily need to be at a similar level (see Appendix E: Interviewees' motivational profiles). Upon completing the qualitative data collection process, both data sets (interviews and open-ended questions in the questionnaire) were uploaded in NVivo (Version 12) and prepared for coding, which simply means labelling similar ideas with a code (Cohen et al., 2011).

As mentioned in the Methodology Chapter (see section 4.12.2), the deductive approach or theory-driven code system was used. However, in order not to force-fit data into a pre-existing category, I followed the recommendation of Creswell (2013) of being open to generate more categories when I found significant new data using inductive coding

(bottom-up approach). The predetermined themes were related to the variables used on the questionnaire of this study (L2 Motivational Self System components and International Posture) and themes related to OILE, such as English use when online, nature of OILE experiences including seeking online English informal learning experiences, influence of social environment on using English online, and enjoying using English online (see Appendix G for the pre-defined themes). Furthermore, magnitude coding which consists of “adding a supplemental alphanumeric or symbolic codes or sub-codes to an existing coded datum or category to indicate its intensity, frequency, direction, presence, or evaluative content” (Saldaña, 2013, p.86) was added to the pre-determined category related to the L2 Motivational Self System components and International Posture; an example is Ideal L2 self: positive, neutral, and negative.

To sum up, the qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis and the following stages were followed as per the recommendation of Braun and Clarke (2006). First, I read the data several times to become familiar with it and reflect on it. Second, I uploaded interview files in NVivo (Version 12). Then, I created nodes for the pre-defined themes before coding the data (see Appendix G for the predefined themes), after which I started coding data under the suitable themes, creating sub-categories of the main theme when needed. It is pertinent to note that I used a combination of both across-case analysis and within-case analysis as “neither across-case nor within-case approaches alone enable the researcher to interpret an experience both through its parts and as a whole, such that readers can recognize individual experience in a generalizable way” (Ayres, Kavanaugh, & Knafl, 2003, p.873). Hence, I started with analytical immersion within each case to understand their L2 selves (Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self), their attitude towards L2 learning, and their engagement with OILE activities, which also helped in identifying interesting statements. Then, I moved to across-case analysis where I started to identify overall themes from all the cases. In the Methodology Chapter (section 4.12.2), I provided some examples of the coding. It is pertinent to highlight that the process of coding was iterative. Furthermore, as reported

previously, the coding was mostly conducted on a sentence level, and if the sentence contained different meanings, then I would add two codes to the same sentence. I then coded each idea under one theme, and in case of overlap, I would note that in my reflection notes to later determine the suitable theme. As I kept reflection notes for my process of coding, it assisted me in looking at the big picture when reporting the qualitative findings. In fact, “the question of whether codes should overlap or be exclusive is one without a clear answer in the literature” (Elliott, 2018, p.285). After completing the coding process, I finalised the name of each theme and ensured that each theme was not complex and, when needed, some categories were fitted under over-arching themes. I kept checking the themes, especially the newly developed ones, and grouped similar themes together to reduce the redundant themes. All of the new emerging categories were suitable to be fitted under overarching themes. Only one emerging theme was left separate which was students’ perceived benefits of OILE as this concept entails standing alone and it is not related to any motivational constructs nor students’ OILE use and the nature of OILE experiences.

Additionally, to identify patterns among the interviewees with regard to the relationship between motivation, IP, and OILE habits (OILE frequency), I checked the frequency of the codes for each interviewee using NVivo. This was done by clicking on each main node (theme) and choosing the summary option which listed the frequency of the theme related to each interviewee. I used a large spreadsheet in Excel that contained the participant’s quantitative patterns and the frequency codes for all the themes, which organised the data and helped with identifying patterns among the participants (see Appendix H), as will be discussed in the next chapter.

### **5.6.1 Coding of the Qualitative Data**

The table below (Table 5-6) demonstrates the final themes along with categories, codes, and frequency of each theme. The aim of counting frequency was not to quantify the data but to systematically assess the selection and organisation of extracts (Elliott, 2018).

The results in this chapter are not reported according to the frequency of the theme but rather followed the same organisation of the research questions.

Overall, there were seven main overarching themes: Ideal L2 selves, Ought-to L2 selves, L2 learning experience, International Posture, OILE activities, nature of OILE experiences, and students' perceived benefits of OILE use. For the L2 learning experience, there were so many codes related to this theme that it led me to create four sub-themes under it (see Table 5-6 below). Moreover, for the use of English beyond the classroom, students were first asked about their English use outside the classroom in general without mentioning their online use. Then, the data provided by the students led me to create four categories: formal learning (this involves intentional learning, whether online or non-online); informal non-online engagement with English (this involves any form of non-online activities that lead to engaging with English); online informal engagement with English (which includes their online use of English; students were asked later in the interview to provide details of their online use of English and this was coded and listed under this category); and the final category included students' use of English to communicate in real life or non-online communication. Furthermore, two main categories emerged for the Ought-to L2 self. One related to Ought-to L2 self with magnitude coding (Positive, Neutral and Negative), and another related to learning English for instrumental reasons. For the rest of the themes, there were some themes with magnitude coding (i.e., IP and Ideal L2 self) and others with sub-categories (i.e., OILE experiences). The coding process was iterative over a period of time, and the table below provides the final themes.

Table 5-6: Themes identified in this study

Broad themes	Sub-codes
<b>1) Over-arching theme: English beyond the classroom (111)</b>	
1-Formal learning (online/ non-online activities) (14)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. study course materials (7)</li> <li>2. watch English educational videos (5)</li> <li>online course project/guided by teachers (2)</li> </ol>
2- Informal learning (non-online activities) (31)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. watch TV in English (5)</li> <li>2. read English books/English novels (2)</li> <li>3. write diaries in English (1)</li> <li>4. watch English movies online/on TV (23)</li> </ol>
3-Online informal engagement with English (60)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. English on social media: engage by reading or writing (18)</li> <li>2. watch short videos/ You Tube (16)</li> <li>3. voice chatting (9)</li> <li>4. texting and communicating (4)</li> <li>5. look up information on English (7)</li> <li>6. online games (4)</li> <li>7. listening to English music online (1)</li> <li>8. read English articles online (1)</li> </ol>
4-Opportunities for English use/ English in non-online communication (6)	<p><b>a- Current opportunities:</b> 1. speak English with the surrounding close community/ face to face communication (4)</p> <p><b>b-Lack of opportunities :</b> 1. zero exposure (2)</p>
<p>a- Current opportunities (4).</p> <p>b- Lack of opportunities (2).</p>	
<b>2)Over-arching theme: L2 learning experience (111)</b>	
1-General learning experience (41):	<b>a-Positive : (total 23)</b>
a-Positive (23)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. enjoy, fun, interesting (8)</li> <li>2. love English (5)</li> <li>3. positive: great, good (5)</li> <li>4. no challenges – don't struggle –easy, smooth experience (5)</li> </ol>
b-Neutral (5)	<b>b-Neutral (5)</b>
c-Negative (13)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. not bad (5)</li> </ol>
	<b>c-Negative: (total 13)</b>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. awful, disappointing (4)</li> <li>2. struggled with learning, hard (2)</li> <li>3. hate studying English (7)</li> </ol>
2- Experience with English teachers (12):	<b>a-Positive: (total 7)</b>
a-Positive (7)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. qualified teachers (1)</li> <li>2. great teachers, best teachers, inspiring teachers (6)</li> </ol>
b-Negative (5)	<b>b-Negative: (total 5)</b>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. had the worst teachers (3)</li> <li>2. unenthusiastic teachers (2)</li> </ol>
3-Classroom environment at the ELI (50):	<b>a-Positive: (total 13)</b>
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. I like it, enjoy it (7)</li> </ol>

a-Positive (13) b-Neutral ( 13) c-Negative (24)	2. interesting, exciting (6)
	<b>b-Neutral: (total 13)</b> 1. depend on the teachers (11) 2. not bad (2)
	<b>c-Negative: (total 24)</b> 1. class time is long (8) 2. boring, monotonous (6) 3. feel suffocated, feel lost (4) 4. hate English classes (6)
4-Students' opinions on teaching methods (8)	1. poor teaching methods (5) 2. English should be acquired naturally not taught, more interactive activities (3)
<b>3) Over-arching themes: Ought-to L2 selves (73)</b>	
1-Ought-to L2 selves (68)	<b>a-Positive (50):</b> 1. future responsibilities/obligations, English to avoid failure (31) 2. Ought-to others (12) 3. English for other-respect (7)
a-Positive (50) b-Negative (13) c-Neutral (5)	<b>b-Negative (13):</b> 1. negative Ought-to other (9) 2. English is not important (4)
	<b>c-Neutral (5):</b> 1. could succeed without English (3) 2. English might add to my success (2)
2- English for instrumental reasons (5)	1. to pass exams (5)
<b>4)International Posture (64)</b>	
1-International Posture (64)	<b>Positive (34):</b> 1. English is an international language (17) 2. online international friends (9) 3. having a message to convey to the world (1) 4. interest on what's happening on the world /news (7)
a-Positive (34) b-Negative (25) c-Neutral (5)	<b>Negative (25):</b> 1. English should not be considered an international language (2) 2. making online international friends is impossible (7) 3. not interested in the news /hate watching news (8) 4. don't have any message to share with the world (8)
	<b>Neutral (5):</b>



	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>would like to have some international friends (2)</li> <li>depends on the kind of news (3)</li> </ol>
<b>5) Over-arching theme: Ideal L2 self (49)</b>	
2-Ideal L2 self (49)	<b>a-Positive (32):</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>English future self: fluent in the future, using English in the future (21)</li> <li>English for future success: pursue PhD /study abroad (7)</li> <li>learning English is a personal goal (4)</li> </ol>
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Positive (32)</li> <li>Negative (6)</li> <li>Neutral (11)</li> </ol>	<b>b-Negative (6):</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>fear of losing cultural identity /English should not be part of one's future image (4)</li> <li>will never be able to speak /use English (2)</li> </ol>
	<b>c-Neutral (11):</b> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>doubt that I'll speak English in the future/ not sure/fuzzy image (5)</li> <li>writing level might be better than speaking (4)</li> <li>might not be able to express self in English (2)</li> </ol>
<b>6) Students' experiences with OILE (total:37)</b>	
1. Seeking online English informal learning (11)	1. use English online to improve my proficiency (11)
2. Enjoying online English use (7)	1. fun, enjoy it (7)
3. Online English influences via social networks (9)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>influence from the surrounding environment, encouragement (7)</li> <li>to be like my friends (2)</li> </ol>
4. Online English use to boost self-confidence (5)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>self- respect, feel good (2)</li> <li>more self-confidence (2)</li> <li>look like an educated girl (1)</li> </ol>
5. Preference for English contents/admire English contents (3)	1. rich English contents, sophisticated plots for American movies (3)
2. Online socialising via English (2)	1. to communicate with different cultures/to make online friendships (2)
<b>7) Benefits of OILE (7)</b>	
1-Perceived benefits of online informal learning of English (7)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>OILE improved my proficiency (3)</li> <li>my English could be improved via OILE (4)</li> </ol>

## **5.7 Chapter Summary**

This chapter presents the normality and reliability of the main study of this thesis in detail. As highlighted in the Literature Review Chapter, a major limitation of most L2 Motivational Self System studies is that they neglect the use of factor analysis to determine the identifiability of the scale as a single factor. This study has successfully ensured the identifiability of the scales using factor analysis. After that, I presented the reliability of the scales. Following this, I presented a very detailed description of how the qualitative and quantitative data will be analysed; this detailed description demonstrated the rigorous approaches that I follow. Furthermore, for the sake of transparency, I presented the coding table for the qualitative data. In the next chapter, I will present the quantitative and qualitative findings and integrate the findings for both qualitative and quantitative data for each research question, followed by the discussion to make the contribution of this thesis absolutely clear to the readers.

## **Chapter 6 : Findings and Discussion**

### **6.1 Introductions**

This study contributes to the existing knowledge of language learning motivation, International Posture (IP), and the novel online informal learning of English (OILE) field; it also bridges the gap in knowledge pertaining to formal and informal language learning. This chapter begins by presenting the background information of the students (i.e., track of study and course level) to present a better understanding of the findings, as highlighted in this chapter. Next, I present each of the five research questions along with the findings of the qualitative and quantitative data and how the qualitative data supported and expanded the findings of the quantitative data; then, the findings are discussed in light of the existing literature. Following this, a model related to OILE experiences is presented based on the findings of this study and the extant literature. Next, I present other interesting findings that emerged from the data and are not driven by my research questions. The chapter ends with a reflection on the benefits of adopting a mixed-methods approach for this study and concludes with a summary of the chapter.

### **6.2 Background Information**

In the following section, students' distribution according to their course level and track of study are presented. These information does not address a specific research question but helps in the understanding of most findings, as highlighted in the coming discussion.

#### **6.2.1 Students Distribution According to Their Course Level**

As shown in Table 6-1 below, 74.4% of the participants were in Level 4. This may have been because of the timing of data collection as it was at the end of the academic year when most of the students who enrolled at the beginning of the academic year should have reached this level. The lower levels (15.8% in Level 3 and 9.8% in Level 2) could have either been repeaters or could have enrolled at the university for the second semester. The fact that

most students were in Level 4 indicates that the students had reached a proficiency level that would allow them to use OILE, and this study examines the extent of its use.

Table 6-1: Distribution of the students according to their course level

Level	Number of students	Percentage
Level 2	54	9.8 %
Level 3	87	15.8%
Level 4	409	74.4%
Total	550	

### 6.2.2 Students Distribution According to Their Track of Study

As shown in Table 6-2 below, there was no large discrepancy between the number of students on the humanities track and those on the science track as 58.73% of the sample were enrolled on the humanities track and 41.27% on the science track.

Table 6-2: Distribution of the students according to their study track

Track of study	Number	Percentage
Humanities	323	58.7%
Science	227	41.3%
Total	550	

## 6.3 First Research Question of this Study

RQ 1- What is the level of Saudi female university students' motivation towards learning English in terms of different L2MSS components (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience)?

### 6.3.1 Quantitative Findings

To answer this research question, first the mean value for each construct is reported. Second, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) was conducted to compare the means of the three components of L2 Motivational Self System. The ANOVA analysis is not directly motivated by the research question but serves as an additional analysis to support the evaluation of which component is higher, especially as there is no established

norm in published research for evaluating the level of L2MSS components. Third, correlation analysis between the three factor is reported mainly because, in the literature, it is very common to report the correlation between the three components to establish the scale identifiability as a separate construct. Thus, all of the previously mentioned analyses are presented, followed by the qualitative data, and then a section highlighting how the qualitative data supported the quantitative data.

### **6.3.1.1 Mean Values for the L2 Motivational Self System Components**

The following table presents the mean values for the three components of the L2MSS:

Table 6-3: Mean values for the L2MSS components

<b>No.</b>	<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
<b>1.</b>	Ideal L2 Self	3.73	0.72
<b>2.</b>	Ought-to L2 Self	2.75	0.98
<b>3.</b>	L2 Learning Experience	3.21	0.98

As can be seen from Table 6-3 above, the mean differences between the tripartite components of L2MSS were significantly close; that is, Ideal L2 self ( $M = 3.73$ ,  $SD = .72$ ), L2 learning experience ( $M = 3.21$ ,  $SD = .98$ ), and Ought-to L2 self ( $M = 2.75$ ,  $SD = .98$ ). This necessitates conducting another statistical analysis to compare the mean values reported in the following section.

### **6.3.1.2 Comparing the Means of the Three Components of L2MSS**

A one way repeated measure ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) was conducted for the three components of L2 Motivational Self System to determine the significance of differences between the means (Allen et al., 2014). This test aims to support the answer for the first research question and to identify the significance of differences between the mean values for the three L2 Motivational Self System components. This is because relying solely on mean values to compare the level of L2MSS may not provide accurate conclusions. Prior

to conducting the within-subjects ANOVA test, several checks were performed. The assumptions of normality were met and  $F_{max}$  was 1.85, demonstrating homogeneity of variance (See Appendix I for Boxplots). As Mauchly's test indicated that the sphericity assumptions were violated, this was corrected by referring to Greenhouse-Geisser (Allen et al., 2014). Furthermore, the effect size for statistically significant ANOVA was calculated based on Cohen's (1988, pp.286–287) guideline, as shown in Table 6-4 below.

Table 6-4: Eta-squared ( $\eta^2$ ) effect size metrics for ANOVA

$\eta^2$	Category
.01	Small
.06	Medium
.14	Large

The within-subjects ANOVA results show that the differences between the means of three components were statistically significant,  $F(1.77, 971.29) = 229.39, p < .001, \eta^2 = .30$ . This is considered a large effect size according to Cohen (1988) (see Table 6-4). Pairwise comparisons further revealed that the mean of Ideal L2 self ( $M = 3.73, SD = 0.72$ ) is significantly higher than that of Ought-to L2 self ( $M = 2.75, SD = 0.98$ ) and L2 learning experience ( $M = 3.21, SD = 0.98$ ). L2 learning experience is significantly higher than Ought-to L2 self. The following bar graph (Figure 6-1) provides a visual representation of the mean differences.

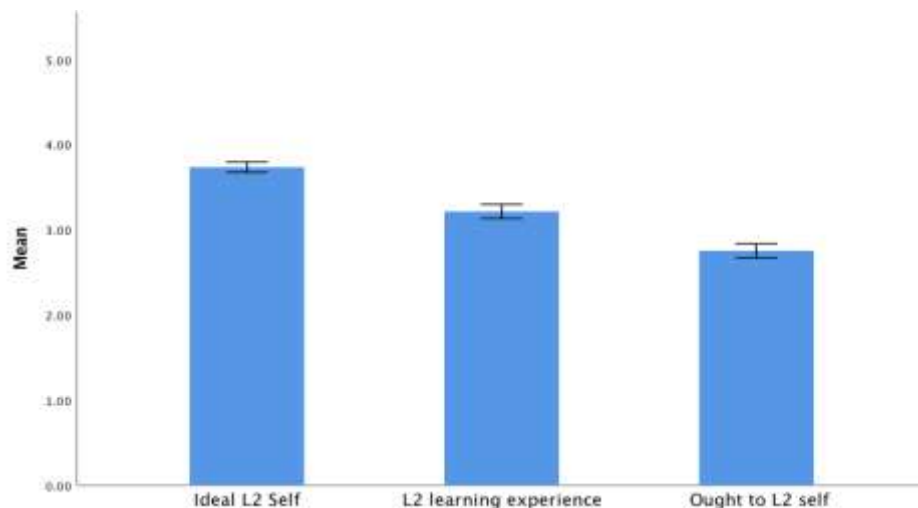


Figure 6-1: Mean differences for the L2MSS components

### 6.3.1.3 The Correlation Between the Components of L2MSS

Previous studies, such as Csizér and Kormos (2009a), stated that the strength of the correlations between the L2MSS components determines whether the constructs are different. Furthermore, Dörnyei (2007) emphasised that when two variables correlated with  $r$  coefficients of “0.6” and above, then they are mostly measuring the same thing (p.223). Although I have established the identifiability of the scales through factor analysis (see Chapter 5), the correlations strength between L2MSS constructs indicate that the components are measuring different things as the  $r$  coefficients are less than 0.6. The correlation between Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience is positive and strong, with  $r(548) = .526, p < .007$ . The correlation between Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self is non-significant. However, Ought-to self L2 correlated significantly and positively with L2 learning experience, with  $r(548) = .270, p < .007$ , but the effect size for this correlation is considered weak. It is pertinent to note that the relationship between the L2MSS tripartite components does not address a specific research question, but it is a common approach in all L2MSS studies. I thus present this analysis and refer to it in Section 6.3.4.

### **6.3.2 Qualitative Findings**

In this section, I present the qualitative findings for the three components of L2MSS and then integrate the two kinds of data (qualitative and quantitative) in a single section (see section 6.3.3), highlighting how the findings of the qualitative data supported and expanded the findings of the quantitative data. It is of note that the coding table of the qualitative data is reported in section 5.6.1.

#### ***6.3.2.1 Voice of the Ideal L2 Self***

Although the frequency of the codes for the Ideal L2 self was less than that of the Ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience (see Table 5-6 in section 5.6.1), it does not undervalue the strength of students' voices concerning their Ideal L2 self as the point of including frequency was to identify potential patterns between L2 Motivational Self System components, IP, and OILE. On the other hand, the voice of low and neutral Ideal L2 self can be easily spotted from the data during the coding process. In the beginning of the interview, most participants discussed their future plans and their desired majors in a powerful and enthusiastic tone. Table 6-5 below shows students desired majors, and sometimes their hoped-for careers, along with information about their motivational profiles and future plans, if mentioned. Only one student (Interviewee 19) refused to discuss her future plans or major, indicating that her GPA is very low, which limits her options.



Table 6-5: Students' profiles, their future majors, and future plans

Profile based on quantitative data*	Interviewees serial number	Desired major/future profession	Track	Level	Notes
High Ideal L2 self	Interviewee 3	Biology	Science	4	Planning to Pursue higher education/PhD
	Interviewee 12	Law	Humanities	4	
High Ought-to L2 self	Interviewee 8	Fashion design	Humanities	4	
	Interviewee 13	Medical physics	Science	4	
High IP	Interviewee 5	Law	Humanities	4	
	Interviewee 2	Business management	Science	4	Aspires to study abroad
Neutral Ideal L2 self	Interviewee 16	Medical science	Science	4	Wants to be a dentist
Neutral Ought-to L2 self	Interviewee 10	Physical therapy	Science	4	
	Interviewee 6	Biochemistry	Science	4	
Neutral IP	Interviewee 15	Computer science	Science	4	
	Interviewee 17	Medical science	Science	4	
Low Ideal L2 self	Interviewee 9	Interior design	Humanities	2	Planning to study abroad for her MA
	Interviewee 18	Religious studies	Humanities	2	
Low Ought- to L2 self	Interviewee 4	Law	Humanities	4	
	Interviewee 1	Hospital management/HR	Science	3	
Low IP	Interviewee 11	Public relations	Humanities	2	Planning to study abroad for her MA
	Interviewee 14	Fashion design	Humanities	4	Wants to be a fashion designer
Arabic Users	Interviewee 7	History	Humanities	2	Wants to be a housewife / doesn't want to work
	Interviewee 19	Not sure	Science	4	

\*See Appendix J for students' profiles in relation to L2MSS components, IP, and OILE frequency.

Additionally, 16 interviewees seemed to present a vivid picture of their future L2 self, which is also considered an essential part for their future success. In fact, considering English as part of future success can be classified as instrumentality with promotion focus. However, I coded it under Ideal L2 self based on Dörnyei's (2005, 2009a) conventions that this could be part of Ideal L2 self (see section 3.2.4). Furthermore, five participants expressed their desire to fulfil their own dreams by studying abroad and expressed how English is part of their self-chosen dreams. Three interviewees expressed that becoming fluent in English was a principal goal in their life and that they could imagine themselves speaking in English. Furthermore, four interviewees (Interviewees 4, 5, 6, and 8) thought of learning English as a short-term goal and had specific plans. When asked if they could imagine themselves speaking English 10 years from now, they stated that this goal should be fulfilled sooner than that. This statement made by Interviewee (5), reflects the opinion of this group, "I guess I would be able to speak English fluently in the near future let's say five years from now." Furthermore, several participants (Interviewees 4, 5, 8, 9, 11, 13, and 17) imagined themselves using English in their work with foreigners. However, five interviewees (Interviewees 1, 2, 12, 16, and 17) stressed the importance of limiting the use of English for communicating with foreigners and not to use it with Arabs as they were worried about losing their cultural identity and were trying to safeguard it. As Interviewee (1) stated:

The thing is my colleagues and my boss will mostly be [Saudi] so I am not planning to use English with Arabic speakers as I do not want to lose my cultural identity. I will definitely use English with non-Arabic speakers as you know most of the nurses in Saudi Arabia are from the Philippines and their Arabic language is not so good, so I will need to speak English with them, assuming that I get a job in a hospital.

On the other hand, three participants showed a neutral disposition regarding their hopes of learning the language and their wish was not accompanied by any immediate

actions or future goals or plans. As one participant said, “I can really imagine myself speaking English fluently, but the image is really fuzzy and it’s more of a wish rather than a vivid image or a plan” (Interviewee 10). Only one interviewee was very negative about her future as she believed that speaking English in the future was an unattainable goal. She thought that her current proficiency level was not promising. This statement clarifies her point, “I do not think I would be able to master the language; my level in English is very poor and I think I am a hopeless case and will never learn this difficult language” (Interviewee 18). Overall, the qualitative data highlight the vividness of students’ Ideal L2 self which often appears to be integrated with the Ought-to L2 self. However, for the sake of organisation, each dimension was presented separately. Furthermore, science students seemed to have vivid future Ideal L2 selves and more precise future plans than humanities students. I discuss in detail how the qualitative data supported the quantitative findings of Ideal L2 self in Section ( 6.3.3).

#### ***6.3.2.2 Voice of the Ought-to L2 Self***

In the coding table of the qualitative data, see section 5.6.1 , students are shown to display positive dispositions towards three categories: viewing English as an important language for future obligations, for meeting others’ expectations, and for gaining others’ respect. While 10 students rejected the role of others in their learning of English, 3 students had a neutral stance about the importance of English as they had specific life goals and believed they could succeed in life without mastering the English language.

Most learners were convinced of the importance of the English language to meet their future responsibilities as they believed that they would not be able to succeed without English. The view of Interviewee (1) reflects the opinions of 11 other interviewees: “If I want to succeed in my major, hospital management, I need to master English. I do not think that I will be able to graduate and find a job without being a fluent English speaker.” In fact, learning English to avoid failure in the future is essentially an instrumentality with

prevention focus which, according to Dörnyei (2005, 2009a), can be considered as part of Ought-to L2 self (see section 3.2.4). Thus, learning English to avoid failure in the future was categorised under Ought-to L2 self. In general, those aspiring to work in the medical sector found English to be an essential aspect of their future obligations. Out of the 10 students who considered English an essential part of their future responsibilities, 7 were science students. This is clear from the opinion of a student who said, “I guess if I want to be a dentist I will need English to succeed in my studies, and I might need English in the hospital to communicate with the nurses. As you know, most nurses in Saudi Arabia are from the Philippines and they use English” (Interviewee 16). Another student reinforced this point by saying, “I will not be able to succeed without being a fluent English speaker and English will be the medium of instruction in biology. So, there is zero chance for me to graduate if I do not learn English” (Interviewee 3).

Additionally, some students believed in the importance of learning English, albeit to a lesser extent. As one student stated, “I could succeed without English, but at the same time, I still feel that knowing English language would contribute to my success as I would find more job opportunities” (Interviewee 2). Another student had a very precise future career for which she believed that learning English was not needed. As she stated:

It [English language] definitely would contribute to my success, but I guess I would be able to succeed without English. As I want to be a lawyer and as Arabic is the main language in this field, I would only need English to deal with non-Arabic speaking clients. (Interviewee 5)

Seven students felt that English was not only essential for future success but also for their personal image. As one student stated, “I want to learn English . . . to look like an educated modern girl” (Interviewee 10). Another student stated:

I guess, in this era, I will not be able to succeed without English. Especially with the new vision of Saudi Arabia. If I want to reach a high position in my job, I need good language and a perfect accent as well, because I want to sound smart.(Interviewee 13)

It is clear from the previous extracts that some students consider the knowledge of English to be important for impressing others and believe that they will be perceived as smart and educated individuals just because they speak English fluently. Another student reinforced the same idea and stated that English boosted her self-esteem: “Definitely it [English] will contribute to my success. Of course, I can succeed without English, but it will add to my success, as I will find more job opportunities and it will improve my self-esteem” (Interviewee 12).

Furthermore, 11 interviewees vocalised that the surrounding community, which were mostly family members, played a role in shaping their positive views about learning English. As this interviewee said, “I feel learning English is very important. My parents are encouraging me to learn it, but I do not want to learn it just to achieve their dreams. I want to learn it for my own self, and of course, to make them proud” (Interviewee 6). Some students indicated that they not only respond to the expectations that others have of them but also have a fear of being inferior to their significant others. As one student replied when asked about the opinions of others in endorsing her view about learning English:

It’s [English] important for my own sake. No one is pressuring or encouraging me to learn it but all my family (my parents and sisters) are speaking English, which is very encouraging to me. So, I do not want to be inferior or less educated than my siblings, and both of my parents are fluent English speakers so I should be like them. It would be a shame if I do not speak English. (Interviewee 2)

On the other hand, some students (six of the interviewees) neglected the role of others in shaping their attitude towards learning English. The following statement from Interviewee

(4) reflects the opinion of this group: “I want to learn English for my own success. No one is pressuring me at all”. It is pertinent to note that three students (Interviewees 5, 6, and 8) had mixed stances towards the influence of the surrounding others and made both negative and positive statements which were classified as part of both positive and negative Ought-to L2 self. As Interviewee (5) stated:

It is very important to me to speak English but I do not want to speak it for the sake of others. I do not really care about what others think of me but I guess my parents would be proud of me if I become a fluent English speaker. But to be honest, I think they will be proud of me if I succeed in life regardless of whether I know English or not.

Additionally, five students considered English essential for their current academic success. A statement such as “I need to pass the course” (Interviewee 18) reflects the opinions of this group. This may be considered an instrumental reason, but it is closely related to the negative Ought-to L2 self. For clarity, however, I have decided to code it under a separate code and named it “instrumental reasons”. It is pertinent to note that the responses of the interviewees for Ought-to L2 self indicated certain discrepancies between the quantitative and qualitative data. This was the case for Interviewees (7), (18), and (1). Interviewee (7)’s quantitative data indicated that the student had high Ought-to L2 selves, but in the interview, the voice of Ought-to L2 self was absent. It was the opposite case for Interviewees (1 and 18) as their quantitative data indicated low Ought-to L2 selves while their qualitative data indicated high Ought-to L2 selves. This may draw attention to the suitability of the instrument of Ought-to L2 self as Lamb (2012) and Lanvers (2016) argued that there might be some weakness in the Ought-to self instrument. However, the scale used in this study showed a good reliability, and thus, the discrepancy in the three interviewees’ data sets may be because the students preferred to express themselves orally rather than in writing, or vice versa. Overall, the qualitative data shows that Ought-to L2 self is positively

prominent among both science and humanities students. However, science students seem to consider English more essential for their future responsibility, as 7 of the 10 students who considered English an essential part of their future responsibilities were science students. In section 6.3.3, I clearly demonstrate how the findings of the qualitative data supported the quantitative findings.

### ***6.3.2.3 Learners' Lived L2 Learning Experience***

As shown in the coding table of the qualitative data (see section 5.6.1), four main themes were identified in the qualitative data relevant to the L2 learning experience which are general L2 learning experience, experience with English teachers, classroom environment at the English Language Institute (ELI), and students' opinions on teaching methods. Each theme has a magnitude coding (positive, negative, and sometimes neutral).

In term of students' general attitude towards the L2 learning experience, the majority (11 interviewees) seemed to have a positive attitude and generally liked English. The following statement reflects the opinion of this group: "I enjoy learning English. It is fun and interesting" (Interviewee 3). Another student indicated that her positive attitude towards learning English led her to engage with English more. When asked about her L2 learning experience, she stated, "It has been very positive so far, and because I love English, I spend lots of time watching movies and listening to English music" (Interviewee 1). In contrast, eight students had a very negative experience with learning English, their voice being echoed in the following statement when asked about their L2 learning experience in general: "Awful! I really struggled with learning English" (Interviewee 18). Whenever students expressed a negative attitude towards learning English, I would enquire further, and their replies seemed to relate their negative experiences to external factors such as teachers and their teaching methods or simply the classroom environment. As Interviewee (12) stated when I enquired further about her L2 learning experience:

I experienced failure in learning English because I had the worst teachers ever, and I did not realise that I could learn English by myself until recently.

**(Interviewer)** Can you tell me more?

I mean, nowadays, free education is available online. I do not need a good teacher to explain anything to me as I can find the best teachers by watching YouTube educational videos for free. I learned statistics online through watching a channel called How to Stats, and nowadays, I have started learning English online. I also learned JavaScript and coding online. Who needs teachers now?

This student not only blamed her teachers for the negative learning experience she encountered but tried to substitute the role of teachers with resources available online. In fact, most of the interviewees vocalised the important role played by teachers in shaping their attitude towards their English learning experience. As one student explained:

My learning experience used to be very negative, because in the intermediate school, I had the worst teacher ever. They were explaining English like Mathematics, with a special focus on grammar rules, and in high school, things got better and I started to improve. I guess teachers play a vital role in the process of learning English. (Interviewee 3)

Three students (Interviewees 17, 4, and 5) were very appreciative of their teachers' role and their teaching methods. As Interviewee (17), who reflects the opinions of this group, stated, "In the university, the teachers are highly qualified, and it all depends on the teacher. My teacher creates a dynamic class and I really enjoy studying English. It is fun and very interesting." Other students discussed the vital role of teachers in discouraging or encouraging students. As one student said when asked about her L2 learning experience, "It was great, but it depends on the teacher as I think she can motivate and inspire the student or do the opposite" (Interviewee 13).



Another student (Interviewee 4) stated:

I was lucky to have the best teachers. I guess the success of English classes depends mostly on the teacher, and because of my teacher, I started to enjoy studying English.

**(Interviewer)** So do you think the teacher's role is important?

Definitely. I learned how to write from one of the most inspiring teachers in high school. She taught us how to compose sentences and write a paragraph without needing to memorise sentences.

With regard to the classroom environment, students had conflicting attitudes towards it. Most of the students (10 students) complained about the drudgery of the classroom environment, the main reason for this being the duration of the class. The following extracts show the opinions of two students when asked if they liked the classroom environment at the ELI:

It is not bad, I like it, but the class time is really long to the extent that I feel suffocated during the class. It should be one hour or maximum one and a half hours.

(Interviewee 7)

The classroom is very boring. I feel suffocated, not because English is difficult, but because class time is too long — three hours every day, which is very stressful and boring. (Interviewee 6)

Four students felt that the poor teaching methods were amongst the main reasons for them hating English classes, as this interviewee (Interviewee 15) stated:

I hate English classes as they are very long and boring. I find the materials really easy but it is being taught in an inefficient way.

**(Interviewer)** Can you explain further?

Well, we do not practise English in the class at all. We are passive learners and some of the teachers are not really good, so this impacts us negatively. We need an interactive learning system, so we students can start to practise the language.

Three students argued that English should be acquired naturally by practice and demanded that teachers should engage students in more interactive activities. As Interviewee (3) stated, “I guess teachers and the educational sector should encourage students to practise English more through using the resources around us”. Additionally, the qualitative data revealed that when students had negative L2 learning experiences, the voice of their Ought-to L2 self concealed this negativity by acknowledging the importance of the English language for their future endeavours. The following opinion of a student made this clear:

I don't really love the process of learning English language, but I believe that learning English is a basic need, and I will not be able to survive without it. So, one of my main goals in life is to master the English language. (Interviewee 2)

In the following section, I integrate the qualitative and quantitative findings to demonstrate how the qualitative data supported the quantitative data and expanded on it.

### **6.3.3 Integrating the Qualitative and Quantitative Findings**

Based on the quantitative data, more specifically repeated measures ANOVA, Ideal L2 self was the highest among the other L2 motivational variables. This finding may explain why 14 of the chosen interviewees for the qualitative data had high Ideal L2 self, as shown in their quantitative data (see Appendix E for their L2MSS profiles). As mentioned previously, interviewees' selection criteria were based on selecting two participants from each motivational profile based on three dispositions which are High, Neutral, and Low. Furthermore, as mentioned previously (section 4.10.2), there was no way of controlling the other motivational profiles when selecting participants who represented certain dispositions. The qualitative data for the Ideal L2 self supported the quantitative data, as shown in section

(6.3.2.1), and expanded on it as some of the participants who expressed their strong determination to learn English also expressed their fear of not being able to reach fluency, specifically in spoken English. As one student said, “I can imagine myself speaking English. I cannot really imagine the degree of my fluency, but I do not think I would be able to express myself in the same way that I do in L1” (Interviewee 2). Other interviewees (Interviewees 1 and 17) felt their writing level would be much better than their spoken English. As one interviewee stated, “I guess my writing will be better than my speaking skills. I can imagine myself writing long professional emails” (Interviewee 1). This is considered a new theme that had not been widely discussed in the literature and is discussed in Section 6.3.4.

The quantitative data show that learners’ level of Ought-to L2 self is slightly lower than their Ideal L2 self and their L2 learning experience. The qualitative data highlight the voice of the Ought-to L2 self among the students, as shown in section 6.3.2.2. The qualitative data demonstrated that students who aspired to work in the medical sector had high Ought-to L2 self partly because English is the medium of instructions in these sectors, as highlighted in the section above ( 6.3.2.2). English was also important to avoid failure in the future. In short, the qualitative data demonstrated the voice of the Ought-to L2 self as highlighted above and the data also expanded the understanding of the voice of the Ought-to L2 self by showing how students future routes frame their sense of life obligations.

Quantitative data showed that the mean for learners’ attitudes towards L2 learning experience was 3.21. Repeated measures ANOVA showed that Ideal L2 self was the highest construct among learners, followed by L2 learning experience. Qualitative data for L2 learning experience was rich as this was the only topic which students discussed extensively. Section 6.3.2.3 above demonstrated the qualitative findings related to the L2 learning experience in detail and expanded the understanding of this issue as some students felt that the fluctuations of their attitude towards the classroom environment depended mostly on their teachers. As one student said, “It depends on the teacher. In Level 2 and Level 3, my teachers were great, so I really enjoyed the classes. In this level, the classroom is very boring

and exhausting, and the teacher does not appear to be motivated” (Interviewee 14). Overall, students were dissatisfied with the classroom environment or with the current teaching methods, but they had a positive attitude towards English in general and their Ought-to L2 self along with their Ideal L2 self seemed to conceal any negative attitude towards L2 learning experiences. This is shown in eight cases (Interviewees 3, 2, 6, 5, 1, 7, 11, and 12). In the following section, I discuss the findings related to the first research question of this study.

#### **6.3.4 Discussion**

The aim of the first research question in this study is to explore the level of the learners’ motivation using a mixed-methods approach. The purpose, hereby, is to understand Saudi female university students’ motivation and use their level of motivation as a reference to answer the other research questions by relating students’ motivation to IP or their online engagement with English. The statistical analyses employed in this study highlighted two things. First, factor analysis identified all the three components of the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) as unique constructs, which supports the validity of L2MSS in explaining the motivation of the study’s population. It is pertinent to point out that, in a recent meta-analysis of L2MSS studies, Al-Hoorie (2018) noted that most L2MSS studies neglect conducting factor analysis to establish the validity of the L2MSS scales in the population of their studies. This study has successfully confirmed the validity of the utilised scales using factor analysis. It should be noted that the study did not aim to validate the L2MSS, as this already has been established widely, even within the Saudi context (see sections 3.2.5 and 3.2.7); however, the factor analysis confirmed the validity of L2MSS in explaining the motivation for the sample of this study. Second, the descriptive statistics showed that the mean differences between the tripartite components of L2MSS were quite close; that is, Ideal L2 self ( $M = 3.73$ ,  $SD = .72$ ), L2 learning experience ( $M = 3.21$ ,  $SD = .98$ ), and Ought-to L2 self ( $M = 2.75$ ,  $SD = .98$ ). As there is no established benchmark in the literature for evaluating

the L2MSS components, this led me to conduct a further statistical analysis, namely a within-subjects ANOVA, to investigate the significance of the mean differences (see section 6.3.1.2). As reported in the quantitative analysis above (see section 6.3.1), there were significant differences with a large effect size between the three components of L2MSS. Ideal L2 self was found to be the highest amongst Saudi female learners in this sample, but the mean value itself was not considered high ( $M = 3.73$  on a 5-point Likert scale); this was followed by L2 learning experience and then Ought-to L2 self. Having Ideal L2 self as the most prominent component is not surprising as several previous studies in Saudi Arabia have highlighted the potency of Ideal L2 self in explaining learners' motivation (Al-Shehri, 2009; Moskovsky et al., 2016). Furthermore, Kormos and Csizér (2008) and Ryan (2009) had similar findings for a sample size of a similar age (i.e., university students). Those researchers explained that Ideal L2 self is the highest among university students and that the L2 learning experience plays a significant role in explaining students' motivated behaviour. Indeed, as discussed in the literature (section 3.2.8.2), most studies on L2MSS determined the potency of each L2MSS component by its ability to predict the intended effort. This study has not included intended effort and has referred instead to the significance of the differences between mean values, based on the convention that intended effort does not necessarily reflect motivated behaviour. Furthermore, the aim of the study is to focus on one outcome and that is OILE frequency (OILE habits). Several other studies have included several outcomes along with intended effort and compared them, such as Lamb (2012) and Moskovsky et al. (2016); both studies highlighted that intended effort does not necessarily lead to motivated behaviour (see section 3.2.8.2). However, while adding intended effort along with OILE as an outcome was an option, I have not done this because I wanted to limit the scope of the study to OILE as an outcome. Further studies may add intended effort as a variable when replicating this study and conduct a comparison between the two outcomes (i.e., intended effort and OILE frequency).

Previous studies have relied on the correlation between the L2MSS constructs to confirm that they are distinct constructs (Al-Hoorie, 2018). In this study, Ought-to L2 self and Ideal L2 self were not significantly correlated; however, there was a weak positive correlation between the L2 learning experience and Ought-to L2 self. In addition, there was a strong correlation between the L2 learning experience and Ideal L2 self. Nonetheless, factor analysis confirmed the identifiability of the L2MSS scales, and thus, the strong correlation between Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience undeniably shows that the items are measuring the same thing, and this finding is in line with what was found in previous studies (Lamb, 2012; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). In fact, the strong correlation between Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience is an interesting one, indicating that learners who have visions of themselves successfully using English tend to be satisfied with their L2 learning experience or vice versa. Of course, I cannot attribute causation, as correlation is not causation (Field, 2005). In the following sub-sections, I discuss the findings related to each of the components of the L2MSS, highlighting how the qualitative findings support the quantitative findings.

#### ***6.3.4.1 Ideal L2 Self***

Ideal L2 self was the highest among the L2MSS components in the quantitative data, and the qualitative findings support this, as students' Ideal L2 self was found to be vivid and realistic in the qualitative data; this may be because of their ages as they are university students and they did not seem to have any fantastical or unrealistic visions of themselves. As mentioned in the qualitative findings, four interviewees considered English as a short-term goal, and they tied their goals to specific plans. This supports Dörnyei (2009a), who stated:

Future self-guides are only effective if they are accompanied by a set of specific predeveloped and plausible action plans, which are cued automatically by the image. Thus, effective future self-guides need to come

as part of a 'package', consisting of an imagery component and a repertoire of appropriate plans, scripts and self-regulatory strategy. (p. 21)

Additionally, another emerging sub-theme that was coded under neutral Ideal L2 self (see Table 5-6, in Chapter 5) is that students seemed to have different Ideal L2 selves for different English skills as they felt that reaching a higher proficiency would be easier in terms of written rather than spoken English and that they would still sound like foreigners regardless of their level of English proficiency. To the best of my knowledge, this concern has not been raised before or discussed in L2MSS studies; this may be because, as reported by Al-Hoorie (2018) and Boo et al. (2015), most L2MSS studies rely on questionnaires and neglect the power of mixed-methods research in uncovering wider themes and concepts related to L2MSS. This theme emerged from two interviewees (Interviewees 1 and 17). Further studies can examine whether students have different L2 selves for different English skills.

Furthermore, as indicated in the qualitative data, students view English as instrumental to their future success. Some students hoped to master the English language in the future and had a vivid image of their future L2 selves, but they stressed that they wanted to use English for communication with foreigners and were against using English as a substitute for the Arabic language as they were worried about losing their cultural identity. I recall what interviewee (1) said in this regard:

The thing is, my colleagues and my boss will mostly be [Saudi], so I am not planning to use English with Arabic speakers as I do not want to lose my cultural identity. I will definitely use English with non-Arabic speakers, as you know most of the nurses in Saudi Arabia are from the Philippines and their Arabic language is not so good, so I will need to speak English with them, assuming that I get a job in a hospital.

This highlighted the tension between students' desire to learn the English language and their fear of losing their culture identity, which supports Islam et al.'s study (2013) in which Pakistani students highlighted their fear of losing their cultural identity. Furthermore, the quantitative data highlighted that Ideal L2 self was the highest amongst this sample, and the qualitative data supported this finding. While there was only one interviewee who had a low Ideal L2 self, her data and her attitude during the interview shows that she had a low level of motivation and had lost hope in a promising future, as she referred to herself as a 'hopeless case'. This could suggest that her low Ideal L2 self stemmed from her lack of intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). In fact, Yashima (2009) and Dörnyei (2009a) associated intrinsic motivation with Ideal L2 self. Hence, I would assume that a lack of intrinsic motivation may have impacted the student's Ideal L2 self, perhaps leading to a lower Ideal L2 self. To summarise, both the qualitative and quantitative data clearly identify students' motivation regarding their Ideal L2 self. This supports the findings of previous studies within the same context which indicated that Saudi students have a vivid Ideal L2 self (Al-Shehri, 2009; Moskovsky et al., 2016).

#### ***6.3.4.2 Ought-to L2 Self***

I explore two aspects in this section: first, the contribution of the qualitative data in explaining students' Ought-to L2 self, and second, the validity and reliability of the adapted Ought-to L2 self scale used in the questionnaire. The quantitative data indicated that students' Ought-to L2 self was the lowest of the three components of the L2MSS model, noting that none of the means for the three L2MSS components were above 4 on a 5-point Likert scale. In addition, the qualitative data provided a rich explanation of the quantitative data and highlighted how 50% of the interviewees acknowledged the role of others in shaping their motivation towards English. As mentioned in the literature review, Al-Qahtani (2015) highlighted the potency of Ought-to L2 self in explaining a group of Saudi students' motivation towards the English language. However, I would approach Al-Qahtani's (2015)



study results with caution as the researcher conducted the correlation and regression analyses without confirming the identifiability of the questionnaire items (i.e., the danger that all the items of the scale are measuring the same thing or overlapping). As previously mentioned, Al-Hoorie (2018), in a recent meta-analysis related to L2MSS studies, argued that a common limitation among L2MSS studies is that they neglect the use of factor analysis. My study has successfully confirmed the identifiability of the Ought-to L2 self scale using factor analysis.

Although the Ought-to L2 self was not the highest construct quantitatively in this study, qualitatively it seems prominent, as discussed in the forthcoming section. The qualitative data for Ought-to L2 self enriched the understanding of the quantitative data, and approximately 80% of the interviewees were found to be strongly convinced of the importance of English to fulfil their future obligations. This was especially the case for those who aspired to work in the medical sectors as English is the medium for instructions in the medical disciplines as well as the medium for communications in the medical sectors. This clearly underlines why the students felt the urgency to study English to achieve their future goals and obligations. For those who aspired to work in sectors that do not require English, such as law, they did not feel the same urgency to study English even though they felt that English is an important means of communication. Nonetheless, they believed that they could succeed without it as Arabic is the main language for lawyers within this context (i.e., in Saudi Arabia). For the majority of interviewees, English not only seems to be important to fulfil future responsibilities but is also viewed as part of their future success. English for future success could be considered as instrumentality with a promotion focus. However, the desire to learn English to avoid future loss could be classified as instrumentality with a prevention focus. According to Dörnyei (2005, 2009a), instrumentality promotion could be considered as part of Ideal L2 self and instrumentality prevention could be considered as part of Ought-to L2 self (see section 3.2.4). Hence, in the coding of the qualitative data, I coded 'English for future success' under Ideal L2 self (see section 6.3.2.1) and 'learning English to avoid failure' under Ought-to L2 self (see section 6.3.2.2). The coexistence of

these voices within the same participants points to the intermixed voices of Ought-to L2 self and future Ideal L2 self, which is learning English for future success and learning English for future responsibility, and this is completely expected as Dörnyei (2009a) suggested that Ought-to L2 self and Ideal L2 self are not opposite components; on the contrary, they should be in harmony.

Additionally, within this context, English is perceived as a means not only to achieve future goals but also to impress others; for example, reiterating what was said by interviewee (13): “I guess in this era I will not be able to succeed without English. Especially with the new vision of Saudi Arabia. If I want to reach a high position in my job, I need good language and a perfect accent.” Other students expressed that they want to learn English because they do not want to be inferior to others. This is a core concept related to Ought-to L2 self and how learners go through the process of language learning just to impress others. Further, some interviewees viewed English learning as just an instrumental purpose, whereby they want to learn English to pass the course; this was expected as the teaching of the English language within this context is exam oriented.

Regarding the suitability of the Ought-to L2 self scale, the scale had a very acceptable reliability (i.e., Cronbach’s alpha = .81), and the factor analysis confirmed the validity of the scale. In fact, this scale was based on Taguchi et al. (2009), whose scale was proved to have a high reliability among other Ought-to L2 self scales, because as highlighted in the literature review (see section 3.2.5), all the items in this scale are worded from ‘subjects’ own self’ and included the pronouns ‘I’ or ‘me’ (Lamb, 2012, p.1007). In addition, as highlighted in the Methodology Chapter (section 4.6.1.1), I made a slight adjustment to the items, based on Lanvers’ (2016) suggestion, by changing the ‘others’ to every possible other (for example: ‘*I study English because my friends/parents/teachers/other people think it is important*’). This alteration clarified the meaning of others and may have strengthened the reliability of the scale. It should be noted that there was a slight discrepancy between the qualitative and quantitative findings among three interviewees (see section 6.3.2.2). Lamb (2012) and

Lanvers (2016) highlighted some weaknesses in the Ought-to L2 self instrument, and as discussed in the literature, this construct has been found to be problematic in several contexts. I would argue that as the construct showed high reliability and validity within this context, the discrepancy in the three interviewees' data sets cannot be attributed to weakness in the instrument itself and may have been caused by the students preferring to express themselves verbally rather than in writing or vice versa, as the divergence suggested both ways. I am not implying that my construct lacks any faults; however, the literature is experiencing a surge with regard to L2MSS, more specifically, for improving the reliability of the constructs for Ought-to L2 self (Al-Hoorie, 2018). Furthermore, Dörnyei (2009a) has warned that introducing different standpoints (own/other) would make the border fuzzy, and the issue would become too complicated to be studied or understood. Hence, it is valid to argue that adapting the scale of Taguchi et al. (2009) and adding the different 'others' to the items of Ought-to L2 self, based on Lanvers' (2016) suggestion, would most likely result in a highly reliable and valid scale, as has been done in this study.

#### ***6.3.4.3 L2 Learning Experience***

The quantitative findings indicated that the L2 learning experience scale was ranked second among the three L2MSS components, with a mean value of 3.21. The qualitative data largely enriched the understanding of students' L2 learning experience. In fact, students seemed to have varying opinions about their L2 learning experience, and the thematic coding in the qualitative data reflects the vast information gained about the L2 learning experience (see Table 5-6 in section 5.6.1). Several studies have highlighted the role of the L2 learning experience in shaping students' motivation (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam et al., 2013; Lamb, 2012). In the following section, I discuss the main findings of the qualitative data along with the possible implications for improving the classroom environment within this context. I also review all the main implications in the next chapter, which is the conclusion (Chapter 7).

Approximately 50% of the interviewees seemed to generally have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experience. Furthermore, the data suggested that a positive L2 learning experience could lead to more engagement with English outside the classroom; Interviewee (1) suggested that because she enjoyed using English, she spent most of her free time watching movies in English and listening to music in English. Based on this, it is valid to deduce that positive L2 learning experiences can lead to more engagement with informal learning opportunities. I shall discuss this extensively in section 6.7.2.1, but the most important finding related to this part is that half of the interviewees seemed to have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experience. The students who had negative attitudes towards their L2 learning experiences (i.e., 8 out of the 19 interviewees) attributed their negative attitude to the three following factors. First, they had a negative attitude towards their L2 learning experience because of their teachers, and this highlights the vital role of teachers in shaping students' attitudes towards the classroom. The students further indicated that the fluctuations in their attitude towards their English classroom depended on their teachers. If the students had a positive attitude towards their English teachers, they would enjoy the classroom and the learning experience in general, and vice versa. Few students acknowledged their teachers' positive role and highlighted that they felt very lucky to have encountered such inspiring teachers. In fact, students' general dissatisfaction with their English teachers requires some serious attention, and institutions within this context should educate teachers about their vital role in shaping students' L2 learning experience through workshops that remind teachers of their responsibilities and how vital their role is in shaping students' experiences. According to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011), it is important to create a positive classroom atmosphere as well as positive teacher-student relationships to sustain students' motivation towards English language learning.

Second, students were extremely dissatisfied with the teaching methods and the fact that teachers focused on grammar rules and ignored the communicative aspects of the language. As indicated in the context chapter (section 2.3), the teaching methods within this

context are exam-oriented, and students could score very high marks in English subjects and graduate with 12 years of English language courses yet have very poor English communication skills (Al-Jarf, 2008; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Elyas & Picard, 2010). Furthermore, the data revealed how students felt that the media surrounding them could substitute for the teachers' role and that they could learn almost anything through informal learning, more specifically via YouTube. Teachers should be aware of this and try to improve their teaching methods; otherwise, they might lag behind their students, and this would form a potential challenge for teachers and put them in competition with the informal learning resources. This should not just be done at the teaching level; instead, institutions should also realise that the current generation is very tech-savvy and that students' lives revolve around media and technology. Therefore, institutions should not be surprised when students turn their backs on the traditional teaching systems; however, this study does not suggest that this is the case as the participants of this study are still considered moderate OILE users, and they acknowledged the importance of formal learning. Nevertheless, there is a need for educators and institutions to build a bridge between formal and informal learning by investing in developing their teachers' skills and their teaching methods in general as students were not satisfied with the current teaching methods. Third, several students complained about the drudgery inherent in the classroom structure, more specifically the class length as a three-hour class five days a week with the same teacher is apparently stressful to students. This emerged clearly when the students used words like "suffocated" to describe their feelings towards the classroom environment. Institutions should listen to students and focus on the quality of the classes being offered, rather than the number of hours spent in a classroom.

In summary, the first research question of this study has been answered thoroughly by both the quantitative and qualitative data. The statistical analysis confirmed the identifiability of the L2MSS components as separate constructs. Furthermore, the quantitative data indicated that the students showed a moderate level of L2MSS components (highest construct is 3.73 on a 5-point Likert scale). However, to be able to rank the three

L2MSS components, I conducted a within-subjects ANOVA and found that Ideal L2 self was the highest, followed by the L2 learning experience and then Ought-to L2 self. The qualitative data enriched the findings of the quantitative data. For Ideal L2 self, the qualitative data enriched its understanding and highlighted that, within this context, the students are found to have vivid Ideal L2 selves and that they have different Ideal L2 self for each language skills. Furthermore, the qualitative data highlighted that Ought-to L2 self was prominent among participants and that those who are planning to specialize in the medical sector consider English more essential for their professional success. For L2 learning experience, the qualitative data showed that students held diverse views on different English learning experience aspects and that the majority were not satisfied with the current classroom environment. The results related to this question highlighted the benefits of applying mixed methods in L2MSS research, which is discussed in Section 6.9.

## **6.4 Second Research Question of this Study**

RQ 2-What is the nature of students' International Posture (IP)?

### **6.4.1 Findings**

The quantitative data indicated that learners' International posture is  $M = 2.94$ ,  $SD = 0.72$ , and then the qualitative data expanded on this as discussed below. The coding table in section 5.6.1 shows the number of categories and the frequency of the magnitude coding where positive attributes for International Posture were slightly higher than negative attributes. When students were asked if they considered English to be an international language, 17 out of 19 interviewees agreed that English should be considered as an international language and that it is not related to a specific nation or country. The opinion of Interviewee (10) that "It is an international language as it is very common all over the world" reflects the opinion of the majority (17 students). Interviewee (4) considered English as a second language in Saudi Arabia and she stated, "It is an international language, and in

Saudi Arabia, we may consider it a second language as foreigners here who do not speak Arabic use English as a substitute for Arabic.”

In contrast, only two students argued that English should not be considered as an international language. These two students showed a low level of International Posture in their quantitative data. The following statements reflect their opinions on this:

I do not think English is an international language as there are other languages spreading around the world like Chinese. I do really think that Chinese will be the upcoming number one language in the world. It is only a matter of time and you will see the Americans learning Chinese. (Interviewee 15)

I do not think it is an international language as in my country, Saudi Arabia, Arabic is dominant. Also, if you travel to Turkey, for example, you cannot use English as most of the Turkish people are proud of their language and you would have to learn some Turkish to deal with them. (Interviewee 16)

Additionally, it is evident from the qualitative data that some students have a strong interest in other cultures and they are willing to make international friends, which strongly indicates their openness to the world. The degree of their openness varies but it is worthy of mentioning that only one student (Interviewee 8) had the opportunity to meet international friends in person and this was when she lived abroad for a year. However, for those who are living in Saudi Arabia, none of them had the opportunity to meet international friends face to face and all their interactions were virtual (online). This is mainly because the percentage of international students in this university is almost zero, with some students from the Arab countries, so it is unlikely for a Saudi female student at this university to encounter foreigners during a regular day. Hence, when students were asked “Do you think English helps you make new friends? . . . International friends (online/face to face)?”, the majority were surprised by this question and indicated that communicating online was the only option.

Those who communicated online (nine interviewees), reported their experiences and stated that the main reasons for online interactions were to socialise, learn about different cultures, share common interests, and practise the language. Below are extracts from three interviews describing their different experiences when communicating online with international friends:

I made lots of friends through an app called 'Keek'. We communicated in English but misunderstandings happened on so many occasions. So, I guess I need to improve my English to avoid such situations. (Interviewee 10)

Yes, when I used BBM a long time ago, I used to add foreigners from China, Japan, and Turkey. We used to chat and educate each other about our cultures. We shared photos about our countries. They thought that Saudi Arabia is a desert, but I showed them the shopping malls, the skyscrapers, and even photos of my home like the big guest rooms. They were really surprised as they do not have guest rooms; they only have living rooms. So, it was a nice chance to exchange information about our cultures. (Interviewee 11)

I made two international friends online. One of them is Turkish and the other is Japanese. We all used Google translator to help us communicate in English. We do not really understand each other but it was a fun experience. Me and the Turkish lady used to talk about Turkish series as I am a big fan of Turkish drama. (Interviewee 12)

However, there was another group (seven interviewees) who felt that the question of having international friends was inapplicable to their situation, mostly because they did not meet international people in their everyday life. Furthermore, when it comes to online friendships, they were very conservative because of some cultural restrictions and security



concerns as they believed it was not safe. They also stated that they do not wish to interact with foreigners. The following extracts from three different students illustrate this opinion:

I do not like to make any sort of communication online. It is very creepy to communicate with someone whose identity you cannot ascertain. (Interviewee 2)

No, I do not have any experience and I do not really want to communicate with foreigners as this is against our culture, and my parents would be mad at me if I contacted someone that I do not know. . . . I use Cambly sometimes to chat with native speakers but my Dad did not like this app because he does not like me to talk with foreigners. Although I choose female instructors all the time but he is so sceptical about the program. (Interviewee 14)

I do not want to have international friends as I feel that we can never understand each other. It is not only a language barrier but a cultural barrier as well, besides I do not like to make any friendships online. (Interviewee 18)

In the previous extracts, it was clear that students feared cyber communication more than cultural strangeness. Interviewee (2) stated that online communication was ‘creepy’. However, Interviewee (18) explained that not only was she trying to avoid communicating with foreigners but she also felt that the idea of having a ‘foreign’ friend is beyond the common cultural norms. A minority (three interviewees) had a neutral stance towards making international friendships, that is, not having any international friends currently but open to making some friends in the future. When this interviewee was asked about online international friendship, she said, “I have never made any friends online. I guess I should think of that in the future” (Interviewee 13).

When students were asked if they were interested in the news or if they had a particular message to spread to the world, only one student was eager to spread a particular message to the world:

I want the world to know more about Islam, and I feel there are so many misconceptions about the Islamic regulations. Unfortunately, language is a barrier, and I feel I would need to have strong language skills to convey my message clearly.  
(Interviewee 12)

The same interviewee also stated that she had made some international friends, which suggests that she is open to other cultures and willing to interact to deliver a certain message and properly learn about other cultures. The rest of the students were not really interested in spreading any messages. They were also not interested in international news, except for four students who indicated that they watch the news and care about what is going on in the world. The following statements clarify this point:

I am interested in what's happening in the world. I watch lots of political talk shows and I love watching Trump's speeches. Also, I always watch Michelle Obama's speeches. She is very inspiring and her language is very strong. (Interviewee 8)

Furthermore, students reflected on their proficiency level. Although the interview questions related to IP did not ask about the language learning aspects as the questions addressed learners' openness to the world and whether they had a particular message that they would like to spread to the world or if they were interested in world news. Nonetheless, students reflected on their proficiency level as they believed that the interview was related to English learning and they thought that they had to reflect on their English proficiency in most given questions. Furthermore, two students indicated that they were interested in world news, but they used their L1 when watching or reading the news:

I am very interested in what's happening in the world. I read all trending Hashtags on twitter. I do not necessarily participate but at least I read and I am aware of what's happening in the world, and let's hope that in the future I will start to form my own views and express them, but of course, I read them in Arabic. (Interviewee 2)

It depends on the topic, as usually, when there is something trending on Twitter, I care to read about it but I rarely comment. But in general, I would say that I am interested in what's happening in the world. I watch the news, but in Arabic, of course. (Interviewee 4)

Eight students indicated that they were not interested in the news at all. The following statements from Interviewees (1) and (6) reflect the opinions of the group:

Honestly, I am not interested in what's happening in the world. I want to learn English to communicate with people about things related to work or to use it when I travel, but I am not looking to be an influencer nor to deliver any particular message. I do not really care about what's happening in the world. I am focusing on my own life, and I have never watched news, neither in Arabic nor in English. (Interviewee 1)

No, I do not have any interest in the news. I love fashion only, not because I am shallow or superficial, but I like to block negative energy, and I read once that watching the news is a source of negative energy. (Interviewee 6)

Three students took a neutral stance towards what is happening in the world. As Interviewee (3) said, she is interested in environmental issues but not necessarily in world news, and this statement reflects the opinion of others:

It depends on the sort of news. I am interested in environmental issues but not in politics, as you know politics is very complicated, and I guess having an interest in

politics will impact negatively on my mental health as all the news nowadays is heart-breaking. So, I avoid watching news but I love watching documentaries about environmental issues. I usually watch them in English with Arabic subtitles.

(Interviewee 3)

Overall, the notion of International Posture is present in the qualitative data to various degrees which expanded the understanding of the mean value in the quantitative data. Students believe that English is an international language and some of them had formed several online friendships for various reasons. Others, however, were sceptical about online communication. Their interest in global affairs and issues appeared moderate to low. The majority preferred to be passive viewers and were not eager to deliver any message to the world, but they were open to receiving messages from others. In the next section, I discuss the findings related to the second research question.

#### **6.4.2 Discussion**

The second research question inquired about the nature of students' IP which has been assessed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative data indicated that the students' IP level is ( $M = 2.94$ ), and as there is no established benchmark in literature for assessing IP level, I am unwilling to make any ranking assumptions in describing IP as low or high. However, if I compare this mean to the Pakistani mixed-gender sample in Islam et al.'s (2013) study, with a mean value of 4.50 on a 5-point Likert scale, I might deduce that, quantitatively, Saudi female learners in this sample have relatively low to moderate IP, while noting that this is only an estimation because, as mentioned above, no standardised benchmark exists in the literature, and the study's sample comprises only females which may have affected the results. As reported in the literature review, Jiang and Dewaele (2015) found certain gender differences concerning Ideal L2 self and IP; future studies within the context of Saudi Arabia should consider gender differences, as discussed later on. Nevertheless, the qualitative data revealed extensive in-depth information about the nature

of participants' IP. The data also highlighted that the issue of IP is complicated and multidimensional, and investigating this issue with subconstructs, as proposed by Yashima (2002, 2009), may be more fruitful. Still, as mentioned in the methodology chapter (section 4.7), in the pilot study, I used four subdimensions under the IP construct, but most of the items had low reliability. Thus, I decided to have one construct for IP, which is similar to Islam et al.'s (2013) approach. Further studies are still needed to design an IP questionnaire that addresses cultural differences as Yashima's (2009) questionnaire was designed based on a Japanese context. Nonetheless, the qualitative data offered rich information related to students' IP which concealed any weaknesses in the quantitative instrument, as discussed in the following section.

First, most of the students in the interviews (17 out of 19 interviewees) believed that English is not related to a specific country or nation and viewed it as an international language. This is an interesting finding, indicating that the students do not really view English as a language specific to a certain country, and supports Munezane (2013). This is also in line with the findings from studies with similar cultural backgrounds (Al-Swaail, 2015; Islam et al., 2013). In addition, the two students who rejected the idea of English as an international language did not feel that it is a foreign or secondary language; they only felt that other languages are dominating the world, such as Chinese. It is pertinent to note that the Saudi government has recently started to teach Chinese in schools because the country believes that Chinese is an important language and a gateway to the business and the industrial world (section 2.3).

In terms of having international friends, Yashima (2009) addressed the effect of meeting international friends on students' openness towards the world. However, within the context of this study, it was rarely possible for the students to encounter foreigners in their daily lives. As mentioned in the Context Chapter, the university has no international students at all, and only one interviewee (i.e., Interviewee 8) had the opportunity to meet international friends face to face, and this occurred abroad and not in the country of Saudi Arabia.

Nevertheless, in the interviews, the students indicated that they have a strong interest in other cultures and are willing to make international friends. Yet, their willingness to make international friends does not relate to their OILE practice as they were reluctant to socialise online, which suggests a fear of cyber communication more than cultural strangeness; this is discussed further when presenting the relation between IP and OILE experiences in section 6.7.2.2. Nonetheless, few students reported that they communicated online to make international friends as well as for other reasons, such as learning about different cultures, sharing common interests, and practising their English language skills. Despite all the signs of the students' openness towards different cultures, some students (7 interviewees) were astonished when I asked them about international friends, and some even implied that, as a Saudi citizen myself, I should be aware that it is unlikely for Saudi students to encounter international people in their daily lives. As Interviewee (18) stated, "Well, we all know that international people are hard to encounter in our daily lives, and you should know that being a Saudi yourself. We rarely meet any foreigners in our daily lives; this is not common at all." When I prompted them about online international friendships, they stated that this may not be culturally appropriate, and one of the students even explained how communicating with foreigners online may enrage her parents. Recalling what Interviewee (14) said regarding online friendship, "No, I do not have any experience and I do not really want to communicate with foreigners as this is against our culture, and my parents would be mad at me if I contacted someone that I do not know". In fact, online communication and social media have changed the social climate in Saudi Arabia, with several Saudi females rebelling against Saudi culture behind their screens, which explains why some parents do not want their daughters to use the Internet to communicate with foreigners as there have been some real-life examples of what online communication can do. Furthermore, the literature in various contexts, such as Austria (Trinder, 2016), Hong Kong (Lai & Gu, 2011; Lai et al., 2018), and Indonesia (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019) have suggested that learners avoid socialising online for various reasons. Thus, clearly, avoiding online communication with foreigners is

not only related to the Saudi culture as this was a recurring theme in Austria, Hong Kong, and Indonesia.

Students showed a lack of interest in world news, which supports the findings of Mills (2018) who observed that Japanese university students are not interested in the news. Additionally, only one student was interested in spreading a message to the world, as she indicated that she really wanted the world to know about Islam and to spread her religion. In this student's data set, she indicated that she would like to learn about different cultures, which clearly demonstrates that this particular student is open to the world and seeks a two-way communication. In fact, several studies have indicated that students feel obligated to spread their Islamic religion to the world, as in Al-Swauil (2015), Al Haq and Smadi (1996), Islam et al. (2013), and Little and Al Wahaibi (2017). However, in this study, the obligation to spread Islam was not found as a reoccurring theme, as only one student expressed her desire to spread the message of Islam to the world, while the rest of the interviewees did not seem to have any message to spread at all and seemed to care little about world news. It is thus valid to assume that both the quantitative and the qualitative data indicate that the sample of this study is not interested in world issues and participants are focused only on their local environment, which could eventually limit their IP or their global outlook. Only two students said that they were interested in world news and tended to watch it in Arabic.

To summarise, the quantitative and qualitative data provided answers to the nature of students' IP, with the qualitative data outweighing the quantitative data in explaining their IP. This is because the original IP scale had to be modified in this study, as discussed in the methodology section. In short, female Saudi university students within this study viewed English as an international language, but their interest in the world and global issues is limited. Some students tried to make international friends online to compensate for the lack of encountering international people at their university or in their daily lives. However, others were sceptical about online communication or simply wanted to obey cultural restrictions. Most students did not seem to have any certain message that they wanted to

deliver to the world. From this summary, I can deduce confidently that Saudi female students who participated in this study do not possess a high level of IP or openness to the world, and they tend to have a limited global outlook. Further studies can look into the gender differences between males and females within the context of Saudi Arabia and assess whether the cultural restrictions imposed on Saudi females affect their IP. More importantly, other studies can examine whether the recent changes related to the new Saudi Vision 2020 effort and the uplifting of the restrictions on Saudi women have influenced the nature of their IP. In the upcoming section, I address how the collected data revealed the relationship between the Ideal L2 self and IP, especially as the literature suggested that an association exists between them (see section 3.3.3).

## **6.5 Third Research Question of this Study**

RQ 3-Is there any significant relationship between students' motivation (more specifically Ideal L2 self) and their IP?

### **6.5.1 Findings**

This section provides an answer to the third research question that inquiries about the relationship between IP and L2MSS components. I start by providing the findings of the quantitative data and then discuss how the qualitative data supported the quantitative data. To provide the quantitative answer for this research question, a series of bivariate correlation were conducted and the strength of the correlations between IP and L2MSS components was examined through a statistical procedure using Fisher's Z transformation. To correct for the multiple tests (i.e., the series of bivariate correlation analyses), the Bonferroni correction was applied.

Although the third component of the L2 Motivational Self System (i.e., L2 learning experience) is derived from the environment and has nothing to do with the self, it was considered in the examination as Aubrey and Nowlan's (2013) indicated that learners'



positive L2 experience in learning English relates to their openness towards the world (IP). In this study, Ideal L2 self and International Posture were found to be positively correlated, but the strength of the correlation is weak,  $r(548) = .237, p < .007$ . Similarly, there is a positive correlation between International Posture and Ought-to L2 self,  $r(548) = .199, p < .007$  as well as International Posture and L2 learning experience,  $r(548) = .273, p < .007$ , but the strength of correlation is considered weak. Hence, the series of bivariate Pearson correlations indicate that International Posture correlated positively with all the components of L2MSS, but the strength of the correlation is considered weak. This analysis answered the third research question to some extent, but Fisher's  $Z$  transformation ascertains the strength between the correlations, as discussed below.

While the correlation coefficient ( $r$ ) is an index of effect size (Allen et al, 2014), Fisher (1915) suggested the  $Z$  transformation to test the significance of the  $r$  coefficient. This is because Pearson's  $r$  is not considered normally distributed, and thus, Fisher's  $Z$  transformation produces a value that is normally distributed. This transformation of Pearson's  $r$  coefficients can then facilitate further analysis, either to test the confidence limit or significance (Vogel, 2005). The value of Fisher's  $Z$  is going to be used to test the significance of the differences between two sets of correlations in this study. SPSS does not normally produce this statistical analysis. Hence, the value was produced using an online calculator from the 'Psychometrica Website' (see Lenhard & Lenhard, 2014). Multiple comparisons were performed in this study (i.e., seven comparisons); therefore, the Bonferroni adjustment was applied and the alpha value was set at  $p < .007$ . Figure 6-2 shows the comparisons of correlations between IP and L2MSS components:

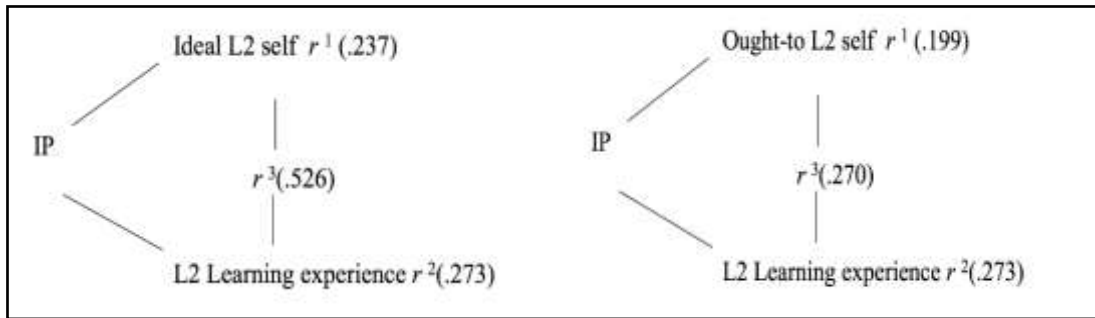


Figure 6-2: Comparing the correlation of IP with L2MSS components

One of the main aims of the present study is to investigate how IP relates to the L2MSS components. The correlation analysis showed that this relationship is positive but weak, with Ought-to L2 self having the lowest effect size  $r = .199$ . This is not surprising as previous studies have found that Ought-to L2 self does not relate to International Posture (Kong et al., 2018; Kormos & Csizér, 2009a; Kormos et al., 2011). However, several studies found a positive correlation between IP and Ideal L2 self (i.e., Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Kormos & Csizér, 2009a; Kormos et al., 2011; Yashima, 2009). As for the L2 learning experience, it was found to be related to IP in Aubrey and Nowlan (2013). Considering the correlation coefficients in this study, Ideal L2 self positively correlated with IP  $r^1 (.237)$  and IP positively correlated with L2 learning experience  $r^2 (.273)$ . Both of these correlations have a weak effect size and Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experiences correlated positively  $r^3 (.526)$  with a strong effect size. Therefore, to understand the differences between these correlations—that is, IP and Ideal L2 self vs. IP and L2 learning experience—the three  $r$  coefficients were entered into the online calculator (Psychometrica Website, see Lenhard & Lenhard, 2014) along with the number of the sample size and the result was  $Z = -0.902, p = 0.184$ . This means there is no statistically significant difference in the comparisons between these two sets of correlations. In terms of the correlations between L2 learning experience and IP vs. Ought-to self and IP, the correlation coefficients are shown above, and following the same procedures mentioned above, it was found that  $Z = 3.194, p = .001$  which indicates that the correlation between L2 learning experience and IP is significantly stronger than

between Ought-to L2 self and IP. It is of note that I did not compare the correlation between IP with Ought-to L2 self and IP with Ideal L2 self because, as reported previously, the correlation between Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self was non-significant.

Analysis of the qualitative data appear to support the above findings. Quantitative data suggested that IP correlates positively with all the components of the L2 Motivational Self System. Furthermore, the profile of participants who were selected to participate in the interviews revealed a clear pattern of association between Ideal L2 self and IP, with seven participants demonstrating high Ideal L2 selves and high IP (Interviewees 12, 3, 8, 13, 5, 2, and 4). Two of them were determined to pursue their study abroad (Interviewees 3 and 2). As Interviewee (3) stated, “I guess I can imagine myself speaking and socialising with English speakers. Because there is a chance that I will be working in hospitals, and as you know, we use English in hospitals because most of the staff are international.” Furthermore, six of them had an overall positive attitude towards their L2 learning experience (Interviewees 3, 4, 5, 8, 12, and 13). Hence, qualitative data highlighted the strong association between the voices of Ideal L2 selves and IP. This association was even prominent among those who did not hope to leave their country but showed a strong openness to the world and were using the available resources to communicate and improve their English. This can be better explained by the statement made by Interviewee (13) who indicated that her English teacher testified that her proficiency level was good. Achieving this level of proficiency was seemingly a result of her practising English online which might have been triggered by her high Ideal L2 self and openness to socialise with others, as she stated when she was asked about her future Ideal L2 self:

I guess I would be able to speak English with my bosses or teachers. My teacher, who is teaching the current course, is South African and I use English to communicate with her face to face or through Facebook chats, and she always says that my accent is American and asks me if I ever lived there but I have never travelled

abroad. I improved my accent from the media, particularly from watching movies. I really enjoy watching American movies, and I have a natural talent for imitating voices and accents. (Interviewee 13)

This is an indication of how her high level of Ideal L2 self and IP led her to interact with her South African teacher. It may also be possible that her Ideal L2 self and IP led her to engage with English outside the classroom, which is discussed in Section 6.7.2. Thus, the boundary between Ideal L2 self and IP is quite blurry in the qualitative data, pointing to the relatively strong associations between these two variables, which was confirmed in the quantitative analysis as the two variables positively correlate. As for the rest of the L2MSS components (Ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience), they also correlated positively with IP but the qualitative data did not reveal clear patterns regarding Ought-to L2 self. For the L2 learning experience, some students (six students) had positive attitudes towards their L2 learning experience and a high Ideal L2 self associated with high IP. In the following section, I discuss the findings of the third research question in light of the literature.

### **6.5.2 Discussion**

This section provides a discussion on the third research question which inquiries about the relationship between students' motivation and their IP. The quantitative data showed that IP correlated positively but weakly with all the tripartite components of the L2 Motivational Self System. As mentioned in the literature chapter, several studies confirmed a strong association between Ideal L2 self and IP (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011; Yashima, 2009). Other researchers hypothesised that IP and the Ideal L2 self are integrated and have even viewed them as one variable (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013), though this is not a common approach. Moreover, the Ought-to L2 self was always found to be unrelated to IP (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013; Kormos et al., 2011; Csizér & Kormos, 2009a, Kong et al., 2018). However, the L2 learning experience was found to be related to IP in one study on Japan (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013). In short, based on these

previous studies, I did not expect to find an association between IP and all the components of L2MSS. However, the series of bivariate correlations between IP and the L2MSS components were positive, though of weak effect size. To understand the strength of the correlations between L2MSS components and IP, I compared the  $r$  coefficients using Fisher's Z-transformation (see section 6.5.1). I compared the  $r$  coefficient for (IP and the Ideal L2 self) with the  $r$  coefficient for (IP and the L2 learning experience), and the results showed non-significant differences between the two sets of correlations. Furthermore, I compared the  $r$  coefficient between the correlations of (IP and L2 learning experience) with (IP and Ought-to L2 self); the result showed that the L2 learning experience had a stronger correlation with IP than Ought-to L2 self. It is pertinent to note that I did not compare the correlation of (IP and Ideal L2 self) with (IP and Ought-to L2 self) because there is no significant correlation between Ideal L2 self and Ought-to L2 self. Hence, both components (Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience) seem to correlate equally with IP. Thus, this finding supports what was found in extant studies in terms of the positive relationship between IP and the Ideal L2 self (Kormos & Csizér, 2008; Islam et al., 2013; Yashima, 2009). This indicates that students' attitudes towards English as a global language (i.e., IP) relate to their images of themselves as successful language learners, noting that causation cannot be assumed from correlation. The findings of this study also confirm Yashima's (2009) argument that IP "reflects the possible selves of a future English-using participant in an international community" (p. 157). It is noteworthy that Yashima (2009) confirmed the relationship between Ideal L2 self and IP using a similar statistical approach, which is 'multivariate correlations' (p. 158). In addition, the findings from this study support Aubrey and Nowlan's (2013) findings that IP relates to the L2 learning experience which they indicated by using structural equation modelling; this showed that learners' positive L2 experience in learning English relates to their openness towards the world (IP). Other researchers confirmed that the L2 learning experience has an impact on IP which would eventually impact learners' Ideal L2 self and their motivated behaviour (Csizér & Kormos,

2009a; Kormos et al., 2011). Apparently, as suggested by Csizér and Kormos (2009a), the concept of IP should be investigated more and refined further to be part of a more complex L2 motivational self system.

The qualitative data enriched the understanding of the quantitative data regarding the relationship between IP and Ideal L2 self, and according to Cohen et al. (2011), qualitative data can reveal more information about the relationship between variables. As mentioned in section 6.5.1 above, there was a clear pattern of association between learners with high IP profiles and their high Ideal L2 selves, and even the students who were not aspiring to study abroad or work in multi-national sectors within the country showed a strong interest in opening up to the world. Based on the findings from the qualitative and quantitative data, I can conclude that learners who show a higher level of IP tend to endorse a stronger Ideal L2 self. Thus, from the data, we can assume that English learning helped learners to relate to the world. As Yashima (2009) stated, “learning another language should help us to change the way we relate to the world as well as how we conceptualise ourselves” (p. 159). In the following section, I discuss the findings related to students’ habits of OILE and the different natures of learners’ OILE experiences.

## **6.6 Fourth Research Question of this Study**

RQ 4-What are students’ habits with respect to online informal learning of English (OILE)? What is the nature of their OILE experiences?

### **6.6.1 Findings**

In this section, I report the qualitative and the quantitative findings related to the frequency of OILE and then the different nature of OILE experiences, but first I will present the findings related to students general use of the Internet and their preferred language when online.

### 6.6.1.1 Overview of Students Internet Use

Students' use of the Internet on a daily basis was classified into four groups: low users (one to two hours), moderate users (three to five hours), high users (more than five hours), and (non-users). As shown in Table 6-6 below, 56% of the participants were considered to be high users and 32% moderate users. Less than 10% of the sample were considered low users and less than 1% (i.e., four students) reported that they did not use the Internet at all.

Table 6-6: Students' daily use of the Internet

Hours	Frequency	Percentage
<b>1 to 2 hours</b>	53	9.6%
<b>3 to 5 hours</b>	180	32.7%
<b>More than 5 hours</b>	313	56.9%
<b>Do not use it</b>	4	0.7%
<b>Total</b>	550	

With regard to students' language preference when online, Table 6-7 below shows that approximately 73% of the students indicated that they primarily used their L1 and some English. Approximately 10% of the sample indicated that they mostly used English, less than 1% indicated that they used only English, and 16% indicated that they used their L1 'Arabic only' and this group was excluded from the regression and correlation analysis.

Table 6-7: Students' language preference when online

Language Preference	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Only Arabic</b>	91	16.67%
<b>Mainly Arabic with some English</b>	398	72.89%
<b>Only English</b>	3	0.55%
<b>Mainly English with some Arabic</b>	54	9.89%
<b>Total</b>	546	

As shown in the table above, 91 participants in the questionnaire indicated that they do not use English when online. Students provided reasons for their avoidance and their responses were coded in NVivo. Following is a list of their reasons, reported according to frequency: 23 participants indicated that they prefer to use their L1 when online without providing any further explanation; 19 participants indicated that using their L1 is easier and much more convenient for them; 14 participants admitted that they have poor English skills; 12 participants stated that they are guarding their cultural identity and are very proud of their Arabic language; 10 participants indicated that they never felt the need to use English online; 9 participants indicated that they hate the English language because they struggled to learn it; and 4 participants indicated that they wanted to avoid embarrassment resulting from misunderstanding when communicating online. Additionally, four students reported that they do not use the Internet and provided their reasons, with two of them highlighting that they did not have time to use the Internet, one of them considering the Internet to be a waste of time, and the other one did not have an Internet connection at home. I discuss the relevance of these findings in section 6.6.2.1.

#### ***6.6.1.2 Frequency and Varieties of Students' OILE Activities***

In this section, I discuss the findings of the quantitative and qualitative data related to learners' OILE habits. The aggregated score for the items of frequency of OILE was  $M = 2.12$ ,  $SD = 1.01$  which may suggest that the use of OILE was below moderate as it is less than three in a five-point scale. Table 6-8 below presents the descriptive statistics for each item on the OILE frequency scale: mean values, standard deviations, and the percentage and frequency of the responses.



Table 6-8: Descriptive statistics for the frequency of OILE items (Mean, Standard Deviation, and Percentage)

Items	Percentage %						Mean	SD
	Almost never	Once a week	Several times a week	Once a day	Several times a day	Number of the students (N)		
1 Use social network sites to communicate with English speaking people.	40.9% N=186	22.2% N=101	14.5% N=66	14.1% N=64	8.4% N=38		2.27	1.34
2 Chat online with native or fluent speakers of English.	48.4% N=220	23.1% N=105	8.6% N=39	11% N=50	9% N=41		2.90	1.35
3 Write emails in English outside the classroom.	64% N=291	11.9% N=54	5.5% N=25	10.1% N=46	8.6% N=39		1.87	1.36
4 Use voice services to talk to people in English.	54.1% N=246	16% N=73	8.4% N=38	11% N=50	10.5% N=48		2.08	1.42
5 Read written documents in English on the Internet.	51.2% N=233	18.9% N=86	9% N=41	11.4% N=52	9.5% N=43		2.09	1.38
6 Talk online in English using voice services.	58.5% N=266	12.3% N=56	10.1% N=46	12.1% N=55	7% N=32		1.97	1.34
7 Use instant text messages to chat in English with friends.	33.8% N=154	21.1% N=96	15.4% N=70	16.5% N=75	13.2% N=60		2.54	1.43
8 Chat online in English with people I have never met in person.	54.1% N=246	15.2% N=69	10.3% N=47	10.1% N=46	10.3% N=47		2.07	1.41
9 Tweet on Twitter using English.	42.4% N=193	19.1% N=87	14.3% N=65	11.2% N=51	13% N=59		2.83	1.44
10 Read news in English on the Internet.	59.6% N=271	14.1% N=64	8.6% N=39	10.1% N=46	7.7% N=35		1.92	1.33

The mean values of different OILE activities which are presented in Table 6-8 above indicated that the students were generally not high users in any of these OILE activities. Furthermore, the frequency and the percentage of students' responses for each scale were reported in the table. The result indicates that only 10% of the students practised these activities on a daily basis and more than 50% reported that they never engaged in some of the OILE activities. To provide a simplified categorisation of the use of OILE, I have divided the scale into high use of OILE, moderate use of OILE, and non-use of OILE. I followed the guidelines outlined by Jeong (2016) and Norman (2010) who suggested collapsing the long Likert scales into a more simplified scale in the analysis phase of the study. They further argued that the dichotomisation or trichotomisation of the Likert scales is a reliable procedure for simplifying its interpretation. Thus, to categorise the mean to high or low for each item, the length of the 5-point Likert scale was calculated as follows:

$$\text{Degrees of the freedom for the Likert scale} / \text{Levels of the answer} = \text{Length of category}$$

$$(5 - 1) / 5 = 0.80$$

Subsequently, number one, which is the least value in the scale, was added to identify the maximum number of this category. Thus, the category would be as follows:

- From 1 to 1.80 represents (almost never)
- From 1.81 to 2.60 represents (once a week)
- From 2.61 to 3.40 represents (several times a week)
- From 3.41 to 4.20 represents (once a day)
- From 4.21 to 5 represents (several times a day)

Later, the use of these activities was classified as follows:

Low use	Moderate use	High use
1 to 2.6	2.6 to 3.4	3.4 to 5

Following the same procedure, I found that students tended to be low users of these activities (extensive chatting in English online, writing emails, voice chatting, or reading in English online) and seemed to be moderate users of online communication via social

networks and online text messages; moreover, they did not seem to be high users in any of the OILE activities. Thus, students are generally low to moderate users and their common OILE activities are mostly related to prompt text messaging and socialising online via social networks. The activities that require a relatively high level of English proficiency, such as writing or reading online, are still limited as approximately 64% of the sample indicated that they had never written any emails in English and approximately 50% indicated that they had never read any long documents in English when online.

In this section, I highlight how the qualitative findings supported the quantitative findings related to the frequency and varieties of OILE. It should be noted that students were asked at the beginning of the interview about their use of English outside the classroom to understand the role of English in their daily lives. They were then asked about their online engagement with English. As seen in the coding table in section 5.6.1, students provided various answers which were classified into four major categories : formal language learning (online/non-online activities); informal non-online learning activities; informal online learning activities; and using English for real-life communication (non-online communication). For the use of English in formal learning activities, six students (Interviewees 13, 18, 2, 3, 5, and 7) reported that they study English outside university. It was expected that most, if not all, of the students would study English during assessment periods, but only those six students reported that they committed to study hours on a regular basis. Two students (Interviewees 1 and 2) reported using English online for assignments that were directed by their teachers, such as the use of Pen-Pal (a website through which students can exchange letters). Furthermore, three students (Interviewees 11, 12, and 4) indicated that they watched English educational videos online. Regarding informal engagement with non-online activities, all the interviewees, with the exception of Interviewee (12), stated that they engaged with English informally through watching TV,

listening to music, or watching movies, with the latter being the most popular activity among students.

Students were also asked in the interview to describe their online activities that require engagement with English and to reflect on their level of English proficiency and frequency of using English online. In the interview, students were not given any options or hints and were asked to report freely on their online use. Table 6-9 below reflects students' OILE habits based on both quantitative and qualitative data. The table also shows learners self-reported proficiency and their estimation of the frequency of OILE use (OILE habits) that were reported during the interview. The information provided between quotation marks reflects the students' own words. Further, the learners' levels of OILE use based on quantitative findings (i.e., an aggregated score of the items of each construct) were reported.

Table 6-9: Frequency of OILE activities based on qualitative and quantitative data

Profiles based On Quantitative Data*	Participants number	Frequency of English use When online	Self-reported level of English proficiency	Frequency of OILE based on the quantitative data **	Activities as reported by the students as a reply to this interview questions:
High Ideal	Interviewee 12	“5% of my use is in English”	Beginner	Low user (1)	“I use games only and sometimes I use chat services to get in touch with international friends with the aid of Google translate.”
	Interviewee 3	“50% of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Moderate user (3)	“I use English in twitter as most of my tweets are in English. Sometimes I search for motivational quotes using Google then I tweet it. I comment in English on Instagram. I use English on YouTube.”
High Ought-to L2 self	Interviewee 8	“Mostly English”	Intermediate	Low user (2)	“I watch TED Talks. I am addicted to them. I search Google in English and I listen to English music online. I don't use social media at all because it is a waste of time.”
	Interviewee 13	“50% of my use is in English”	Pre-intermediate/beginner	High user (4)	“I watch TED talks and I have their apps on my phone, I play online games using English.”
High IP	Interviewee 5	“8% of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Low user (1)	“I play online games, watch TED talks on YouTube with English subtitles. Chat with my friends in English. I sometime use Cambly for audio chatting with native speakers. My phone language is set to English and I use English in my social media accounts.”
	Interviewee 2	“40% of my use is in English”	Advanced	Neutral user (3)	“I prefer to search in English rather than Arabic because it will provide me with plenty of options. I use English on Instagram, Twitter, YouTube and Pinterest.”
Neutral Ideal L2 self	Interviewee 16	“most of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Low user (2)	“I like using Cambly. I really like to voice- chat with native speakers of English. I also use twitter to tweet in English and use YouTube to watch English videos, mostly about beauty and health.”

	Interviewee 10	“20% of my usage is in English”	Pre-intermediate	Moderate user (2)	“My phone is set in English. I chat with friends in English.”
Neutral Ought-to L2 self	Interviewee 6	“I use very little English”	Intermediate	Moderate user (3)	“I watch YouTube for fashion bloggers or makeup artists and follow Snapchat accounts.”
	Interviewee 15	“mostly English with little Arabic”	Intermediate	Low user (1)	“I use Google to search in English and watch videos in YouTube in English and my social media accounts are in English and sometimes I comment in English. I read posts written in English by celebrities and I can understand it as I feel they use very simple language.”
Neutral IP	Interviewee 17	“most of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Low user (2)	“I use Instagram, Snapchat and I follow international celebrities on these apps.”
	Interviewee 9	“most of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Low user (1)	“I use YouTube, Instagram and I follow travel accounts, and beauty bloggers.”
Low Ought-to self	Interviewee 4	“most of my use is in English”	Intermediate	High user (4)	“I use English on Twitter, Instagram, YouTube and Google. For social media, I use English to interact with Saudis only.”
	Interviewee 1	“use English sometimes”	Upper beginners	Low user (2)	“mostly voice-chatting with native speakers but usually I read and write in Arabic.”
Low IP	Interviewee 11	“some of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Moderate user (3)	“My phone is set up in English, all the applications in my phone are in English. I contact my friends in English.”
	Interviewee 14	“most of my use is in English”	Intermediate	Low user (2)	“I have an account on most social media platforms. I follow international figures on social media. I sometimes tweet in English. I use Cambly sometimes to chat with native speakers.”

\*References of learners’ profiles for each construct (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, IP, L2 learning experience and frequency of OILE) are provided in Appendix J. \*\* The numbers represent the mean of the aggregated score of the items on the OILE scale.

The table above (Table 6-9 ) successfully integrated the quantitative and qualitative data with regard to students OILE use. The qualitative data clearly expanded on the quantitative data, as expanded upon in this section. Nonetheless, there is a slight variation in the degrees of harmony between OILE use in the quantitative and qualitative data in few cases, as explained below. Additionally, the quantitative data (aggregated score of the items for OILE frequency scale) of 10 interviewees (Interviewees 2, 6, 4, 1, 11, 10, 12, 3, 5, and 13) shows acceptable harmony with their interview minutes in terms of the frequency of OILE use and the interview minutes expanded on the findings. This conclusion was reached after carefully examining the table above (Table 6-9 ) along with the interview minutes. On the other hand, six other interviewees (Interviewees 8, 9, 14, 15, 16, and 17) showed some discrepancy in their OILE activities between the quantitative and qualitative data. This was expected for the following reasons: the quantitative instrument (questionnaire) asks about frequency and variety of OILE use by providing specific items to rate on a Likert scale, while the interview guide also asks about frequency and variety of OILE use but without providing any options. Thus, this discrepancy is expected because I am using two different methods of inquiry. Furthermore, the purpose of my mixed-method design is to use the qualitative data to confirm and expand on the quantitative data. Additionally, it is difficult to get an accurate report of self-reporting language use when online and the analysis allowed for some discrepancy, especially when reasonable justifications can be elicited from the data to expand on the quantitative findings. For example, Interviewee (8) reported in the interview that she used English mostly when online, but in the questionnaire, she reported her use as low. Examining the OILE activities reported in the interview shows that the learner does not use social media at all as she believes that they are a waste of time. Most of her use revolves around watching short videos in English online, so she is a high user of one single OILE activity. Similarly, Interviewees (17), (9), (14), and (15)

expressed a high use of English online but their OILE scores (aggregated score of the items of OILE frequency scale) in the quantitative data reflect a low level of OILE use. However, they clarified in the interview that their use was limited to either online games, TED talks videos, or social media applications. Furthermore, Interviewee (16) showed some discrepancy as her OILE score from the quantitative data indicated low use; however, during the interview, she reported that she mostly reviews online resources related to health and beauty.

The types and varieties of OILE activities in the qualitative data also supported the quantitative findings and expanded on it as students suggested some new activities. Table 5-6 in section 5.6.1 lists all the OILE activities with the frequency of coding. Use of social media applications seems to be the most common activity, followed by watching YouTube videos, and then by voice chatting mostly through an educational app called *Cambly* (an application for chatting with proficient English speakers worldwide). Students reported that they engaged in *Cambly* with the aim of improving their oral proficiency. After that comes Internet searching in English. Then, online games and texting have the same number of codes. Listening to English music online or reading English articles were not among the common English activities. It is pertinent to point out that the frequency of the qualitative coding does not project an accurate measure of use, but it simply provides an estimation of the common OILE activities along with the degree of use (high or low) among this sample. In the next section, I present the findings related to the different nature of OILE experiences.



### 6.6.1.3 Nature of OILE Experiences

In order to answer the fourth research question which inquires about the nature of learners' OILE experiences, the mean values were reported and a one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) was conducted to confirm the significant differences between the means of the three OILE experience constructs. Qualitative data would add further meaning to these numbers. Table 6-10 below presents the mean values for the different nature of OILE experiences.

Table 6-10: Mean Values for OILE Experiences

<b>Constructs</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>
<b>OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language</b>	3.68	0.85
<b>OILE to socialise</b>	3.31	1.03
<b>OILE via peers'/teachers' influence</b>	3.45	0.89

After that, I conducted a one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA), and it is pertinent to mention that this analysis is not directly motivated by the research question related to the nature of OILE experiences but supports the answer by highlighting which experience is more popular, as solely relying on mean values to compare the different natures of OILE experiences may not provide accurate conclusions, despite recent studies relying on mean values to evaluate the popularity of OILE experiences among participants (e.g. Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). Prior to conducting the within-subjects ANOVA test, several checks were performed and the assumptions of normality were met.  $F_{max}$  was found to be 1.47, demonstrating homogeneity of variance.

The within-subjects ANOVA results showed that the differences between the means of the three natures of the OILE experience variables are statistically significant,  $F(1.97, 894.490) = 37.80, p < .000, \eta^2 = .08$ . This is considered a medium effect size according to Cohen (1988)

(see Table 6-4 above). Pairwise comparisons further revealed that the mean of OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English ( $M = 3.68$ ,  $SD = 0.85$ ) is significantly higher than OILE via peers'/teachers' influence ( $M = 3.45$ ,  $SD = 0.89$ ) and OILE to socialise ( $M = 3.31$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ). OILE via peers'/teachers' influence was also significantly higher than OILE to socialise.

The qualitative data showed that the highest frequency of experience is related to learners' desire to seek online informal learning of English. This type of experience (seeking online meaningful informal learning of English) is sometimes found to be associated with the frequency of students' OILE activities, as evident from Interviewees (3), (4), (14), and (15). As Interviewee (4) indicated:

I want to improve my English language. That's why I practise it a lot.

**(Interviewer)** Can you explain how you practise English?

I use English when I am online (Twitter and YouTube mainly). It is, of course, a mixture of Arabic and English. I also read self-development books in English as the language of these books is usually very simple. Also, I use *Cambly* to voice chat with native speakers of English.

Following this is the influence of the surrounding environment on learners' OILE activities which is associated with OILE use as well. As Interviewee (16) stated, "My friends tweet in English and I try to engage with them, and if I do not understand their tweets, I try to translate it through Google translate." Another student indicated how her peers influenced her to indulge in online games, which eventually led her to use some basic English as she stated:

My friends told me about online games. After that, I became addicted to these games and I spend hours playing online games. The instructions for these games are in English, but I consider it basic English and I sometimes use online translator to understand the meaning. (Interviewee 12)

Hence, in this study, peers seem to have a stronger influence on learners' OILE use than their teachers. Next, learners' enjoyment of English online was amongst the highest reported nature of OILE experiences where participants would use adjectives such as 'fun' or 'interesting' to describe why they use English online. Interviewee (17) stated, "I use English online because I like to use it, and it is fun to use", reflecting the opinion of this group. In addition, enjoyment of OILE is associated with OILE use, as is evident from three interviewees (1, 3, and 8). Three participants indicated that they use English online to boost their self-confidence. Interviewee (1) stated, "I think using English online will help me to gain more self-confidence, especially when in real life, there is no chance of practising English." Three interviewees remarked that what really influences their OILE experience is their admiration of the English online content. As Interviewee (9) stated, "The Arabic online content is very poor whilst the online English content is very rich and entertaining. For example, for the beauty blogs, the English content is very rich and much more entertaining than the Arabic ones." Interviewee (10) added, "The best movies are in English." Furthermore, two participants indicated that they use English online to socialise. As Interviewee (12) stated, "I use chat services to get in touch with international friends with the aid of Google translator". Another theme that was identified, which is closely related to OILE experiences, is learners' reflection on the actual or potential benefits of engaging with OILE. Five interviewees highlighted how engaging in OILE improved their language or could improve it. As Interviewee (10) stated, "The Internet contributed to improving my English but I have a long way ahead." Moreover, Interviewee (1) stated, "I feel my listening skills have improved significantly through watching movies." Another student

reflected on how engaging with OILE could improve one's proficiency, stating that "The Internet will provide me with good resources to practise and improve my language, especially as we do not have a chance to practise the language in everyday life, so I think practising English virtually would really improve our language" (Interviewee 5). In the next section, I discuss the findings related to the fourth research question.

### **6.6.2 Discussion**

In this section, I examine the fourth research question concerning learners' OILE habits and the nature of learners' OILE experiences. As presented in the literature, OILE is a novel field but also a rapidly growing one, and various OILE studies have investigated students' OILE habits. Many of these have relied on the self-reporting method. Although this method has certain drawbacks, it has been widely adopted among OILE studies because of its feasibility. In addition, one of the main challenges in the field of OILE is a lack of standardised measurement scales for OILE use (Jurkovič, 2019; Kusyk, 2017). Thus, a big caveat for this study may be that the results are based on students' self-reporting habits of their OILE use in both the quantitative and qualitative methods. However, as noted previously, self-reporting is among the most common feasible approaches in OILE, and the drawbacks associated with this method could be similar to the drawbacks with any other alternative methods (see section 3.4.8). Before discussing the findings related to the self-reported frequency of OILE use, I shall discuss the findings related to students' general use of the Internet and the main language that participants use when online to provide a holistic view of the participants' Internet use.

### ***6.6.2.1 Students' Daily Use of the Internet and Their Online Language Preference***

As highlighted in the Context Chapter (Chapter 2, section 2.6), smartphones and the Internet's penetration is high in Saudi Arabia compared with the rest of the world (Statcounter, 2020). This can create a significant opportunity for learners to engage with English at the touch of a button (Trinder, 2017). In this study, more than 50% of the students confirmed that they used the Internet for more than five hours a day. This is an expected result as Internet use is considerably high in this country, and this immersive use of the Internet obviously creates an opportunity for these users to engage with English. In fact, the result showed that approximately 72% of the sample (i.e., 398 students) used some English language when online, with Arabic as the main language, and 54 students reported that most of their online use was mainly in English with some Arabic, which is less than 10% of the sample. Meanwhile, only three students (i.e., less than 0.5%) used English solely when online, and 91 students used their L1 (only Arabic) which is approximately 16% of the sample. This contrasts the results of Jarvis' (2014) study in Thailand where the students reported zero use of their L1 solely when online as they always used some English, albeit to varying degrees. Obviously, the students in present study's context did not reach the level of engagement with English reported in Jarvis' (2014) study.

As mentioned in section 6.6.1.1 above, four students reported non-use of the Internet and were thus excluded from this part of the study. Furthermore, those who reported using Arabic online or not using the Internet at all were included in the study to capture their motivation and IP; they comprised only 95 students out of 550; therefore, no comparisons were conducted between the users of OILE and the non-users of OILE because of the small sample size of the latter (i.e., 91 students were non-OILE users and 4 students were non-Internet users); besides, this was not an aim of this study. However, three non-OILE users were interviewed, and I discuss the relationship between the non-OILE users and their motivational profiles based on the fifth research question. Furthermore, the non-English users answered the open-ended

questions in the questionnaire that asked them about their reasons for using their L1 only when online. As reported previously, 23 participants indicated that they preferred using their L1, and this is very natural and expected. Furthermore, 19 other students indicated that their L1 was much easier for them, while 14 students indicated that they had poor English proficiency, 4 students indicated that they did not want to embarrass themselves by using their poor English, and 9 students indicated that they hated English, mainly because they struggled with learning it. Meanwhile, 12 participants indicated that they were very proud of their language and that replacing it with English may affect their cultural identity. Obviously, these students missed the point of using OILE, namely, to practise their language and not to threaten their cultural identity. When I checked their course level, it appeared that nine students were in Level 4 and three students were in Level 3. Therefore, it could be assumed that their English proficiency level should have enabled them to engage in meaningful communications/use of English while online. However, it is clear that they chose not to practise English at all, primarily to safeguard their cultural identity. Finally, 10 students indicated that they never actually felt that they needed to use English online.

To summarise this section, it can be deduced from the qualitative data that the majority of the sample did not consider English as a foreign or alien language that is threatening their cultural identity. All of the reasons provided by them were expected as they avoided using English online mainly because of their low English proficiency, which made them hate the English language because they struggled with it. In addition, some of the students who avoided using English online did so primarily for the following reasons: they found it easier/more convenient to use their L1; they felt that there was no need to use English online; their level of English proficiency did not allow them to engage in efficient communication; or they were not highly motivated towards learning or using English, as discussed later in Section 6.6.1.1.

### **6.6.2.2 Students' OILE Habits**

As discussed in the literature chapter (section 3.4.8), no established norm exists in the published research for evaluating the level of OILE habits (Jurkovič, 2019). Furthermore, as explained in section 6.6.1.2, dichotomisation and trichotomisation are valid procedures for categorising a Likert scale (Jeong, 2016; Norman, 2010). Thus, the scale of the frequency of OILE was divided into high, moderate, and low users. The results showed that, overall, the students were not high users of any of the OILE activities, and they were moderate users of social media for posting short posts, such as tweets on Twitter using English or chatting online. This supports the findings of Alshabeb and Almaqrm (2018) who suggested that Saudi learners are moderate users of English online. Thus, while a study about female learners in Saudi Arabia (Alsaied, 2017), along with several studies of OILE in various contexts, suggested that learners engage in a high level of OILE activities (Lai, 2015a; Lai et al., 2018; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Sockett, 2014; Trinder, 2017), the present study revealed that the female Saudi university students who participated in this study are not high OILE users as a cohort. The qualitative data seem to expand on the findings, but some justifiable discrepancies existed between the quantitative and qualitative data, and this is totally acceptable as the purpose of my design is to use the qualitative data to expand on the quantitative data. For example, as mentioned in section 6.6.1.2, the questionnaire and the interview guide used different inquiry methods; therefore, it is logical that some discrepancy or variation would appear because the questionnaire provided specific items to rate on a Likert scale, while the interview asked open-ended questions about the frequency and variety of OILE activities. If the questionnaire had asked open-ended questions, then it would have been valid to compare the two methods. In addition, some variations in the quantitative and qualitative data can be attributed to the students' OILE activities. Students seemed to be high users of specific types of OILE activities or were sometimes users of OILE activities that were not listed in the questionnaire; thus, it would have

been beneficial to include an open-ended question in this study's questionnaire to list any further OILE activities. Future studies should consider including open-ended questions along with the Likert scale items because no amount of stipulations can limit the online activities. In fact, Lamb and Arisandy (2019) took this approach and added open-ended questions, along with multiple-choice Likert scale items, but they reported that their open-ended questions did not result in many suggestions, as the respondents reported activities similar to what was already included in the questionnaire. Nonetheless, the interviews conducted in the present study mitigated the limitation of not including an open-ended question in the questionnaire and expanded on the findings, as explained in detail later in this section.

Furthermore, among the limitations of the OILE frequency scale (i.e., OILE habits) is the fact that the OILE habits included in the final analysis are focused on productive tasks, as I decided to drop the items related to receptive tasks (e.g., listening to music or watching movies) because of their low loading in the factor analysis. However, the qualitative data concealed this limitation, and based on the coding frequency in the qualitative data, it is obvious that students engage in both receptive tasks, such as watching short videos and YouTube, which supports the findings of Alnujaidi (2016), and productive tasks, such as writing posts and voice chatting via social media. In summary, while previous studies (Alsaied, 2017; Jarvis, 2014; Jurkovič, 2019; Tan et al., 2010) have suggested that learners engage in more receptive OILE habits than productive OILE habits with English when online, the results from the qualitative data confirmed that students engage equally in both activities, although the quantitative data were less conclusive in this regard.

As reported previously, the quantitative data related to OILE relied on descriptive statistics, and the qualitative data considered each case individually. The within-case analysis of the qualitative data was useful in identifying the high users of OILE. Furthermore, because the students were asked to report freely on their OILE activities during the interview, the data



in the qualitative findings enriched and expanded the understanding of the OILE habits within this sample, and a detailed table was created to capture students' OILE habits based on both quantitative and qualitative findings (see Table 6-9 , section 5.6.1). Thus, I would argue that the mixed-methods approach efficiently captured students' OILE habits, and although the majority of OILE studies discussed in the literature relied on a quantitative approach, this study relied on both methods; I discuss the benefits resulting from employing mixed-methods in this study in Section 6.9.

As reported in Section 6.6.2.2, social media use was among the common activities reported in the qualitative data, and as previously reported in the Context Chapter (section 2.6), social media forms a substantial part of Saudi daily life (CITC, 2017). In addition, the qualitative data indicated that the students seemed to watch YouTube videos, and a large number of the students reported watching TV. Although TV is not an online activity and is beyond the scope of this study, these findings are aligned with what was found by Jurkovič (2019), Sockett (2011), and Trinder (2017). This was followed by voice chatting using a very popular app called *Cambly*. In fact, this app has been advertised widely in Saudi Arabia and is based on chatting with English native speakers to improve users' communication English skills. It is not surprising that students reported using this application as the ads for this app have been ubiquitous. Moreover, a few students reported surfing the Internet in English, asserting that this enabled them to find more resources on, for example, fitness topics because there is scarcity of Arabic contents on such topics available online. Following this are online games and instant text messages. In addition, only few students reported listening to English music, while most students reported that they did not listen to English music online; this was surprising, as Ekşi and Aydin (2013) found listening to English music to be among the top-rated informal English activities. Furthermore, the students did not tend to engage in any activities that require a high proficiency in English, such as reading online articles or writing long texts in English. This is

in line with what was found in Alshabeb and Almaqrn (2018). In short, the qualitative findings provided a rich explanation of OILE activities that learners engage with, and the data identified some high OILE users. In the following section, I explore the different natures of OILE experiences that learners experience while engaging with online informal English learning activities.

### **6.6.2.3 Nature of Students' OILE Experiences**

The quantitative findings presented the means for each of the different OILE experiences, and the within-subjects one-way ANOVA tests revealed that statistically significant differences exist among the means of the three different natures of OILE experiences as follows: OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English ( $M = 3.68$ ,  $SD = .85$ ), followed by peers'/teachers' influence on OILE use ( $M = 3.45$ ,  $SD = .89$ ), and then OILE to socialise ( $M = 3.31$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ). The qualitative data, as presented below, provided a broader understanding of the nature of these OILE experiences. Additionally, this study suggests a specific model for various OILE experiences based on the findings of this study and based on the existing literature. As highlighted in the literature related to the OILE framework, the existing literature has only provided a framework related to learners' experiences of technology usage outside the classroom; thus, there is a need for a specific framework for different OILE experiences (see section 3.4.8). In the next section, I discuss each of the different OILE experiences investigated in this study, noting that the line between some of them is blurred. As Lai et al. (2018) and Trinder (2017) highlighted, learners may engage in one, none, or all of the different OILE experiences. It is of note that Lamb and Arisandy (2019) relied on the mean values of the scales to determine the ranking of different OILE experiences amongst Indonesian students, and they suggested that entertainment-oriented OILE experience and self-instruction OILE scales are more popular than OILE to socialise. The result of a one-way repeated-measures ANOVA

(within-subjects ANOVA) suggested similar findings, namely that OILE for engagement/improvement of English is more popular than OILE to socialise. However, relying on mean values could obscure the complexity of understanding the nature of OILE experiences, and the qualitative data enriched the understanding of different natures of OILE experiences. It is pertinent to note that the scales used in this study are not similar to those in Lamb and Arisandy (2019), as they integrated OILE experiences and frequency under one scale, stipulating that learners do certain activities mainly for socialising. For example, the statement '*I make videos in English using Snapchat*' was categorised under the OILE to socialise (p.23). While their design is based on the literature and has certain merits, it is difficult to determine whether this activity was solely aimed at socialising as students may be posting English videos on social media platforms because they enjoy English, socialising via English, or both. Thus, I would argue that it is important to differentiate between learners' frequency of OILE habits and the nature of experiences that govern OILE activities, as a single OILE activity may be directed by several natures of OILE experiences; this study has accomplished this, with factor analysis confirming that the scale of the frequency of OILE is distinct from the scales related to the different OILE experiences. Thus, in the following sections, I present a thorough discussion on each category based on both the qualitative and quantitative findings, and I conclude by proposing a specific model for different natures/types of OILE experiences.

#### 6.6.2.3.1 *OILE for Enjoyment/Improvement of English Language Skills*

Originally, before conducting the factor analysis, there were two scales proposed in this study. One was related to seeking meaningful informal learning (e.g., *I listen to English songs online to improve my English*), and the other one was related to enjoyment of English online (e.g., *I feel excited when I use English online*); the two scales were loading together (see section 5.2). The fact that these two scales are loading together is an interesting finding and supports

Trinder's (2017) suggestion that the line between intentional and incidental learning is blurred. Furthermore, Toffoli and Sockett (2015), Sockett (2013), and Trinder (2017) suggested that learners mostly engage in OILE without any intention of learning and that learning is only a by-product of enjoying the engagement with OILE. Thus, the finding that the two scales load together suggests that learners are engaging in OILE to improve their language and because they enjoy using English online, and the line between the two is very blurred. It should also be noted that the scale of "OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English" had high reliability (i.e., Cronbach's alpha value = .84). The qualitative data support this finding, reiterating what one of the students said about her informal learning experience and how she improved her accent through watching movies and how enjoyable the experience was: "I have never travelled abroad. I improved my accent from the media, particularly from watching movies. I really enjoy watching American movies . . ." (Interviewee 13). In addition, the mean value of the scale was ( $M = 3.68$ ); as this OILE field is still under development, there is no established benchmark in the literature, nor are there any studies with a scale that integrates enjoyment and improvement. Hence, I cannot make any assumptions about the level of students' engagement with OILE for enjoyment and the improvement of their English language. Nonetheless, as mentioned previously, Lamb and Arisandy (2019) relied on the mean values of the scales to determine the ranking of different OILE experiences among Indonesian students and suggested that entertainment-oriented OILE experience scale and self-instruction OILE-oriented experience are more popular than OILE to socialise. If I rely on the mean values, then the one-way repeated measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) suggests that the scale of OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language skills is higher than the rest of the variables related to the natures of OILE experiences. It is pertinent to note that this study only aimed to identify the different natures of OILE experiences that learners engage with, and further studies could assess which nature of OILE experiences is more popular as this is not a primary aim of this

study. The literature, therefore, suggests that one of the main factors behind students engaging with English online is that they enjoy doing so (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Sockett, 2013; Tan et al., 2010). The study's quantitative findings support this. In addition, the qualitative data suggest that the enjoyment of English online and seeking meaningful learning activities were highly reported experiences and were associated even with high OILE use; I discuss the relationship between the varying OILE experiences and OILE frequency in Section 6.7.2.3.

#### 6.6.2.3.2 *Influence of Peers/Teachers on Students' OILE Use*

The quantitative findings indicated that the mean value of the scale of the 'influence of peers'/teachers' on OILE use' was significantly lower than OILE for enjoyment and improving of the English language skills and significantly higher than OILE to socialise. In addition, the qualitative and quantitative data suggest that both teachers and peers influenced learners' engagement with OILE, which supports the findings by Ekşi and Aydin (2013) and Lai et al. (2015). However, the qualitative data suggest that peers exerted more influence on students' OILE use than teachers. This supports the findings of Mahdi and El-Naim (2012) who observed that Saudi university students do not want teachers to be part of their social media practice using English. Nevertheless, Lai et al. (2018) and Lamb and Arisandy (2019) found that teachers had a higher level of influence on students' experiences of using technology outside the classroom compared with their peers. It should be noted that both studies focused on out-of-classroom learning; Lamb and Arisandy (2019) indicated that their use of OILE terminology was assumed to encompass various technologies and non-online activities, and both studies (i.e., Lai et al., 2018 and Lamb & Arisandy, 2019) included the concept of intentional informal learning for self-instruction. Thus, the teachers' role could be part of this, considering that they assumed an aspect of purposeful learning when online as part of out-of-the-classroom language learning. However, in this study, I argued that OILE is mainly unintentional; thus, intentional learning is

rarely a motive within the OILE context, although desire to improve English is definitely a motive. I would also like to adopt Ushioda's (2013) convention that too much direction from teachers in informal learning can hinder the development of students' agency or autonomy. However, this does not mean that the teacher's role is not important. On the contrary, one of the main aims of this study is to assess students' current level of OILE use, and how it relates to their motivation and their global outlook (i.e., International Posture). Answering this would provide an insight for educational stakeholders and teachers on how to bridge any existing gaps between students' practice in an informal learning environment and the traditional classroom environment. In fact, Lee and Dressman (2018) and Lyriqkou (2019) called for establishing a connection between learners' OILE use and their classroom practice, as formal and informal learning should complement each other. In addition, teachers' role is particularly essential as they lead the classroom and should, thus, not lag behind their students in terms of OILE use and its potential benefits, as discussed in the implications section of this study.

#### 6.6.2.3.3 *OILE to Socialise*

Initially, the OILE to socialise scale was designed with three items, but after conducting the factor analysis, I deleted one of the items because of its low loading, and as justified in Section 5.2, this was found to be acceptable by several statisticians. Although the scale had relatively low reliability because of its shortness (i.e., two items with a Cronbach's alpha value = .65), the means inter-item correlations were within the range of recommended values (see section 5.4). Further studies can introduce more items to improve the reliability of the scale. The one-way repeated-measures ANOVA (within-subjects ANOVA) for this scale indicated that the OILE to socialise ( $M = 3.31$ ) has the lowest mean among the other natures of OILE experiences; this is in line with Lamb and Arisandy (2019) who confirmed that OILE to socialise was the lowest among the OILE scales in their study. As discussed previously, relying on mean values

to determine the ranking of the variable may obscure the complexity of the different natures of OILE experiences. The qualitative data provided significant information about this aspect of OILE experience as learners seemed to engage with English online to socialise. However, some students were, to some extent, hesitant to socialise online in English because this was against their cultural values as their parents wanted them to uphold Saudi cultural values. This is in line with Alsaied's (2017) findings within the Saudi context that cultural ideology inhibited Saudi female university students from using social media for socialising. I must note that, while this is an identified theme in this study, it is not dominating the scenario within the findings of this study. In fact, the literature suggests that students from various contexts avoid socialising online to some degree, e.g., studies in Austria (Trinder, 2017, 2016), China (Lai & Gu, 2011; Lai et al., 2018), and Indonesia (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). Thus, it may be inaccurate to justify students' avoidance of socialising online based solely on cultural aspects as this is merely one reason and students from various contexts are clearly avoiding online socialising because they feel that it is risky or inauthentic. Finally, it is important to note that the results reported in this section were obtained from the students while they were discussing their online friendships as part of their IP, which is why I have coded these in the qualitative chapter under negative IP. Clearly, learners' desire to socialise online overlaps with the concept of IP or the desire to open to others who are different and make international friendships, as discussed later in Section 6.7.2.2.1.

#### ***6.6.2.4 Further OILE Experiences That Emerged from the Qualitative Data***

While the qualitative data clarified and further explained the main constructs investigated in the quantitative data, additional themes emerged from the qualitative data that helped to form a better picture of the nature of OILE experiences. In the upcoming section, I discuss these emerging themes.

#### 6.6.2.4.1 *OILE to Boost L2 Self-Confidence*

Few students (three students) indicated that practising English online could lead to greater fluency and eventually affect their linguistic self-confidence. They particularly stated that, in real life, they have little chance to practise their English language skills, so students expressed that if they wanted to increase their self-confidence, they had to seek more OILE opportunities to boost their self-perception of their English competence. It is also worth highlighting that, in the open-ended questions in the questionnaire, four students pointed out that they avoided using English online because they did not want to embarrass themselves, which clearly indicates that not all students view OILE as a chance to improve their self-confidence.

In fact, Lamb and Arisandy (2019) revealed a slightly different finding among Indonesian learners as some of them expressed that they did not want to participate in social communication online because they did not want to lose face, and they did not view OILE as a chance to improve their linguistic confidence. The differences between the students' perceptions in the two samples may result from cultural differences. In fact, as a Saudi citizen, I have noticed that most females use fictitious names on social media platforms and rarely use their real photos online. Thus, their identities are always hidden which may give them the freedom to use online platforms to improve and practise their English, and even if they make mistakes, they will not actually lose face as nobody will recognise their identity. However, this speculation is based on my experience in this context and Al-Salem (2005) has confirmed that several Saudi females hide behind anonymous profiles and that their use of the Internet enhanced their self-image as they can express their ideas freely. This, of course, cannot be generalised to the entire population and further studies are needed in this area.

As mentioned previously, some learners in this study avoided OILE completely to save face. Hence, further research is needed to address learners' linguistic self-confidence and their



informal engagement in English, especially considering that Yashima (2013) confirmed the impact of linguistic confidence on learners' WTC (see section 3.3.2). The question is, to what extent is this true in a virtual environment such as OILE? In fact, a recent publication by Henry and Lamb (2020) highlighted how learners' engagement with technologies is associated with linguistic confidence. This is a very interesting association that supports the findings of the present study, and although students were not really aware of what exactly linguistic confidence means, they clearly expressed their desire to develop their confidence in their language abilities by engaging in OILE. Again, I cannot confirm directionality here as this theme only emerged from a few cases in the qualitative data. Thus, while learners clearly indicated that their desire to boost their self-confidence led them to engage more in OILE, further studies are needed to confirm this, perhaps through both quantitative and qualitative methods.

#### 6.6.2.4.2 *OILE Due to the Admiration of Online Content in English*

The findings of this study showed a new theme related to OILE experiences as three participants indicated that what really influenced their OILE experiences was the rich online content in English, in comparison to the Arabic content on several topics. According to the students, there are certain online subjects that are richer in English than in Arabic, such as beauty videos or fitness videos. Furthermore, the students indicated not only that they admired English language content but also that the plots of American movies were very attractive, which is why they preferred to watch movies in English. Thus, I would deduce that because of the popularity of American dramas and shows, students felt attracted to them and engaged more in English informal learning out of admiration for English language products. This supports Lamb's (2004) findings that TV, movies, and pop music motivate Indonesian adolescent learners to engage with English outside the classroom.

#### 6.6.2.4.3 *Perceived Benefits of OILE Use*

While OILE is mainly based on the idea of unintentionality and language learning is assumed to be a by-product of engaging with English online (Sockett, 2013; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010), some interviewees seemed to be aware of the potential benefits of OILE, as shown in Section 6.6.1.3. The students believed that their listening skills had improved as a result of their engagement with OILE. This supports the findings of Al-Sofi (2016) and contradicts Toffoli and Sockett's (2010) argument that learners are mostly unaware of OILE's potentials. However, García Botero et al. (2018) suggested that students' beliefs about the benefits of informal online use do not really reflect actual practice. The qualitative data could not suggest whether the learners who value the benefits of OILE engage more with it. Further studies can be conducted to assess whether students' beliefs about the benefits of OILE reflect their actual practice. It should be noted that this cannot be viewed as a distinct type of OILE experience. However, it is discussed here for the sake of coherence as this was a theme that was identified from the qualitative data when discussing different OILE experiences and perceived benefits could be associated closely with the desire to improve English via OILE, which is a type of OILE experience.

#### ***6.6.2.5 Towards Building a Framework Specified for OILE***

As discussed in the literature, there is no specific framework in the literature related to OILE experiences mainly because the body of literature on OILE is still growing. Hence, this study began with a theoretical framework focusing on technology use for language learning, other than English, outside the classroom (Lai et al., 2018; see section 3.4.8). Lai et al. (2018) proposed a model for the out-of-classroom use of technology for language learning other than English based on three types of experiences, which are information and entertainment-oriented technological experience, social-oriented technological experience, and instruction-oriented technological experience. As I argued in the literature review, these types of experiences focus more on informal purposeful learning, which quietly contradicts the views of Sockett (2013) and Toffoli and Sockett (2010). These authors defined OILE as purely spontaneous learning in which learners enjoy engaging in English for leisure and that may positively impact learners' proficiency, as learners are primarily engaging to improve and practise their language rather than to consciously learn the language and that unintentionality is not a clear cut (see section 3.4.1.1). As mentioned in this study, the students were mostly engaging unintentionally, but they showed some awareness of OILE's potential benefits, whereby their aim was to practise and improve their language and not to learn the language in a structured formal way. Thus, the model proposed by Lai et al. (2018) does not fit the concept of OILE very well, and there is a need for a model that is specific to OILE, as suggested in the present study.

The qualitative and quantitative instruments (questionnaires and semi-structured interviews) were designed based on the previous literature, and the findings of the study confirmed the findings of the extant literature and expanded the understanding of the nature of OILE experiences. Below, I present a model that is based on the findings from this study and the existing literature.

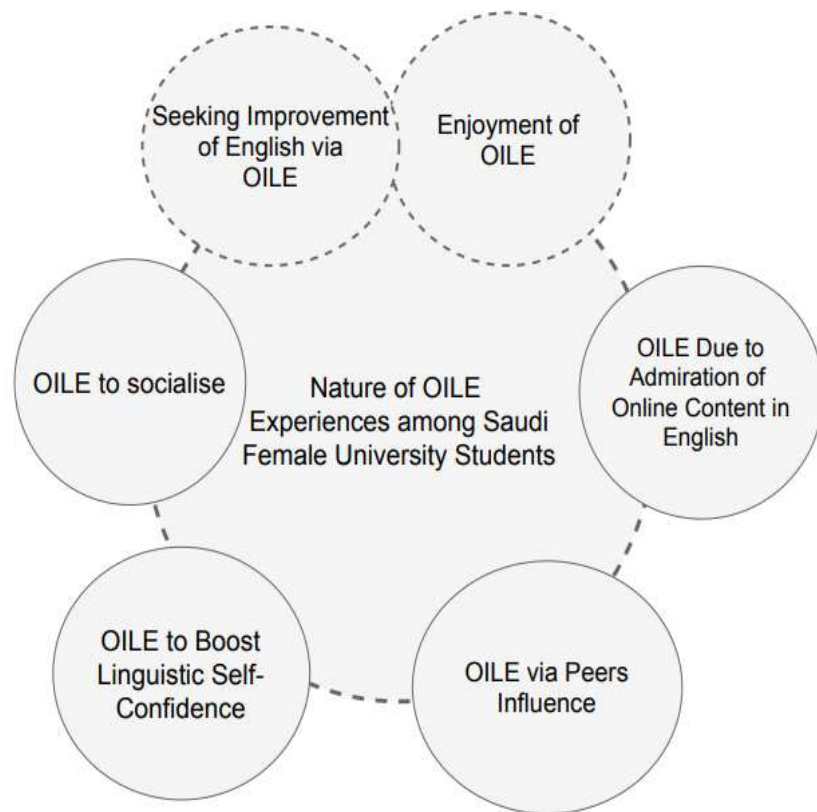


Figure 6-3: Different natures/types of OILE experiences

Note: The dashed line refers to the strong links between these different natures of OILE experiences.

As shown in Figure 6-3 above, the learners within the context of this study had diverse OILE experiences. The different types of OILE experiences can be divided into reasons to engage with OILE, which are as follows: OILE to socialise, the enjoyment of OILE, and seeking online meaningful learning via OILE. The rest can be considered as reinforcers that will increase the likelihood of engaging with OILE; these include peers' influence on OILE use, OILE to boost self-confidence, and OILE use because of admiration of online content in English. Moreover, as highlighted in the Literature Chapter, Lai et al. (2018) asserted that focusing only on categorising the different out-of-classroom activities with which learners engage can be misleading. Using learners' out-of-class experiences may provide a more productive angle for understanding learners' out-of-class use of the language (OILE in this study). Furthermore, as

pointed out in the literature review, learners' OILE experiences are not expected to be separable, and learners may be experiencing all, none, or some of the identified OILE experiences (the dashed line in Figure 6-3 between all the proposed natures of OILE experiences represents the connection between them). Similarly, a single OILE activity can be governed by various OILE experiences; for example, learners may listen to English songs because they enjoy doing so as well as because they aim to improve their English proficiency by intentionally paying attention to song lyrics (Lai, 2015b; Lai et al., 2018; Trinder, 2016).

In short, the model developed for OILE experiences from this study suggests that learners' OILE experiences are governed by six types of experiences, whereby two of them are substantially overlapped, namely the enjoyment of OILE and seeking online informal learning (the dashed line for the circles related to these variables in Figure 6-3 represents this strong overlap). Future studies in OILE should investigate this further, or researchers could just consider limiting the focus of OILE studies to unintentionality and how language learning is merely a by-product of the engagement process, as suggested by Sockett (2014) and Toffoli and Sockett (2010). Furthermore, peers' influence seems to play a role in OILE use, while teachers seem to have a limited impact on students' OILE experiences in this context, as suggested by the qualitative data. Thus, I suggest limiting the focus of this variable to peers' influence, as discussed above, because OILE use is a very private experience (Kusyk & Sockett, 2012; Sockett, 2013), and teachers may play only a minor or no role in this. However, I would argue that teachers should be aware of students' use of English in their private time to avoid forming a disjuncture between what teachers offer and how learners operate in their daily lives. Furthermore, teachers might be required to change their teaching methods to be able to accommodate students' expectations and their real practice of English in their online use. Then, OILE to socialise was not very prominent in this sample, nor among different studies (Lai et al., 2018; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Trinder, 2016). As discussed previously, there were two groups

of learners within the sample of the study. These included the open and enthusiastic group, who were willing to socialise online and some of whom had plenty of experience of online socialising using English, and the conservative group, who hesitated because of concerns related to cybersecurity fears or cultural restrictions. Further studies should look into developing a longer scale for OILE to socialise and examine ways of promoting online socialisation using English as, according to Thorne et al. (2009), the intensive use of online socialisation has positive impact on developing sophisticated English communication among users. Finally, two different natures of experiences emerged from the qualitative data, meriting future studies to investigate them. One was the use of OILE to boost linguistic confidence, as learners felt that they were not confident about their English level and could improve their confidence by engaging in English activities online, and Henry and Lamb (2020) confirmed that learners' engagement with OILE had a positive impact on their linguistic confidence. The other was admiring online content in English which shows how learners' admiration for English content led to more engagement, as has been discussed above. This model is an original contribution to knowledge related to the novel OILE field, and as discussed in the Literature Review Chapter (section 3.4.7), the model is partly based on the literature related to previous technology's use for language learning other than English. Future studies could investigate this model further to expand or deduct from it, if needed, as there is a scarcity of literature discussing the nature of learners' OILE experiences, and research in the field of OILE needs to move beyond OILE habits to provide a richer understanding of learners' OILE use, as argued in the literature review (see section 3.4.8). In the following sections, I assess how OILE habits as an outcome relate to learners' motivation, IP, and their OILE experiences.

## **6.7 Fifth Research Question of this Study**

RQ 5-How do students' self-reported habits of OILE relate to their:

- a- Motivation (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to self, and L2 learning experience)
- b- International Posture
- c- OILE experiences

### **6.7.1 Findings**

One of the main aims of this study is to determine the relationship between the L2 Motivational Self System components (i.e., Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience) and International Posture and to identify the relationship between all of these variables and the frequency of OILE. In addition, this study aims to explore how the frequency of OILE relates to the types of OILE experiences (OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language, OILE to socialise, or the influence of peers/teachers on students' use of OILE). In the next section, I present the findings for this question by first presenting the quantitative findings and then integrating the qualitative and quantitative findings to clearly indicate how the qualitative data support the quantitative data. Next, I present a discussion on the relationships between these variables (i.e., motivation and OILE habit, IP and OILE habits then OILE experiences and OILE habits).

#### ***6.7.1.1 Quantitative Findings***

In order to answer this research question, a series of bivariate correlation analyses are presented, and to understand the strength of the correlation between two sets of correlations, Fisher's Z transformation was employed. Furthermore, to understand if any of the variables predicted OILE use, a multiple regression analysis was conducted based on OILE frequency as an outcome.

#### 6.7.1.1.1 *Correlations and Fisher's Z Analyses*

To assess the relationships between OILE frequency and motivation, IP, and OILE frequency as well as nature of OILE experiences and OILE frequency, a series of bivariate Pearson's correlation coefficients ( $r$ ) were calculated between all of the eight variables in this study (see Table 6-11). Prior to conducting the correlation, the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity were assessed. To examine linearity and homoscedasticity a scatter plot for each potentially correlated variable was generated and the scatter plots were visually inspected. The scatter plots indicated that the relationship between variables is to some extent linear and homoscedastic. Furthermore, I acknowledge the fact that multiple tests on the same data may increase the possibility of a Type-I error which occurs when the researchers believe there is an effect in the population while in reality there is no effect (Field, 2005, p. 31). Thus, I applied a Bonferroni correction, which is one of the most common ways to reduce the risk of a Type-I error, and it can be conducted by dividing the alpha value (normally .05) by the number of analyses of the dependent variable (Pallant, 2016, p. 294). To correct for multiple tests, the Bonferroni corrections were applied based on the highest number of analyses of the dependent variable (i.e.,  $0.05/7 = .007$ ). Furthermore, the degrees of freedom (i.e., the sample size - 2) for each correlation were reported. In order to categorise the strength of the  $r$  coefficient, I followed the guidelines of Cohen (1988, p.79) who suggested that the strength of the correlation can be further assessed, as follows:

$r = .50$  to  $1.0$  can be considered as large

$r = .30$  to  $.49$  can be considered as medium

$r = .10$  to  $.29$  can be considered as weak



Table 6-11: Correlations of all the scales

Scales	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1-Ideal L2 self	-							
2-Ought-to L2 self	.109	-						
3-L2 learning experience	.526*	.270*	-					
4-International Posture	.237*	.199*	.273*	-				
5-OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English Language	.403*	.192*	.554*	.318*	-			
6- OILE to socialise	.289*	.171*	.335*	.334*	.541*	-		
7- OILE via peers'/teachers' influence	.143*	.259*	.351*	.329	.488*	.489*	-	
8-Frequency of OILE	.356*	.140*	.347*	.331*	.434*	.454*	.358*	-

\* This indicates significant correlation, and the Bonferroni adjustment set the level of significance at  $p < .007$

In terms of the relationship between OILE frequency with L2MSS components and IP. The findings indicated that students' OILE use correlated positively with all the L2 Motivational Self System components (i.e., Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience) as well as with students' International Posture. The correlation between the Ideal L2 self and learner's frequency of OILE,  $r(453) = .356, p < .007$  as well as the correlation between the frequency of OILE with L2 learning experience,  $r(453) = .347, p < .007$  and frequency of OILE with IP  $r(453) = .331, p < .007$  were positive and moderate. However, Ought-to L2 self had a positive and weak correlation with students' frequency of OILE use,  $r(453) = .140, p < .007$ .

To further understand the relationship between OILE frequency with L2MSS components and IP, Fisher's Z transformation was conducted. The result of this study suggests that both Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience correlates moderately with OILE frequency. In order to understand the differences between these correlations—that is, frequency of OILE

and Ideal L2 self against the frequency of OILE and L2 learning experience—the three  $r$  coefficients shown in figure 6-4 below (i.e.,  $r^1 = .356$ ,  $r^2 = .347$ ,  $r^3 = .526$ ) were entered into the online calculator (Psychometrica Website, see Lenhard & Lenhard, 2014) along with the number of the sample size and the result was  $Z = .214$ ,  $p = .415$ . This indicates a non-significant difference between the comparisons of frequency of OILE and Ideal L2 self against the frequency of OILE and L2 learning experience. It is of note that Ought-to L2 self was excluded from this analysis because it had a weak correlation with the frequency of OILE; additionally, the correlation of Ideal L2 self with Ought-to L2 self was not statistically significant.

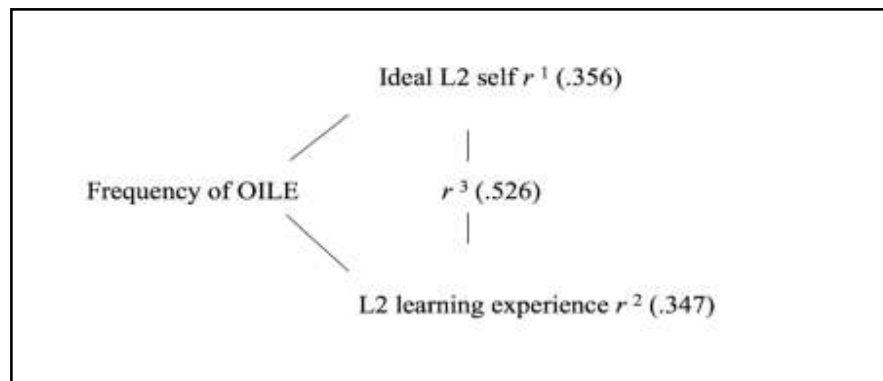


Figure 6-4: Comparing the correlations of OILE with L2MSS components

Additionally, both Ideal L2 self and IP correlate positively with OILE frequency. To understand the significance of the differences between the two correlations, I used the same analytical process reported above based on the three  $r$  coefficients shown in figure 6-5 below to compare between these two correlations, resulting in  $Z = .47$ ,  $p = .319$ . This indicates that the differences between these two correlations are not statistically significant.

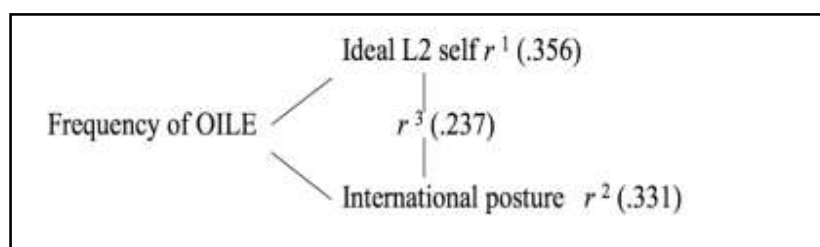


Figure 6-5: Comparing the correlations of OILE with Ideal L2 self and IP

In terms of the relationship between OILE experiences with L2MSS and IP which is not directly motivated by any research question, the correlation matrix above showed several interesting findings. Hence, I report all the correlations between OILE experiences with L2MSS and IP in this paragraph, and I discuss the most interesting relationships in the Discussion Chapter Section 6.7.2. The scale of ‘OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language skills’ correlated positively with all the components of L2MSS and IP. The correlation between the scale of ‘OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language’ and L2 learning experience was strong  $r(453) = .554, p < .007$ , indicating that learners who engage in OILE because they seek meaningful learning and enjoy that experience find the L2 Learning experience positive and interesting. Of course, causation cannot be assumed as the relation could be the other way around, but the strong association is interesting and is further discussed in Section 6.7.2.1. However, the strength of the correlation between the scale of ‘OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language’ with the Ideal L2 self,  $r(453) = .403, p < .007$  and with IP  $r(453) = .318, p < .007$  were moderate, and as expected, the correlation between Ought-to L2 self and the scale of ‘enjoyment and informal learning oriented OILE experience’ was weak  $r(453) = .192, p < .007$ . This is because learners who are motivated by Ought-to L2 self are unlikely to enjoy the OILE experiences. The scale of ‘OILE to socialise’ correlated positively with all the components of the L2 Motivational Self System. The correlation was weak with Ideal L2 self,

$r(453) = .289, p < .007$  as well as with Ought self,  $r(453) = .171, p < .007$ . Interestingly, International Posture correlated positively with 'OILE to socialise scale' and the strength of the correlation is considered moderate,  $r(453) = .334, p < .007$ . Furthermore, the scale of 'OILE to socialise' correlated positively and moderately with L2 learning experiences,  $r(453) = .335, p < .007$ . The scale of peers'/teachers' influence on students' OILE use correlated positively and significantly with all the components of the L2 Motivational Self System as well as with IP. The strength of correlation between the influence of peers/teachers on learners' OILE use and Ideal L2 self,  $r(453) = .143, p < .007$ , as well as Ought-to L2 self,  $r(453) = .259, p < .007$ , were weak. The correlation between peers'/teachers' influence on students' OILE use and L2 learning experience was moderate,  $r(453) = .351, p < .007$ . Furthermore, IP correlated positively and moderately with the scale of influence of peers/teachers on student' OILE use,  $r(453) = .329, p < .007$ .

Regarding the relationship between OILE frequency and the different nature of OILE experiences, the scale of frequency of OILE correlates positively and moderately with all the three scales which describes the natures of OILE experiences (i.e., OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language, OILE to socialise, and peers'/teachers' influence on OILE use). The correlation between frequency of OILE and OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language was positive but moderate,  $r(453) = .434, p < .007$ . Similarly, the strength of the correlation between frequency of OILE and the scale of OILE to socialise,  $r(453) = .454, p < .007$ , as well as the scale of peers' and teachers' influence on students' OILE use,  $r(453) = .358, p < .007$ , were positive and moderate.

Fisher's Z transformation was also carried out to compare OILE frequency with different OILE experiences (i.e., frequency of OILE vs. OILE for enjoyment and improvement of English language, OILE to socialise, and peers'/teachers' influence on students' OILE use). Table 6-12 below presents the sets of comparisons of interest along with the results and the significance of each comparison.

Table 6-12: The results of the comparisons between the correlations of the frequency of OILE with OILE experiences

Comparisons between two correlations	Results of the comparisons using Fisher's Z
Frequency of OILE 	$Z = -.51, p = .305$
Frequency of OILE 	$Z = 1.784, p = .037$
Frequency of OILE 	$Z = 2.271, p = .012$

\*Significance of alpha value is set at ( $p < .007$ )

As shown in the table above (Table 6-12), none of the comparisons between the two correlations were statistically significant. In fact, this type of analysis (i.e., Fisher's Z transformations) is not a common approach in previous related studies, and the results of the majority of the comparisons showed non-significant differences between the correlations. Hence, no conclusion could be drawn about the extent of the differences between two correlations. To further understand the relationship—more specifically, to understand the 'predictive power' of the OILE frequency—multiple regression analysis was conducted (Field, 2005, p.144). The rationale for conducting multiple regression analysis is that this test “enables the researcher to see exactly the predicted effects of a particular independent variable on a dependent variable, when other independent variables are also present” (Cohen et al., 2011, p.664). Furthermore, Allen et al. (2014) and Field (2005) highlighted that multiple regression is a powerful test to explain the relationship between a dependent variable and one or more independent variables. Thus, this type of analysis is helpful in revealing the interrelationship of many variables and evaluates the joint effect of these variables on the outcome of interest (i.e., OILE). In the next section, I discuss the different types of multiple regression analysis and then present the result of a stepwise multiple regression analysis.

#### 6.7.1.1.2 *A Multiple Regression Analysis*

A multiple regression analysis was also conducted to explore the relationship between one dependent variable and “a number of independent variables or predictors (usually continuous)” (Pallant, 2016, p.154). There are three types of multiple regressions. The first one is hierarchical multiple regression where predictors are entered in an order based on past work. The second one is standard multiple regression which is a theory-driven model where predictors are chosen and force-entered simultaneously. The third type is a stepwise method that is based on a statistical criterion as the researcher does not choose the order, and it is useful in exploratory

research; there are also several types of stepwise multiple regression: forward, backward, or stepwise. For the forward method, the model is defined based on a constant; then, the computer enters the best predictors based on its correlation with the outcome. If the predictor improves the model, it is included and then the computer searches for other predictors. The stepwise approach is the same as the forward one, except that each time a predictor is added, the computer assesses whether any predictors can be removed to improve the model, whereas for the backward method, all the variables are entered in the model and the inefficient predictors are removed (Pallant, 2016; Field, 2005). Field (2005) suggested that stepwise should be only used in exploratory research, which is the case in the present study, and he advised that the backward method is the preferable approach among stepwise regression; “this is because of suppressor effects, which occur when a predictor has a significant effect but only when another variable is held constant” (p.161). Field (2005) further explains that forward selections are more likely than backward eliminations to exclude predictors that might lead to Type II errors, which occurs when we assume that there is no effect in the population, while in the real world there is one. In this study, backward stepwise multiple regression will be used to answer the fifth research question, which is exploratory in nature.  $R^2$  is usually considered an adequate measure of the effect size for multiple regression. Nevertheless, Allen et al. (2014) suggested calculating the effect size for  $R^2$  to increase the robustness of the result. Cohen’s effect size for  $R^2$  can be calculated using the following equation (Allen et al., 2014):

$$f^2 = \frac{R^2}{1 - R^2}$$

According to Cohen (1988, pp.477– 478), the effect size for  $f^2$  can be determined based on the following classification:

Table 6-13: The effect size for  $f^2$

$f^2$	<i>Effect size</i>
.02	Small
.15	Medium
.35	Large

As stated previously, a major aim of this study is to understand how the components of the L2 Motivational Self System (i.e., Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience), International Posture, and learners’ OILE experiences (i.e., OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language, OILE to socialise, and OILE via peers’/teachers’ influence) predict learner’s frequency of OILE use. The stepwise regression analysis included all seven independent variables mentioned above and the dependent variable is the frequency of OILE use. Before interpreting the multiple regression analysis model, a number of assumptions were tested and checks were performed. First, inspection of the scatterplot of standardised residuals compared with the standardised predicted values indicated that the assumption of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of residuals was satisfied (see the P-P Plot in Appendix K). Second, the Mahalanobis distance was within an acceptable range. Finally, the value of ‘Tolerance’ and ‘VIF’ for each scale indicated that there was no multicollinearity among the scales used for the selected model. The table below (Table 6-14) provides the result of the multiple regression model.



Table 6-14: Regression analysis based on learners' frequency of OILE as an outcome

Variable	Final model			
	<i>B</i>	SE B	Beta	<i>Sr</i> <sup>2</sup>
Constant	-1.18	.27		
Ideal L2 self	.27	.07	.18*	.03
OILE to socialise	.23	.05	.23*	.03
OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language	.17	.06	.14*	.01
International Posture	.15	.05	.13*	.01
OILE via peers'/teachers' influence	.12	.06	.11*	.01
$R^2$		.31		
Adjusted $R^2$		.30		
F for change in $R^2$		1.35		

$\hat{R}^2$  in model 2= .00,  $\hat{R}^2$  in model 3= -.002 \* $P < .05$

This final model consists of five variables (i.e., Ideal L2 self, OILE to socialise, OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language, IP, and OILE via peers'/teachers' influence). Together, these predictors explain 30.4% of the variance in learner's frequency of OILE,  $R^2 = .31$ ,  $F(5,449) = 40.69$ ,  $p = .00$ . As seen in the table above (Table 6-14), Ideal L2 self contributes to OILE and uniquely explains 3% of the variance in the frequency of OILE. In other words,  $R^2$  would decrease by 3% if the Ideal L2 self were removed from the model. Similarly, the scale of OILE to socialise contributes to the frequency of OILE and explains a similar amount of variance (3%) in OILE frequency. Three other variables contribute equally to the model (IP, OILE via peers'/teachers' influence, and OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language) by explaining only 1% of the variance. The effect size of this multiple regression was calculated manually as  $f^2 (.31/1-.31) = .45$ . According to Cohen (1988), this is considered a large effect size.

### ***6.7.1.2 Integrating the Qualitative and Quantitative Data***

In this section, I clearly demonstrate how the qualitative data support the quantitative findings. As shown in the quantitative results section 6.7.1.1 above, the frequency of OILE use scale correlates moderately and positively with IP, Ideal L2 self, and L2 learning experience. Furthermore, regression analysis indicated that five variables contribute to the frequency of OILE use, namely Ideal L2 self, OILE to socialise, OILE for enjoyment and improvement of English language, IP, and peers'/teachers' influence on students' OILE use. In this section, I report the patterns found in the qualitative data to support the understanding of the quantitative findings. In order to facilitate the process of identifying patterns from the qualitative data, students' exact words regarding their frequency of OILE use, such as "50% of my use is in English", and the frequency of qualitative codes were used as a guide to identify patterns. This was done in conjunction with the classification of the frequency of OILE use in the quantitative data (high OILE users, moderate OILE users, and low OILE users). It is pertinent to point out that there is no distinct benchmark for classifying OILE users in this section; therefore, when it is stated that someone is a high user, it is based on the evaluation of several forms of data, namely interview minutes, frequency of qualitative codes, and learners' OILE profiles obtained from the quantitative data. However, I acknowledge that this evaluation must be interpreted with caution, and hence, I attach the word 'relatively' to the adjective 'high' to indicate that this is not an absolute value but rather an estimation of OILE use.

To integrate the quantitative and qualitative data, the following information was entered into an Excel spreadsheet: (a) from quantitative data: the level of L2MSS components, IP, and the frequency of OILE based on the quantitative results; (b) from the qualitative data, the frequency and magnitude of coding for all the variables of L2MSS components, IP, and frequency of OILE. Then, colours were used to differentiate between the patterns, as shown in figure 6-6 below: (see also Appendix H: Screenshot of the Excel sheet).

Patterns	participant numbers	Profile			L2 learning experience	ideal self			ought to self			IP			L2 learning experience			Quant OILE	
		High	High	High		H	L	L	H	L	L	H	L	L	H	L	L		
High L2 ideal	Interviewee 12	High	High	High	neutral	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	neutral
	Interviewee 1	High	High	High	neutral	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	neutral
	Interviewee 11	High	High	High	high	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	low
strong ought	Interviewee 12	High	High	High	high	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	low
	Interviewee 1	High	Neutral	High	high	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	neutral
High IP	Interviewee 1	High	High	High	high	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	low
	Interviewee 2	High	High	High	low	4	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	neutral
neutral ideal	Interviewee 13	Neutral	Low	Low	low	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	low
	Interviewee 13	Neutral	High	Neutral	high	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	neutral
Neutral/Ought to self	Interviewee 1	High	Neutral	Low	neutral	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	neutral
	Interviewee 12	High	Neutral	Low	high	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	low

Figure 6-6: Screenshot for the tabulation of qualitative and quantitative data

It should be noted that the aim of using the frequency of coding was not to quantify the qualitative data but to facilitate the process of identifying patterns. For example, under each construct, there is usually a magnitude coding (positive, neutral, and negative), and if the number under each of these is, for instance, high, I would refer back to the original interviews minutes under each coding using NVivo software to evaluate the fullness of the data. The process is iterative and not straightforward, and the interview minutes were all reviewed several times over a period of six months. As a result, several patterns were identified and are discussed in detail in the following section.

A high use of OILE was found to be associated with a high level of Ideal L2 self, a high IP, and a positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience, as seen in Interviewees (13), (4), (3), and (8). Meanwhile, moderate users of OILE were found to be associated with a high Ideal L2 self and a positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience, such as Interviewees (1) and (14), or just the high Ideal L2 self, namely with Interviewees (2), (6), (11), and (15). In the following section, I first discuss the profiles related to high OILE users and then moderate OILE users. It is pertinent to remind the readers that the words ‘high’ and ‘moderate’ are not absolute descriptions and that they merely refer to the fact that the learners engaged with OILE to some extent.

Four cases fall within the category of high OILE users, and all of those interviewees seemed to have a high Ideal L2 self, a high IP, and a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experience, which is evident from Interviewees (13), (4), (3), and (8). As noted previously, Interviewee (8)'s quantitative data did not show high OILE habits; however, in the interview, she explained in a very confident tone that, when online, she mostly used English. The following extract clarifies this pattern, which was taken from Interviewee (13) who showed a high Ideal L2 self, a high IP, and a positive attitude towards the current L2 learning experience:

I guess I will be very fluent. I will have a native-like accent. I am obsessed about improving my accent, and I guess because I am living in a community where English is not widely used. The Internet may be the only resource that provides authentic materials . . . I always express my opinions on Twitter. For example, when there is any trending hashtag on Twitter, I try to express my opinion and sometimes I do this in English. But the process of writing the English tweet is not spontaneous as it takes time to organise my words and check the grammar. (Interviewee 13)

This statement indicates how her positive profiles (high Ideal L2 self and IP) and positive attitude towards her L2 learning experience encouraged her OILE activities and may even have led her to engage in metacognitive thinking before expressing her thoughts in English. A similar conclusion can be applied to the other three interviewees mentioned above (Interviewees 4, 3, and 8).

The moderate OILE users seem to have a high Ideal L2 self and a positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience, such as Interviewees (1) and (14), or only a high Ideal L2 self, such as Interviewees (2), (6), (11), and (15). Hence, it can be said that even if students dislike the classroom environment, they may still engage in OILE because of their high Ideal L2 self. It is pertinent to mention that the quantitative data of Interviewees (14) and (15) showed

a low frequency of OILE use, whereas in the interview, these students indicated that they engaged to a significant extent with OILE activities. Thus, the qualitative data in this section indicate that OILE is associated with a high level of Ideal L2 self, IP, and L2 learning experience.

It should be noted that it is difficult to identify neat patterns among all the interviews; however, the identified patterns mentioned above demonstrate some common profiles which made the categorisation process more feasible. However, four cases (Interviewees 10, 17, 9, and 16) seem to stand alone, and I was unable to fit them into any of the identified patterns. The high OILE activities of Interviewee (16) cannot be explained by her motivational profiles, which were a low Ideal L2 self and a neutral Ought-to L2 self, or her neutral attitude towards the L2 learning experience. It is worth mentioning that she indicated that her peers influenced her to use English online, which may be the only explanation for her high engagement with OILE activities. Interviewee (10) showed very low and limited OILE habits associated with a neutral Ideal L2 self and IP profiles, and this may be the reason for her low OILE habits. Interviewees (17) and (9) had high motivational profiles and a positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience but limited use of OILE, and there is no clear explanation for their low OILE habits. This suggests that the relationship between students' L2 Motivational Self System, IP, and OILE habits is not always systematic but is subject to individual variations, although some associations can be made from the data. Therefore, I only listed the cases with relatively clear patterns and was extremely careful not to force-fit the interviewees into the emerged patterns which was mostly guided by the quantitative data, and the qualitative data helped in expanding the understanding of the quantitative data.

For the non-English users, the pattern is very neat and easily identified as all of the three participants (Interviewees 7, 18, and 19) had low Ideal L2 self and IP profiles and a low attitude towards the classroom environment which may be why they avoided using English online,

especially given that two of them indicated that they were high users of the Internet, stating that they use “the Internet all day” (Interviewee 7). As for the reason behind avoiding using English when online, it was mainly because their level is not high in English which prevents them from communicating meaningfully. Regarding the four non-users of the Internet, their motivation levels had no clear patterns and they seemed to have a positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience.

In terms of the relationship between learners OILE experiences and OILE frequency, the quantitative data indicated that all the natures of OILE experiences predicted OILE frequency and the qualitative data clearly supported this finding and expanded on it. As learners’ OILE experiences seem to be governed by various activities, an association was found between the frequency of OILE and the following OILE experiences: OILE to socialise, OILE via peers’/teachers’ influence, desire to learn English through OILE and enjoyment-oriented OILE experience. This finding confirms the results found in the quantitative data. It may be pertinent to point out that the more types of experiences mentioned by the interviewees, the higher their frequency of practising English online. This is evident from Interviewees (3) and (1). However, both had high Ideal L2 self and a positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience. In fact, learners who did not reflect on their OILE experiences still show high to moderate use of OILE, which may be because of their high motivational/IP profiles. Further, learners’ desire to socialise in English online is always associated with a higher frequency of OILE use, which is evident from Interviewees (12) and (11). Additionally, enjoying OILE was found to be associated with a positive attitude towards L2 learning experience, which is evident from Interviewees (1), (3), and (17). In the following section, I discuss the findings related to the last research question of this study.

### 6.7.2 Discussion

In this section, I answer the fifth research question of the study which contributes to the existing knowledge in the burgeoning literature exploring the relationship between learners' motivation and OILE use. As discussed in the literature review (section 3.5.1), Lamb and Arisandy (2019) found that learners' motivation (more specifically, L2 learning experience and Ideal L2 selves) relates to learners' OILE use. Similarly, Mills (2018) found a positive correlation between Ideal L2 self, IP, and informal language learning. In addition, several studies found a positive correlation between IP and intercultural contact through media or willingness to communicate (Yashima, 2013; Yashima et al., 2004). The Ought-to L2 self was not found to be related to informal learning (Mills, 2018), nor the OILE use (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). Based on these findings, I expected a relationship between Ideal L2 self and OILE frequency of use (OILE habits) as well as between IP and OILE frequency. I also expected a positive correlation between the L2 learning experience and OILE frequency but not between Ought-to L2 self and OILE frequency of use. For the relationship between the different natures of OILE experiences and OILE frequency of use, the literature is still growing and has not confirmed any relationship in this regard, but I hypothesised that the different natures of OILE experiences would facilitate more frequency of OILE use, as the more reasons learners have to engage with OILE, the more likely they are to engage in frequent OILE use.

As highlighted in the quantitative findings above (see section 6.7.1.1), the study employed a series of bivariate correlations and then applied stepwise multiple regression analysis, based on OILE as an outcome. According to Cohen et al. (2011), statistics alone are hardly effective in proving causation, and it is the role of the theory behind the model and the qualitative data to ascertain causality. Cohen et al. (2011) stated that "causation is embodied in the theoretical underpinnings and assumptions that support the model, and the role of statistics is to confirm, challenge, extend and refine these underpinnings and assumptions" (p. 62). They

further added that qualitative data offer a very powerful source to explain causation. Hence, I evaluate the quantitative findings and then explain the relationship through the qualitative findings and the existing literature. I employed multiple regression analysis using “OILE frequency” as an outcome. This analysis can help in determining causation, but the qualitative data will be used to confirm this; although, I must emphasise that this is a “probabilistic” rather than a “deterministic” causation (Cohen et al., 2011, p. 71). As Cohen et al. (2011) asserted, achieving an absolute causation effect in educational research is not possible. In the following section, I first discuss the relationship between the L2MSS components and OILE frequency of use (OILE habits), followed by the L2MSS profiles for the non-OILE users. I then move on to discuss the relationship between L2MSS components and the natures of OILE experiences. It is important to note that the relationship between the L2MSS components and the nature of OILE experiences was not directly motivated by the research question, but the bivariate correlation matrix revealed a strong association between L2 learning experiences and some of the OILE experiences. Therefore, this requires some discussion to highlight the interesting findings. Following this, I discuss the relationship between IP and OILE frequency, moving on to discuss the interesting findings from the bivariate correlation matrix related to IP and OILE to socialise. Again, the relation between IP and OILE for socialising is not motivated by the research questions, but the interesting findings merited further discussion. Finally, I discuss the relationship between the nature of OILE experiences and OILE frequency of use.

#### ***6.7.2.1 The Relationship Between Motivation (L2MSS) and OILE Frequency***

The findings of the quantitative data indicated that the frequency of the OILE (i.e., a scale measuring learners’ OILE habits) correlates positively and moderately with Ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience. However, when I compared the  $r$  coefficients for these two correlations using Fisher’s Z-transformation (see section 6.7.1.1.1), I did not find any



statistically significant differences between the correlations of the frequency of OILE with Ideal L2 self and the frequency of OILE with L2 learning experiences. In fact, the moderately positive correlation of Ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience with OILE is consistent with what Lamb and Arisandy (2019) found in an Indonesian university students' sample where they emphasised that causation cannot be assumed and that it is possible that students with high Ideal L2 selves who can imagine their future L2 selves tend to engage with English online to reduce the discrepancy between their future selves and their actual selves. It is also possible that learners who engage more in English online have high Ideal L2 selves. Similarly, learners who have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experience may engage in OILE or vice versa. In addition, it is important to point out the danger of the circularity of the argument in that motivation leads to OILE use and OILE use leads to motivation as, according to Cohen et al. (2011), researchers must be aware of the danger of the argument's circularity. Therefore, I acknowledge the unlimited possible explanation of the relationship between motivation and OILE use, which is why I have considered the varying natures of OILE experiences as it may help broaden the understanding of the relationship in question (i.e., the relationship of frequency of OILE to learners' motivation and IP). Furthermore, Cohen et al. (2011) stated that statistical analysis, such as regression, can help in the analysis of causation while qualitative data can further assist in determining directionality. As reported in the findings of the quantitative data (see section 6.7.1.1), the Ideal L2 self contributed to OILE and explained 3% as a unique variance in the outcome (i.e., the OILE frequency). The qualitative findings confirmed and expanded upon this, and as highlighted in section 6.7.1.2, the interviewees expressed that they could imagine their future Ideal L2 selves, and in order to reduce the discrepancy between their future selves and actual selves, they tended to engage mostly in English online. For example, Interviewee (13), who had a high Ideal L2 self profile, expressed that she had a strong desire to improve her English and that she fulfilled this desire by engaging in English online. She also

explained that sometimes the process is not unconscious, as she would engage in metacognitive thinking to correct her grammar before, for example, posting anything online. This lends support to Lai and Gu (2011) and Ekşi and Aydın (2013) who found that learners who are high users of technologies for informal language learning tend to engage at a higher metacognitive level. In addition, the qualitative data indicated that even if the students disliked the classroom environment, their Ideal L2 selves would still be a motivating source for them to engage in OILE use. This supports the finding of the quantitative data that among the L2MSS components, Ideal L2 self is the only component that predicts OILE use as the L2 learning experience was not found to contribute to OILE use in the regression analysis, though it was found to be moderately and positively correlated with the frequency of OILE. That is, the quantitative and qualitative data confirmed that Ideal L2 self had a stronger potency in directing learners' OILE use. This is consistent with what has been suggested by Al-Shehri (2009), Dörnyei (2009a), Lamb and Arisandy (2019), Henry and Lamb (2020), and Mills (2018) that learners with high Ideal L2 selves are more likely to engage in English informally (in this context OILE). As for the Ought-to L2 self, it was not expected to relate to the frequency of OILE as learners who are motivated by an external source are unlikely to voluntarily engage in informal learning, and the data showed only a weak correlation between these two variables. In contrast, Lamb and Arisandy (2019) and Mills (2018) found no significant correlation between the Ought-to L2 self and OILE use. Nevertheless, the weak correlation found in this study between the frequency of OILE use and the Ought-to L2 self does not necessarily require further justification, and it may simply indicate that learners who view learning English as external pressure or life obligation may still engage in OILE or vice versa, and the qualitative data did not confirm anything in this regard. However, the Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experiences are found to have a stronger correlation to OILE frequency compared with the Ought-to L2 self. In the following section, I discuss the relationship identified between OILE non-users and their L2 motivation.

In terms of the non-OILE users and their motivational profiles, three non-OILE users were interviewed (initially, the aim was to interview only two, but one participant who had a low Ideal L2 self profile was a non-OILE user as well; see section 4.10.2). Unsurprisingly, their motivation and IP profiles were self-explanatory. As presented in the findings (see section 6.7.1.2), all three interviewees had low Ideal L2 self, low IP, and a negative attitude towards their L2 learning experience. I am not suggesting that all non-OILE users should have low motivational profiles, but the data in this study clearly suggest this. Future studies could examine this further and could focus on non-OILE users to explore their motivation and their openness towards the world. Further, as mentioned above, I did not compare between non-OILE users and OILE users in terms of their motivation and IP because of the unequal sample size (i.e., non-OILE users = 91 vs OILE users = 455). Besides that, this was not one of the aims of the study.

#### 6.7.2.1.1 *L2MSS Components and the Nature of Learners' OILE Experiences*

It is noteworthy that exploring the relationship between L2MSS components and the nature of OILE experiences is not directly motivated by the research questions or the research design, but the interesting data shown in the correlation matrix (see section 6.7.1.1.1) and a recent publication in the literature (i.e., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019) necessitate an evaluation of these relationships. The results of the series of bivariate correlations drew my attention to the strong correlation between different natures of OILE experiences and some of the L2MSS constructs, namely, Ideal L2 self and the L2 learning experience.

The enjoyment/improvement of English-language OILE-oriented experience had a strong and positive correlation with the L2 learning experience. This is an interesting finding as learners who have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experiences may tend to engage in English online merely for pleasure or for improving their language. However, I obviously

cannot attribute causality as it is possible that enjoyment of OILE and the desire to improve English proficiency lead to a more positive attitude towards L2 learning experience. As discussed in Section 6.7.1.1.1, both enjoyment and desire to improve English proficiency via OILE belong to one scale in this study, suggesting that the line between using OILE for pleasure and the desire to improve English proficiency is blurred. Furthermore, the qualitative data confirmed this as the learners explained that they used OILE to “improve” their English proficiency. It should be noted that I have used the term desire to improve, not learn, based on the learners’ own words and based on the assumption that learners are not engaging in OILE to learn but to practise and improve their language. It is pertinent to point out that the qualitative data did not suggest anything related to the relationship between L2MSS components and the different natures of OILE experiences.

Regarding the Ideal L2 self, the strength of the correlation between the scale of OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English and Ideal L2 self was moderate and positive, and this is in line with the findings of Lamb and Arisandy (2019). It should be noted that the OILE scale used by Lamb and Arisandy (2019) is different from the OILE frequency scale used in my study; hence, this comparison may not be entirely precise because their scale is integrating the nature of experiences with the type of activity. However, the data of the present study suggested that both frequency of OILE and OILE for enjoyment and improvement of English-language scales correlate positively and moderately with the Ideal L2 self. Hence, the fact that the scale used in this study is different from that of Lamb and Arisandy (2019) does not affect the overall findings of both studies, which suggest that high Ideal L2 self correlates with more OILE use and more enjoyment/desire to improve English through OILE. However, the factor analysis in this study confirmed that OILE frequency is a separate scale from OILE for enjoyment and improvement of English. There was also a positive and moderate correlation between the L2 learning experience and OILE to socialise. Clearly, the data used in this study suggest that learners who

have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experiences also seek an online opportunity to socialise in English, or those who seek an online opportunity to socialise in English may have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experiences. Therefore, causation cannot be assumed from these correlations, and the qualitative findings do not suggest any direction in this regard. Further studies could investigate the relationship between students' attitudes towards their L2 learning experience and how they tend to socialise using English online. Finally, the correlation matrix suggests a moderate and positive correlation between peers' and teachers' influence on OILE use and the L2 learning experience. As mentioned before, in this context, the qualitative data indicated that peers have more influence on students' OILE use than teachers, and the moderate correlation between the L2 learning experience and the peers' and teachers' influence on OILE use suggests that learners who are likely to be influenced by teachers and peers to use OILE have a positive attitude towards their L2 learning experience or vice versa. Of course, I cannot attribute causality from this correlation. Furthermore, the other correlations between Ideal L2 self and Ought-to self with OILE to socialise and peers'/teachers' influence on students' OILE use were weak and were not theoretically interesting or justifiable. I thus reported the findings in Table 6-11.

#### ***6.7.2.2 The Relationship Between International Posture and OILE Frequency***

The quantitative data indicated that IP is positively and moderately correlated with the frequency of OILE, and the regression analysis showed that IP contributed to the frequency of OILE. The pseudo  $R^2$  for the model has a strong effect size; however, IP as a variable explained only 1% of the unique variance in the outcome (i.e., frequency of OILE). The qualitative data indicated that a higher IP was associated with high engagement in OILE. This corroborates the finding of Mills (2018) that IP is positively correlated with informal language learning. Furthermore, the existing literature suggests that IP is associated with more communicative

behaviour (Yashima, 2013; Yashima et al., 2004) (see section 3.5.2). Thus, assuming that OILE is a form of virtual communicative behaviour, and based on existing theory and the findings from the qualitative and quantitative data, I can confirm that learners with higher IP tend to seek more OILE opportunities and may even view OILE as an opportunity to be part of a wider international community. Therefore, it is valid to urge educators to consider fostering learners' IP as this tends to positively relate to learners' L2 motivation as well as engagement with the language online which can eventually lead to higher English language proficiency. In the next section, I discuss the relationship between IP and OILE to socialise.

#### 6.7.2.2.1 *IP and OILE to Socialise*

IP was found to correlate moderately and positively with all the different natures of OILE experiences. As already mentioned, it is of note that this discussion is not directly motivated by any research question but by the results from the bivariate correlations matrix, which provided interesting information regarding the correlations between IP and OILE to socialise, thus requiring further discussion. As mentioned previously, IP and OILE to socialise had a positive and moderate correlation. To repeat, correlation does not mean causation; the results suggest that learners with a high level of openness towards the world may seek more opportunities to socialise online, or that those who socialise online develop higher IP. The qualitative data suggest that learners with high IP tend to desire forming international online friendships. Recalling the statement by Interviewee (12) on her OILE experience, whose profile showed a high IP:

I made two international friends online. One of them is Turkish, and the other is Japanese. We all used Google translator to help us communicate in English. We do not really understand each other, but it was a fun experience. Me and the Turkish lady used to talk about Turkish series as I am a big fan of Turkish drama.

As discussed before in section 6.7.1, higher IP is not always associated with the desire to socialise online. There was one respondent who had a high IP profile (Interviewee 2) and who was eager to make international friendships but could not do this online because of the cultural restrictions imposed by her family and the lack of an actual opportunity in real life to make any international friends using English. This supports what Alsaied (2017) stated about the cultural ideology of some of the members of Saudi society who are hindering females from using online platforms for socialisation. However, this cannot be generalised to the society in general, of course, as the country's population has diverse backgrounds and not all members of Saudi society adhere to strict cultural values. The data from this study clearly suggest that some learners are open to online socialising with foreigners and others are not. In summary, the findings within this context suggest a positive correlation between learners' IP and the scale of OILE to socialise, with some exceptions. Further studies are needed to understand how students' IP affects their OILE use, and I shall return to this point later and discuss it under suggestions for future research in section 7.6.

### ***6.7.2.3 The Relationship Between Learners' OILE Experiences and OILE Frequency***

This section explores the relationship between students' OILE frequency and the varying natures of OILE experiences, acknowledging that the issue is complicated and there could be several reasons behind students' frequency of OILE use. Furthermore, the literature in this area is still developing, but I hypothesised that the more reasons students have to use OILE, the more likely they are to engage in various OILE experiences. The quantitative results showed that the OILE frequency correlated positively and moderately with all the natures of OILE experiences (OILE for enjoyment and improvement of English, OILE to socialise and peers'/teachers' influence on OILE use). The regression analysis that shows the contribution of each of these independent variables to the outcome indicates that all the natures of OILE experiences included

in this study predict OILE frequency, and the effect size for the regression model is considered big. Additionally, the regression analysis indicated that the scale of OILE to socialise contributed as a single variable to the frequency of OILE and explained 3% of the variance. For example, if a learner has a desire to socialise online via English, she is more likely to take actions and engage more frequently with OILE for this purpose. The remaining natures of OILE experiences independently explained 1% of the OILE frequency (OILE habits). As discussed previously, regression analysis may only help in pointing to possible causation, but the qualitative data maintained stronger power in establishing causation. As Cohen et al. (2013) highlighted, “causation is often not observable but can only be inferred, and it is highly unlikely that indisputable causality is ever completely discoverable in the social sciences” (p. 54). As this area of OILE research is very new, the existing literature discussing the nature of OILE experiences is limited to a few very recently published studies (see section 3.4.7). Thus, the theory related to this part is still under development. As pointed out above, some previous studies in OILE (i.e., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019) integrated OILE experiences and frequency under one scale, stipulating that learners do certain OILE activity mainly for entertainment or socialising, and I have provided an example before. However, here is another example: a statement such as “*I read websites in English*” (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019, p. 23) was assumed to refer to the use of OILE mainly for entertainment. Nevertheless, I argue that it is difficult to stipulate one reason for each activity as learners may read a website in English to improve their language proficiency, for entertainment, to broaden their horizons and learn about other cultures, or for all these reasons. Thus, it is important to differentiate between learners’ frequency of OILE habits and the nature of experiences that govern OILE activities as a single OILE activity may be directed by several natures of OILE experiences, and this study has successfully achieved that.



As mentioned above, the quantitative data showed that all the natures of OILE experiences discussed above predict the frequency of OILE, and the qualitative data confirmed the findings of the quantitative data as students' experiences of OILE were found to be associated with OILE use. Reiterating what one of the interviewees said when she was asked to reflect on her OILE experience:

I want to improve my English language that is why I practise it a lot.

**(Interviewer)** Can you explain how you practise English?

I use English when I am online (Twitter, YouTube mainly); it is, of course, a mixture of Arabic and English. I also read self-development books in English as the language of these books is usually very simple. Also, I use *Cambly* to voice chat with native speakers of English. (Interviewee 4)

It is evident that this student's desire to improve her English led her to greater engagement with the language via the available resources. Another example outlines an interviewee's journey of engagement with online games using English:

My friends told me about online games. After that, I became addicted to these games, and I spend hours playing online games. The instructions for these games are in English, but I consider it basic English, and I sometimes use an online translator to understand the meaning. (Interviewee 12)

From this, we can assume that her friends influenced her and led her to engage more with OILE. Relying on these findings, I can say with confidence that learners' OILE experiences, whether to learn, to socialise, to imitate peers, or get inspired by teachers, may lead to more OILE practice. Furthermore, the qualitative findings indicated that the more learners reflected on their

OILE experiences, the higher was their OILE use. However, there are certain exceptions, as I have also mentioned that those who did not reflect on the nature of their OILE experiences still showed a relatively high frequency of OILE use; this may be because of their high Ideal L2 self and IP. I also need to repeat that I am aware of the danger of the circularity of the argument, namely that more OILE experiences would lead to more OILE use or vice versa as the issue is definitely multidimensional and complex, and I am merely trying to understand the relationship in question within the data collected in this study. Further studies are still needed to understand learners' English learning motivation and their OILE use. Moreover, future studies could use more sophisticated analyses, such as structural equation modelling, to test the assumptions suggested by this study and other recent studies on motivation and OILE (e.g., Henry & Lamb, 2020; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017). Structural equation modelling is a very powerful tool for validating theories, and it has been widely used among L2MSS studies, as indicated by Dörnyei (2009a). It is also very efficient for understanding complicated relationships (Blunch, 2013). Thus, this study and recent studies on L2MSS and OILE (i.e., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Mills, 2018) did not try to use sophisticated analyses because the field is still new. Thus, I relied on a stepwise analysis to explore the relationship between OILE and motivation because it is very efficient in exploratory studies where theories are still under development, which is the case in OILE; however, I would urge that future research should refer to the findings of this study and of the recent publications related to OILE and L2MSS (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Mills, 2018), or the qualitative study by Little and Al Wahaibi (2017), to develop a more complex model, possibly with the use of structural equation modelling.

## 6.8 Interesting Findings Identified in the Data

The aim of this section is to describe how students' motivation, their IP, and their OILE habits vary according to their track of study. It should be noted that this section is not motivated by a specific research question as this is beyond the scope of this study, but there were some variations between the voices of science and humanities students in the interviews (qualitative data) in terms of their motivation, which led me to look back at the quantitative data and run a comparison between the two groups (i.e., science and humanities students). Hence, in order to understand the effect of learners' track of study on various variables, such as Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, L2 Learning experience, IP, and OILE use, a series of independent sample *t*-tests was conducted. The assumptions of normality for *t*-tests were assessed; no violation of assumptions were found. To correct for the multiple tests, the Bonferroni adjustment was applied (i.e.,  $05/5 = .01$ ). Furthermore, for all the *t*-tests conducted in this study, the Cohen's *d* effect size was calculated using an online calculator and Cohen's (1988) criteria for evaluating the effect size for *t*-tests were used as presented in table 6-15 below:

Table 6-15: Cohen's *d* effect size for *t*-tests (Cohen, 1988, p.40)

Cohen's <i>d</i>	Effect size
<i>d</i> = .20	Small difference
<i>d</i> = .50	Medium difference
<i>d</i> = .80	Big difference

As shown in table 6-16 below, the *t*-tests are statistically significant between science and humanities students for Ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience, IP level, and frequency of OILE. Ought-to L2 self *t*-test alone does not show any statistically significant difference between these two groups. To elaborate further, the *t*-test for Ideal L2 self is statistically significant with science students ( $M = 3.95$ ,  $SD = 0.63$ ) having a higher level of Ideal L2 self than humanities

students ( $M = 3.58$ ,  $SD = 0.74$ ) with a medium effect size. In addition, as shown in Table 6-16 below, science students have a higher level of L2 learning experience, higher IP, and higher use of OILE than humanities students but the effect size for these statistically significant differences is considered small.

The results of the *t*-tests confirmed that there are some variations in learners' motivation, IP, and OILE use among science and humanities students. In fact, within the context of the study (Saudi Arabia), a learner's choice of study track reflects their hopes, aspirations, and motivations (Al-Jarf, 2008; Albalawi, 2017). As discussed in the Context Chapter (section 2.4), science students perceive English to be essential to their future success, especially learners who are planning to specialise in medical disciplines or engineering, as English is the medium of interaction for those courses (Al-Jarf, 2008). Humanities students, on the other hand, do not view English as essential to their future success as Arabic is the medium of instruction for most disciplines in the faculty of arts and humanities (Albalawi, 2017). Ekşi and Aydin (2013) found that students' use of technology outside the classroom was not related to Turkish learners' tracks of studies, and the vast literature related to motivation and IP does not suggest anything in terms of learners' tracks of study or majors; therefore, this aspect may be context-specific. The present study's quantitative data indicated that science students had a significantly higher mean of Ideal L2 self, IP, OILE frequency, and L2 learning experience. However, Ought-to L2 self did not show a statistically significant difference between the two tracks. The qualitative data expanded the findings of the quantitative data as the science students showed a strong sense of future responsibility and had a strong sense of obligation to learn English. Hence, science students' Ought-to L2 self is more related to their sense of obligation than to others' influence. In addition, the fact that the Ideal L2 self is higher among students in the science track may indicate that the path the students choose at the start of their university life can help them to develop a clearer future Ideal L2 self. Of course, there may be students in the humanities disciplines who have a

very vivid and clear vision of their Ideal L2 selves. It is also interesting to note that the science students had a more positive attitude towards their L2 learning experiences than the humanities students. This may indicate that those students with clear future L2 selves tended to enjoy their L2 learning experiences and might also have been engaging with the English language informally. As mentioned previously, the data show that students in the science track engaged in OILE habits more than students in the humanities track. Additionally, science students showed a significantly higher IP than humanities students. This could indicate that learners with an urgent need to learn English may have a positive global outlook. It was surprising that the science students' urgent need to learn English, which is an external motive, was related to a higher Ideal L2 self, which is connected to intrinsic motivation. This was not expected, and the vivid Ideal self should not necessarily vary between the two disciplines as the same English class may have a mixture of science and humanities students, and it was unexpected to find that science students tended to have a more positive attitude than humanities students towards their L2 learning experience in general including a positive attitude towards their English classes. Hence, there is a need for more studies within this context to investigate the differences between students' motivations according to their study track. Finally, while this section is not directly motivated by the study's research questions, it was included because the interviews highlighted that science students tended to vividly express their Ideal L2 selves because their future success relies on their English mastery. Further studies are needed to investigate learners' motivations between these two disciplines.

Table 6-16: Independent sample *t*-tests based on students' track of study

Scales	Humanities students		Science students		Mean Differences	F	<i>t</i> -value	Df	P.(2. tailed)	Effect Size Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD						
Ideal L2 self	3.58	0.74	3.95	0.63	-.37	3.83	-6.14	548	.00*	.54
Ought-to L2 self	2.79	0.95	2.70	1.01	.09	.76	1.09	548	.28	.09
L2 Learning Experience	3.05	1.03	3.44	0.86	-.39	13.99	-4.84	532.37	.00*	.41
International Posture	2.84	0.82	3.07	0.86	-.23	2.20	-3.12	548	.00*	.27
Frequency of OLE	1.95	0.88	2.33	1.12	-.38	24.02	-3.96	388.96	.00*	.38

\*A Bonferroni adjustment was applied for alpha value and set the level of significance at *p*

## 6.9 Effectiveness of the Mixed-Methods Approach

The mixed-methods approach employed in this study proved to be extremely effective in answering the research questions and eliminating the limitations associated with using each method independently. For example, it enriched the understanding of each of the L2MSS components within this study as the qualitative data highlighted the voice of the Ought-to L2 self, which was not very prominent in the quantitative data. Furthermore, the qualitative data revealed new themes related to the Ideal L2 self, which have not been previously identified within the literature. That is, students had different Ideal L2 selves for different English skills, envisioning their future L2 selves, for example, being able to write at a high level of English proficiency but with less proficiency in spoken English. In addition, the qualitative data revealed rich information related to the L2 learning experience, including the fact that most students are dissatisfied with the long classroom hours and the current teaching methods. Students' dissatisfaction with the current classroom environment is a dilemma that requires attention from the stakeholders within the context of this study. This information could not have been revealed by employing quantitative data alone.

A further benefit of employing mixed-methods research in this study was that the quantitative data alone did not reflect much information about the nature of the participants' IP; however, the qualitative data served to eliminate any weaknesses in the IP questionnaire and expanded on the understanding of students' IP. It also highlighted that students had mixed attitudes towards making online friendships and engaging in what was happening in the world. I would thus argue that although Yashima (2002, 2009) first introduced the concept of IP based mostly on quantitative studies, it is essential to start studying this aspect using a mixed-methods approach, as has been done in the present study. This approach has also been used in a previous study by Islam et al. (2013), in which the research yielded interesting themes that may be specific to Eastern cultures, such as the desire to spread the Islamic religion. My study also found certain interesting themes such as fear of online

communication resulting from cultural restrictions.

In addition, most studies reviewed in the literature related to OILE rely on quantitative data, as it is believed to be more accurate in capturing the habits of a wide range of participants. However, the qualitative data included in this study proved to be very efficient, as it helped expand the understanding of the quantitative data and revealed several kinds of activities that were not included in the questionnaire while revealing new themes related to the natures of OILE experiences. In terms of exploring the relationship between OILE as an outcome and students' motivation, IP, and OILE experiences, the qualitative data have been very useful in explaining the statistical analyses and providing some directionality, which could never have been achieved using the quantitative data alone. This strongly suggested that a single-method research approach would not have been as efficient as the mixed-methods approach. To conclude, a mixed-methods approach may be more efficient for understanding learners' motivations, global outlooks, and habits in practising OILE.



## 6.10 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the findings and discussions of all five research questions. The data from this study confirm the level of the participants' motivation in light of L2MSS, particularly indicating that female Saudi university students who participated in this study have a relatively high Ideal L2 self, followed by a positive L2 learning experience, and relatively high Ought-to L2 self. The qualitative data expanded the understanding of learners' motivation, as highlighted in this chapter. Furthermore, the qualitative data revealed a significant amount of in-depth information about students' attitudes towards their current classroom environment and the vital role of teachers in shaping learners' L2 learning experience. This study also uncovered the fact that students have various concerns about the efficiency of the current teaching methods, especially the lack of focus on the communicative approach. Students pointed out how, in the present day, the new media could replace teachers. This is a warning sign, indicating the need for stakeholders to devote attention to improving the current teaching methods for English language learning within this context. Furthermore, students were extremely dissatisfied with the long teaching sessions. Therefore, stakeholders in this institute should listen to students and start focusing on the quality of the classroom environment, rather than the quantity of teaching hours.

Regarding the International Posture, students in this context viewed English as an international language not related to any specific country, which is in line with the findings of the extant literature. Furthermore, because it is impossible for the students within this context to form international friendships in their everyday life, very few of them have sought online international friendships. The majority of them are reluctant to form any international friendships, either because of cultural restrictions or fear of cybersecurity. This latter point lends support to what has been found in some of the existing literature in various contexts. Additionally, students within this context did not seem to be interested in what was happening in the world. Finally, the findings from this study confirmed a relationship

between Ideal L2 self and IP, which supports the vast body of the existing literature.

The chapter also discussed learners' levels of engagement with OILE and the nature of their OILE experiences. The qualitative findings indicated that students spend a significant amount of their time on the Internet, and more than 70% of the individuals in the sample use some English when online. However, students' level of engagement with OILE activities seems to be moderate to low; this is contrary to what was found in various contexts in the literature which shows that learners of a similar age tend to be high OILE users. Nonetheless, the qualitative data highlighted the myriad OILE activities in which learners engage. In terms of the nature of OILE activities, the quantitative data confirmed the validity of the proposed OILE experience constructs used in this study's questionnaire (i.e., enjoyment of OILE, OILE for improving the English language, OILE to socialise, and peers' and teachers' influence on OILE use). However, two constructs seemed to be measuring the same aspects: enjoyment of OILE and OILE for improving English language proficiency. Hence, the items pertaining to these two constructs were gathered under one construct which was renamed OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language, as it makes complete sense conceptually that learners are engaging in OILE both for pleasure and to improve their language skills and that the line between these two concepts may be blurred. Furthermore, the quantitative data highlighted that OILE to socialise was the least popular nature of OILE experiences. The qualitative data highlighted that some learners were reluctant to socialise online using English for various reasons, which is in line with the findings of the extant literature, such as cultural restrictions on female students that may affect students' desire to socialise online using English. In addition, the quantitative data confirmed that learners' OILE practices are affected by the influence of peers and teachers. However, the qualitative data highlighted that teachers had less influence than peers on learners' OILE use. Furthermore, the qualitative data identified several different OILE experiences, including OILE to boost L2 self-confidence and OILE as a result of the admiration of the online content in English. The qualitative data also suggested that learners believe in the potential benefits

of OILE use for their language development. Subsequently, a specific model for OILE experiences was proposed; this model is an original contribution to knowledge and is based on the existing literature related to technology's use outside of the classroom. This model added to the burgeoning body of literature related to OILE. Furthermore, the different natures of the OILE experiences seem to mediate the frequency of OILE habits.

Both the qualitative and quantitative findings showed that learners who have vivid Ideal L2 selves and high IP profiles are more likely to engage in OILE, which corroborates the findings of recent studies. This also indicates that learners who have a vivid Ideal L2 self and IP seek opportunities to open up to the world and join the international community through engagement with OILE. In the next chapter, I conclude this thesis by summarising the main findings related to each research question and by highlighting how this study has contributed to the body of knowledge relating to motivation, IP, and OILE. I also discuss the limitations of this study and its pedagogical and theoretical implications and propose some suggestions for future research.

## **Chapter 7 : Conclusion**

### **7.1 Introduction**

The central focus of this thesis is Saudi female university students' motivation, IP and OILE use. This study has five research questions. First, exploring students' motivation levels in light of the L2 Motivational Self System, and using these data to establish the relationship between learners' motivation, IP and OILE use. Second, exploring the nature of Saudi female learners' IP. As highlighted in this study, there is a dearth of information on Saudi female students' IP. Third, exploring how students' IP relates to their motivation. This has been investigated in various contexts, with studies confirming that high IP profiles lead to vivid Ideal L2 selves. However, this has not been addressed before within the context of Saudi Arabia, to the best of my knowledge. Fourth, exploring learners' OILE habits and the different natures of their OILE experiences. While various studies have recently explored learners' OILE habits, very few have moved beyond and assessed the diverse types of the OILE experiences. Fifth, this study establishes the relationship between learners' motivation, IP and OILE, contributing to a burgeoning body of literature on L2 research by linking IP and OILE, and by exploring the diverse nature of OILE experiences and how they mediate more frequent OILE use. To my knowledge, OILE experiences have never been explored before, and the study is contributing to this under-researched area that explores learners' motivation, IP and OILE (OILE Frequency and experiences).

In this concluding chapter, I start by summarising the study's main findings and then present the contributions that this thesis has made to L2 research. Then, I discuss the limitations of this study, and its pedagogical implications for language learning and teaching as well as for theory related to OILE. Some suggestions for future research are offered. Finally, I present an overall conclusion of the whole thesis, and end with a personal reflection.

## **7.2 Summary of the Main Findings**

The summarised findings are based on quantitative and qualitative data. 550 Saudi female university students answered an online questionnaire during their English classes. Then, based on the findings of the quantitative data (more specifically, learners' motivational profiles and IP), 19 interviewees were selected for their different motivational and IP profiles (e.g., high Ideal L2 self, low Ideal L2 self, etc.), as well as two non-OILE users. The qualitative findings obtained from face-to-face semi-structured interviews served to enrich the understanding of the quantitative data, as shown in the previous chapter (Chapter 6: Findings and Discussion). In the following sections, I provide a summary of the main findings related to all five research questions.

### **7.2.1 Question One: Level of Students' Motivation**

RQ1: What is the level of Saudi female university students' motivation towards learning English in terms of different L2MSS components (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience)?

This study has answered this research question using both quantitative and qualitative data. The aim of this research question was not to validate the L2 Motivational Self System theory but to be able to determine the level of students' motivation in light of the L2MSS, for which the statistical data showed that Ideal L2 self was the highest in this sample. Furthermore, the qualitative data enriched the findings of the quantitative data, indicating that learners' Ideal L2 self was found to be vivid and realistic. The qualitative data also highlighted that learners had different future Ideal L2 selves regarding different English language skills: for example, they believed that in the future, they would perform better in writing than in speaking. In short, learners seem to have a vivid Ideal L2 self within the context of this study, which is in line with the extant literature in the same context (i.e., Saudi Arabia).

The Ought-to L2 self was found to have the lowest mean among L2MSS components in the quantitative analysis. In addition, the Ought-to L2 self scale was found to have several limitations in previous studies. Hence, in this study, I adapted a questionnaire written in *subjects' own self*, an approach proven to have high reliability (Taguchi et al., 2009). I also made minor adjustments to what the term *others* means: I have included all possible others within the construct statements to further clarify the meaning of *others*. This approach has resulted in a valid and reliable scale based on quantitative data findings. The qualitative data supported the quantitative findings and highlighted the influence of others on learners' motivation, along with learners' sense of obligation to learn English.

Furthermore, the quantitative findings indicated that the L2 learning experiences scale was ranked second among the L2MSS components. In addition, the qualitative data highlighted more information on the issue and indicated that more than 50% of the sample seemed to have had a positive L2 learning experience. Those who expressed a negative attitude towards their L2 learning experience attributed this to three factors: a negative attitude towards their teachers; dissatisfaction with the current teaching methods; and dissatisfaction with the length of the class time. As a result, I suggest that stakeholders within this context consider students' suggestions and improve the classroom environment before students turn their back on formal learning environments, especially given that one student clearly articulated that there is no need for teachers nowadays because online platforms offer excellent learning resources.

### **7.2.2 Question Two: Nature of Students' International Posture**

RQ2: What is the nature of students' International Posture (IP)?

In answering this research question, the qualitative data outweighed the quantitative data, providing a more in-depth picture of the nature of students' IP. The quantitative data indicated that students' IP is considered moderate; however, there is no established benchmark in the literature for accurately assessing the level of IP. In addition, although the

construct used for IP in this study had acceptable reliability, there is still a need to develop a construct that encompasses Eastern culture with several subdimensions. As mentioned previously, the qualitative data revealed interesting information and eliminated any weaknesses that resulted from the questionnaire related to IP, which is why I argue that the nature of IP is best investigated with a mixed-methods approach so as to address the multiple perspectives related to IP. Furthermore, the findings indicated that most students viewed English as an important international language, which is in line with the extant literature. Few students had online international friends where Internet communication not only facilitated their online friendships but also helped them to share common interests and learn about different cultures. However, some students were very sceptical about online communication, and avoided it because they wanted to adhere to cultural values that prohibit online communication with foreigners. The literature indicated, however, that learners in various contexts tend to avoid online communication due to cybersecurity fears, which suggests that this avoidance is not specific to the Saudi context. In addition, few students indicated that they would like to spread certain messages to the world, but the majority appear uninterested in spreading any message to the world, which is contrary to what was found in the literature in relatively similar contexts. In short, the qualitative data outweigh the quantitative data in revealing more interesting information about the IP of Saudi female university students in this sample, although of course, more studies are needed on IP. I would speculate that the new 2020 Saudi vision might affect female students' perspective of the world, so more studies will be needed in this regard.

### **7.2.3 Question Three: Relationship Between Students' IP and Motivation**

RQ3: Is there any significant relationship between students' motivation (more specifically Ideal L2 self) and their International Posture?

The quantitative findings showed a correlation between IP and all the components of L2 Motivational Self System. In addition, both the quantitative and qualitative data provided an answer to this research question, indicating an association between learners' IP and their

Ideal L2 self. This is in line with the extant literature. In light of the findings related to this question, I have called for stakeholders and curriculum developers within the context of Saudi Arabia to start introducing English-language materials that can help to foster a positive global outlook in students, which would have an impact on learners' motivation and, more specifically, their future L2 selves. This will eventually affect learners' proficiency, as according to Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) motivation is the most important factor that determines success in language learning.

#### **7.2.4 Question Four: Students' OILE Use and Their OILE Experiences**

RQ4: What are students' habits with respect to online informal learning of English (OILE)? What is the nature of their OILE experiences?

The study's quantitative data indicate that students spend a significant amount of their time during their day on the Internet, as 50% of the sample indicated that their use amounts to more than five hours a day. In addition, more than 70% of the sample indicated that they use some English along with their L1 when online. In terms of their engagement levels with OILE activities, the data within this context suggested that students as a cohort are not high users. Furthermore, the qualitative data in this study have helped to enrich the understanding of the quantitative data, as well as identifying some high-OILE users. This highlights the benefits of mixed-methods research when exploring learners' OILE habits. The qualitative data have also highlighted the various types of OILE activities that learners engage with, such as watching YouTube videos, voice chatting with native speakers using an application called *Cambly*, surfing the Internet, and playing online games.

Furthermore, the study highlighted the different natures of OILE experiences, whilst clarifying their overlap: learners might have a range of OILE experiences whilst engaging with only one specific kind of OILE activity. In addition, the quantitative data of this study indicate an interesting finding: the scales for OILE to improve English and enjoyment of OILE were loading together, indicating that learners engage in OILE either because they want to improve their language or for enjoyment. The fact that the line between engagement



for pleasure and for improving language is blurred suggests that learning within an OILE context is not intentional but a by-product of the engagement process, which is in line with some of the literature's findings (Sockett, 2014; Toffoli & Sockett, 2010). Also, the qualitative data suggested that learners really do enjoy various OILE experiences and seek meaningful online learning activities to improve their English. In addition, the qualitative and quantitative data both indicated that learners do engage with OILE to socialise, but this seemed to be the least popular type of OILE experiences. Both the quantitative and qualitative data suggested that learners' engagement with OILE was influenced by their peers and teachers, which also supports the findings of the existing literature. However, the qualitative data obtained from this study clarified that peers had more influence on OILE use than teachers. I also argued that too much direction from teachers regarding learners' OILE use might negatively affect their autonomy. Nevertheless, I have highlighted how teachers' roles are important in understanding students' current OILE use to bridge any existing gap between formal and informal learning. In addition, the qualitative data highlighted new themes related to OILE experiences, such as using OILE to boost self-confidence, where learners indicated that they view OILE as an opportunity to practise their English and improve their confidence, which supports the recent publication by Lamb and Henry (2020). Another theme that emerged from the qualitative data, and which seems to be part of learners' OILE experiences, is learners' admiration of online English content. Several learners pointed out that they prefer watching movies in English rather than in Arabic. In addition, whilst this study had assumed that, for the most part, students engage in English unintentionally, some of them do seem to be aware of the potential benefits of OILE and seek to improve their English language through engagement with OILE.

In addition, this study highlighted how the burgeoning body of literature related to OILE lacks a specific framework for the nature of OILE experiences. Hence, based on the existing literature and the qualitative and quantitative findings, this study proposes a model specific for the OILE field, which would help provide a deeper understanding of the nature

of learners' OILE experiences. According to Lai et al. (2018), understanding learners' OILE experiences would help future studies to develop educational interventions. The proposed model, therefore, suggests six types of OILE experiences. Some of these could be considered reasons to engage with OILE (such as seeking online meaningful learning via OILE, using OILE to socialise, or enjoyment of OILE), while others are considered reinforcers (such as peers' influence on students' OILE use, use of OILE to boost self-confidence, and use of OILE due to admiration of online English content).

The proposed model is based on the literature and on the findings of the qualitative and quantitative data. This model for the specific nature of OILE experiences contributed to the burgeoning field of OILE. The model also suggests that learners might be engaging in several or in all of the OILE experiences, and that, within the context of the study, the line between OILE use for enjoyment and seeking online informal meaningful learning is blurred. Furthermore, in this study, it was found that teachers had little influence on learners' OILE use, which is why I suggest limiting the focus to peers' influence only. The model requires further validation as it emerged from a specific sample ( Saudi female university students), so additional OILE-related studies should explore this further to confirm, expand or improve on the model for different natures of OILE experiences.

#### **7.2.5 Question Five: OILE Use as an Outcome of Students' Motivation, IP and OILE Experiences**

RQ5: How do students' self-reported habits of OILE relate to their:

- a. Motivation (Ideal L2 self, Ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experiences).
- b. International Posture.
- c. OILE experiences.

##### ***7.2.5.1 Students' Motivation and Frequency of OILE***

The quantitative findings indicated that the Ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience correlated positively and moderately with OILE usage frequency (OILE habits), which

corroborated the findings of a recent publication (Lamb & Airsindy, 2019). Furthermore, the Ideal L2 self was found to contribute to learners' OILE habits. The qualitative data supported these findings and showed that, even if the students dislike the classroom environment or have a negative L2 Learning experience, they still engage in OILE, because their Ideal L2 self seems to be stronger in terms of influencing their OILE use. Hence, the data suggest that the Ideal L2 self has a strong potency in influencing the frequency of OILE use, which is in line with the extant literature that confirmed the power of the Ideal L2 self for guiding more communicative behaviour.

For non-OILE users, the qualitative data suggested that all non-OILE users had a low Ideal L2 self, low IP and a negative attitude towards their L2 learning experience. I am not suggesting that all non-OILE users have low motivation and IP, but the quantitative and qualitative data based on three interviewees suggested this. Future studies might be needed to investigate non-OILE users' motivations and IP.

#### ***7.2.5.2 IP and Frequency of OILE***

IP correlated positively and moderately with OILE frequency. It was also found to be a predictor for OILE frequency. The findings of this study confirmed that a higher IP could lead to more frequent OILE use. Based on this, I have suggested that educators should pay some attention to fostering learners' IP, as this could affect learners' motivation as well as their engagement with informal language learning, specifically OILE.

#### ***7.2.5.3 Nature of OILE Experiences and Frequency of OILE***

The quantitative data showed that OILE frequency correlated positively and moderately with all the different natures of OILE experiences (i.e., OILE for enjoyment/improving English language, OILE for socialising, and peers'/teachers' influence on OILE use). Furthermore, the study found that all the different natures of OILE experiences serve to predict OILE frequency. The qualitative data supported the findings of

the quantitative data, as learners' OILE experiences were associated with frequent OILE use. From this it is valid to argue that the more varied learners OILE experiences are, the more likely they are to engage in OILE activities.

### **7.3 Limitations of the Study**

According to Dörnyei (2007), "no research study is perfect and the readers know this" (p.60). As with all studies, therefore, this study has some limitations. I must point out that I have observed all research methods and guidelines to provide valid and reliable instruments and to conduct a robust study. However, I acknowledge that this study has the following limitations. First, while the sample size for this study is of a sufficient number based on G\*power analyses, the study is representative of the female Saudi university students within one particular university only (although the results could be generalised to students at other Saudi state universities with similar backgrounds). If the study were applied to a private university, where the students are from more elite backgrounds, then different results might emerge. Hence, the sample is representative of this context and contexts with similar backgrounds. In addition, the sample is of Saudi female students only. A study of Saudi male students might produce different results, especially in aspects related to IP and OILE use. OILE use might also be subject to gender differences, as has been found in previous studies (Kuppens, 2010; Sundqvist & Wikström, 2015). Furthermore, the English language institute's refusal to allow recording of interviews presented some challenges to the process of qualitative data collection. While I strived to follow a certain protocol (see section 4.10.2) to capture as much information as possible, recording the interviews would have made the process much easier and more precise. Another limitation that is common across all L2 motivational studies, and even social science studies, is inferring causation from observational/exploratory studies. Readers who follow the positivist approach might question causality in this research study (more specifically from the regression analysis based on OILE as an outcome). However, I followed the conventions of many other

researchers within this field (e.g., Cohen et al., 2011) who explain that causation can be inferred in educational research where qualitative data would help confirm the results obtained from quantitative data to establish any causation, as has been done in this study.

## **7.4 Implications of the Study**

This study has some theoretical implications for researchers interested in the novel OILE field. Additionally, the study has pedagogical implications for the context of this study (i.e., Saudi Arabia), but not necessarily limited to it. In the following section I present these suggestions.

### **7.4.1 Theoretical Implications**

As discussed in the literature review chapter (3.4.8), there is no specific framework for the nature of OILE experiences. Hence, based on the existing literature and the qualitative and quantitative findings of this study, I proposed a model specifically for the OILE field (see section 6.6.2.5), which would help in providing a deeper understanding of the nature of learners' OILE experiences. According to Sockett (2014), understanding learners' OILE experiences would help future studies to develop educational interventions based on learners' experiences, which of course might be context specific. The proposed model for the different nature of OILE experiences includes six types of experiences:

1. Enjoyment of OILE
2. Seeking meaningful online learning via OILE
3. Peers' influence on OILE use
4. OILE to socialise
5. OILE to boost self-confidence
6. OILE because of admiration of online English content

This model on the specific nature of OILE experiences contributes to the burgeoning field of OILE. The model suggests that learners might be engaging in all of the OILE experiences or some of them. In this context, the line between OILE for enjoyment and seeking

meaningful informal online learning is blurred. Furthermore, in this study, it was found that teachers had little influence on learners' OILE use, which is why I suggested limiting the focus to peers only. The model requires further validation as it emerged from a specific sample (i.e., Saudi female university students). Future OILE-related studies should explore this further to confirm, expand or improve on the OILE experiences model.

#### **7.4.2 Pedagogical Implications**

The study has some implications for learning and teaching English in the context of Saudi Arabia, but not necessarily limited to it. First, the findings indicated that the sample of the study had limited international posture (IP). As discussed previously, learners who are open to the world are more successful language learners (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009a; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). Based on this and the findings of the study, which indicated that learners' IP is limited, I suggest that learners' IP should be enhanced by adapting some creative classroom activities that broaden students' global perspectives. Yashima (2009) argues that the easiest thing to do to enhance students' IP is to send them overseas, but this is not always practicable, which is why creating an imagined international community through content-based lessons (i.e., in which the focus is on the content and the language is used as the medium of instruction) may be a more feasible option. Hereafter, I suggest several feasible ways in which teachers could foster learners' IP.

Teachers could create classroom activities that broaden students' horizons. For instance, teachers could instruct students to read about a global issue outside the classroom (this can initially be done in their first language, depending on the students' language proficiency) and then discuss it in class in English, with the teacher introducing some new vocabulary for beginners. For advanced or intermediate learners, teachers could go further and connect with a different classroom in a different part of the world where students could discuss the global issues together or exchange some cultural information. These activities are very easy to do especially because an internet connection is available in most educational

sectors within this context. In fact, with the ubiquity of technology, this is definitely possible and cost effective. All teachers have to do is facilitate these activities using the available applications, such as Pen-Pal, which is a platform to connect with people from around the world via writing, or online communication applications such as Skype or Facetime, to connect with a classroom in a different part of the world. Institutions can facilitate this by, for example, creating initiatives or collaborations with schools or institutions in different parts of the world. In short, institutions should be aware of the importance of enhancing students' positive global outlook and should thus help teachers to deliver learning materials that facilitate IP development. Teachers or institutions considering applying this suggestion could use the ideas suggested above (i.e., online communication tools) to enable students to use English in this multi-perspective, globalised world, which is a fundamental goal of teaching the language.

The data of this study suggested that learners as a cohort are not high OILE users. Nonetheless, the quantitative findings (see table 6-8, section 6.6.1.2) indicated that students seem to enjoy and engage with some OILE activities, such as online communication via social networks (e.g., Twitter) and online text messages. Hence, teachers could introduce some of these activities in the classroom. However, I am not calling for teachers or stakeholders to invade learners' informal learning space; in this study I argue that unintentionality is a chief characteristic of OILE use. What we really need is to create a bridge between formal and informal learning. As we need to facilitate a route to informal English learning and structure the beginning of the OILE journey. Then, we need to let students enjoy the OILE journey in their own way, creating their own learning experiences. Hence, teachers should make learners aware of the various OILE activities that are available, without putting any pressure on them, meaning that students should choose whether or not to engage in OILE activities. Based on the findings of this study, teachers could particularly promote the activities that students enjoy, such as social media applications or instant text messages. As shown in the findings (see table 6-8), students avoided OILE activities that

require high proficiency, such as writing emails or reading documents in English. Part of the reason for students' avoidance of these activities is their low proficiency levels. Hence, teachers could show students how to select activities that are suitable for their level. However, I should note that teachers themselves might not be aware of the different OILE activities. This is where the institution's role in educating teachers about different OILE activities comes into play. OILE use is very likely to increase in the future and institutions should be aware of this in order to avoid any future disjuncture between formal and informal learning.

## **7.5 Contribution of the Study**

This study contributes to L2 research as described below:

First, it contributes by connecting learners' motivation to OILE and adding to the burgeoning field of literature related to L2 research (e.g., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). More specifically, and as highlighted in the literature review, a recent review of CALL and motivation studies by Bodnar et al. (2016) reported that future research should use L2MSS as a theoretical framework to understand learners' use of technology for language learning. This study has responded to this call and has successfully identified a link between learners' motivation and OILE use. As highlighted in the findings, the present study confirmed that learners' Ideal L2 self could lead to increased OILE use, and this supported the findings of recent literature (i.e., Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Mills, 2018), which posited that a higher Ideal L2 self leads to higher communicative competence in English (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009a).

Second, this research not only explores students' motivation but also moves into exploring learners' International Posture. This is a concept that has been widely integrated within L2MSS studies (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009). However, to the best of my knowledge, almost none of the L2MSS studies within the context of Saudi Arabia, or even



other Eastern cultures, have investigated learners' IP (with the exception of Islam et al., 2013, in Pakistan). This study has explored Saudi female students' IP, because understanding learners' IP may enable stakeholders to decide whether they need to enhance learners' global outlook. The findings of this study confirmed a relatively low-to-moderate level of IP within the participants of this study, suggesting that educators need to create English-language course material that fosters learners' global outlook, whilst also showing that further studies are needed within Eastern cultures. This study also confirmed the findings of previous studies that IP has a strong association with learners' motivation—more specifically, learners' Ideal L2 self.

Third, the use of mixed-methods research is a significant methodological contribution to understanding learners' motivation, IP and OILE use. As highlighted in the discussion chapter, this method proved useful for answering the research questions. The statistical analysis helped to confirm the validity and reliability of the results, while the qualitative themes identified from the data helped to confirm the quantitative findings and to expand the understanding of learners' motivation, IP and their OILE use.

Finally, and most importantly, the originality of this study lies in the fact that it explores the relationship between motivation, IP, OILE experiences and OILE use, which have never been explored in combination before (to the best of my knowledge). The study found a relationship between IP, the Ideal L2 self and OILE experiences with OILE use, adding to the findings of previous studies that suggested that IP and the Ideal L2 self lead to increased informal learning (Mills, 2018). Additionally, most OILE studies have focused on diverse OILE activities but have neglected to consider the different natures of OILE activities. Addressing the specific nature of OILE experiences is, to my knowledge, an original contribution to the field of OILE. In fact, at the commencement of this study, no specific framework was available for understanding the different natures of OILE experiences; therefore, I relied on existing research and theories related to technology use outside the classroom to develop a model specific to OILE experiences, and the factor

analysis confirmed the model's validity. This model narrowed the focus from technology experiences outside the classroom for language learning to OILE experiences focusing mainly on nonintentional learning. Undoubtedly, the OILE experiences model is a significant contribution, and further studies should expand on this model.

## **7.6 Suggestions for Future Research**

Several suggestions for future research can be made from this study:

First, longitudinal research might be needed to further enrich the understanding of students' motivation, IP and OILE use. In fact, Sockett (2014) argues that OILE evolves over time and so longitudinal studies might be extremely useful in explaining students' engagement with OILE. Furthermore, Bodnar et al. (2016) call for longitudinal studies that explore motivation and CALL and, assuming that OILE is a subfield of CALL as discussed in this study, then this recommendation can be applied to OILE as well. Researchers who are considering longitudinal studies in this area should also consider using self-reporting diaries to obtain a more precise measure of learners' OILE use and could adapt contemporary theories that views motivation from a dynamic way such as complexity approaches.

Second, future studies in students' motivation, IP and OILE should consider adding objective outcomes, such as English proficiency test results. As Al-Hoorie (2018) pointed out in a recent meta-analysis of L2MSS studies, very few studies rely on objective measures as outcomes (e.g., course grades/ English proficiency test results) and the majority rely on subjective outcomes (e.g., intended effort). Hence, considering the actual proficiency of students might serve to further clarify the relationship between language proficiency with motivation and OILE as, in the end, the aim of all motivational and OILE use studies is to improve learners' language proficiency. Hence, there is a need for studies that assess this relationship. While obtaining proficiency levels from the target samples is not always practical, this is still an important aspect that should not be overlooked in future research.

Third, future studies within the fields of motivation, IP and OILE could be directed towards intervention studies. Researchers may take advantage of the various available online resources and test to see whether these improves students' IP and motivation. For example, researchers could benefit from Yashim and Zenuk-Nishide's (2008) study related to IP and WTC in Japan, who employed various resources —not necessarily online resources—that are content-based and found them to be beneficial in enhancing learners' IP. Hence, future studies could conduct interventional studies by incorporating some content-based online materials and testing to see whether this improves students' IP and motivation.

Finally, an interesting study that could be conducted in Saudi Arabia is a large-scale mixed-gender study comparing the motivation, IP and OILE of both Saudi males and females. Achieving this might require co-researchers of mixed genders, as access to the other gender within this context is not normally permissible, and online administration without a researcher's presence would not typically yield a high response rate. Nevertheless, some successful mixed-genders research within the context of Saudi Arabia does exist, which implies that conducting mixed-genders research in this context is not impossible, albeit rather challenging. It is expected that such a study would reveal some gender differences, especially in relation to IP and OILE use, as the cultural restrictions on Saudi males are far fewer than those imposed on Saudi females. Furthermore, OILE use itself may be subject to gender differences, as found in studies by Kuppens (2010) and Sundqvist and Wikström (2015). In addition, this study has found some variations in students' motivation, IP and OILE use between science and humanities students. While this could be attributed to the fact that science students are required to use English in their studies and in their future careers, it may be worth investigating further why their Ideal L2 self, IP, L2 learning experience and OILE are higher, as this is a clear indication that the need to learn the English language is associated with greater OILE use, a vivid Ideal L2 self, a more positive attitude towards the L2 learning experience and a higher level of openness towards the world.

## 7.7 Overall Thesis Conclusion

To summarise the whole thesis, the study used a mixed-methods approach to investigate Saudi female learners' motivation, IP and OILE use. The study contributes to the up-to-date OILE field as, nowadays, most learners spend a vast amount of their time on the Internet. The study confirmed this, with more than 50% of the sample indicating that they used the Internet for more than five hours a day, while 70% of the sample reported that, when online, they used some English. However, their overall engagement with various OILE activities was found to be moderate. Several previous studies have confirmed that OILE use can vary according to students' motivation (Cole & Vanderplank, 2016; Kusyk, 2017; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Trinder, 2017). Furthermore, various studies have confirmed an association between students' IP and motivation (Csizér & Kormos, 2009a; Islam et al., 2013; Kong et al., 2018; Lamb, 2012; Munezane, 2013; Papi et al., 2019; Yashima, 2009), but none of them were carried out in a Saudi context. Hence, this study investigated Saudi female IP and its relationship to motivation. It also linked learners' motivation and IP to OILE use, as very few studies have explored the relationship between IP and informal language learning (Mills, 2018). The original contributions of the study lie in its exploration of the complex relationships between students' motivation, IP and OILE experiences and their OILE use (OILE habits). No studies have combined these variables, and most importantly, OILE experiences have been neglected in existing OILE studies. However, according to Sockett (2014), learners' experiences offer more informative angles of investigation than OILE activities alone.

This study used a sequential design, through which quantitative data were collected and analysed before interviewees were chosen based on their profiles. Overall, the study confirmed that for this sample, the Ideal L2 self was the highest component of the L2MSS, followed by L2 learning experience, and that learners' Ought-to self had the lowest mean. However, the qualitative data enriched the understanding of learners' motivation and showed

that learners had different Ideal L2 selves for different skills and that science students had a stronger sense of future responsibility. Additionally, the study revealed that the participants have a low to moderate IP, so educators should consider promoting students' global outlook by developing course materials that enhance their IP. The study also found that IP is related to learners' motivation, and more specifically to their Ideal L2 selves, which supported the extant literature.

In terms of OILE habits and different OILE experiences, the students in this study are considered moderate to low OILE users, and they engage in a variety of OILE experiences, all of which contribute to the frequency of OILE use. Furthermore, learners' Ideal L2 selves and IP seemed to predict their OILE use, and the qualitative data confirmed this. Hence, it is valid to conclude that learners with a vivid Ideal L2 self and high IP might seek more OILE practice, confirming the findings of previous studies, which suggest that high Ideal L2 self and IP can lead to more communicative behaviour (Al-Shehri, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009a; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Yashima, 2013; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008).

In short, this mixed-methods study contributes to the burgeoning body of literature focused on connecting motivation and CALL, more specifically OILE. This subject area remains of keen interest to many L2 researchers, with several related publications emerging during the phase of conducting this study (Henry & Lamb, 2020; Lamb & Arisandy, 2019; Little & Al Wahaibi, 2017; Mills, 2018), all of which provided findings that are consistent with the findings of this study—namely, that learners' future vision or Ideal self and IP are associated with greater informal learning practice. Nevertheless, future research is needed in this new area of L2 research to address this generation's high use of the Internet, which most likely will continue to increase in the future.

## 7.8 Personal Reflection

Undertaking this study has strengthened my skills as a researcher and provided me with the necessary tools to embark on my path as an independent novice researcher. Delving into the area of motivation and informal learning has likewise broadened my horizons and my understanding of the new learning materials available for this generation. The participants of my study were 10 years younger than me and I have found that they are indeed privileged to be growing up in a world full of technological innovations. This has always reminded me of the struggle my parents faced to provide me and my siblings with informal learning language resources when we lived in the United States to practise Arabic, and then when we returned from the States back in the early 1990s the shift was towards informal learning resources to practise English while living in Saudi Arabia. We never had the full opportunity to practise the required languages, as media was not yet so advanced and was limited to video cassettes or TVs. At that time my parents struggled to find accessible informal learning resources. Nowadays, the advances of affordable new media are tremendous, and with the touch of a button, an individual can chat with native speakers of the target language and obtain a window to the world. New media are undoubtedly very valuable resources for practising the language in an authentic way; but the question always remains as to why students are engaging or not engaging in different new technologies using English. Students need to be motivated to utilise these resources and their agency, motivation and positive global outlook will either maximise or hinder the benefits they gain from the online resources. This highlights the importance of this study and the need for more studies in the area of OILE or technology use for informal language learning. As a researcher, there is no doubt that I will continue working in the area of informal language learning and the factors that affect the process of informal language learning as well as the role of the surrounding environment in learners' engagement with informal language learning.

## Appendices

### Appendix A: Questionnaire for the Pilot Study

(Paper version of the Online questionnaire)

Dear Students,

I would like to ask for your help in completing the following questionnaire concerning your online engagement with English and your views and practices as an English language student. Please read the consent form carefully, as it provides a detailed description of the study. If you decide to participate, please click “agree” to provide your consent and then click “start” to complete the online questionnaire.

Please note that this is not a test and there are no wrong answers. All that is required are your personal opinions and real experiences. The questionnaire consists of five parts. In each part, there are instructions along with examples. All you need to do is follow the instructions and click the appropriate answer. Most questions are multiple-choice questions, and you will rarely be asked to write anything. The questionnaire will take no longer than 25 minutes. At the end of the survey, you will receive a participation number. Please retain this number in case you wish to withdraw from the study. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection stage and up to one week after data collection.

Thank you very much for your help.

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Pilot study

#### Part 1

A-1 Which English class are you currently attending?

a-Level 2

b-Level 3

c- Level 4

B-2 What is your track of study?

a-Humanities

b-Science

## Part2

**Please choose the number from 1 to 5 that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please don't leave out any items.**

<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

1- I can imagine myself living abroad and having a conversation in English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
2- I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
3- I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
4- I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
5- I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
6- Learning English is necessary because my friends/parents/teachers/ other people expect me to do so.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
7- I consider learning English important because my friends/parents/teachers /other people I respect think that I should do it.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
8- I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends online.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
9- I study English because my friends/parents/teachers/other people think it is important.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
10- If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting my friends/parents/teachers /other people down.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
11- I like the atmosphere of my English classes.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
12- Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my friends/parents/teachers/ other people.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
13- I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
14- The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
15- I really enjoy learning English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
16- I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents/friends/teachers/ other people will be disappointed with me.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
17- I always look forward to English classes.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
18- Studying English is important to me because my friends/parents/teachers/ other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
19- I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
20- Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>



21- My friends/parents/ teachers/other people believe that I must study English to be an educated person.	1	2	3	4	5
22- Studying English is important to me because an English speaker person will have more job opportunity.	1	2	3	4	5
23- I find learning English really interesting.	1	2	3	4	5
24-Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Part 3:</b>					
25-I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can.	1	2	3	4	5
26-I am interested in an international career.	1	2	3	4	5
27-I would rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently.	1	2	3	4	5
28-I have no clear opinions about international issues.	1	2	3	4	5
29-I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.	1	2	3	4	5
30-I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.	1	2	3	4	5
31-I am not much interested in overseas news.	1	2	3	4	5
32-I would talk to an international student if there is one at the university.	1	2	3	4	5
33-I often read and watch news about foreign countries or international events.	1	2	3	4	5
34-I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues.	1	2	3	4	5
35-If an opportunity comes, I would like to make friends from other non-Arabic speaker countries.	1	2	3	4	5
36-I have a strong interest in international affairs.	1	2	3	4	5
37-I have issues to address with people in the world.	1	2	3	4	5
38-I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.	1	2	3	4	5
39- I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.	1	2	3	4	5
40-I would rather stay in my hometown.	1	2	3	4	5

**Part 4**

A-4 How many hours per day do you spend on the Internet?

- a- 1 to 2 hours
- b- 3 to 5 hours
- c- More than 5 hours
- d- Don't use it

If you do not use the Internet **at all**, please specify the reason(s) below and go to **section 5**:.....

B-4 Generally, when using the Internet which language do you use?

- a- Only Arabic.
- b- Mainly Arabic and some English.
- c- Only English.
- d- Mainly English and some Arabic.

*Please, choose the number from 1 to 5 that best expresses how often you do the following on an average week:*

<b>Almost Never</b>	<b>Once a week</b>	<b>Several times a week</b>	<b>Once a day</b>	<b>Several times a day</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

*How often do you.....*

41-Use the Internet to listen to English songs.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
42-Tweet in twitter using English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
43-Use instant text messages (what's app, Facebook messenger) to chat in English with friends.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
44- Talk On-line in English using voice services.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
45-Read written documents in English on the Internet.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
46-Use social network sites (twitter, Facebook..etc) to communicate with English speaking people.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
47-Watch English videos on YouTube.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
48-Read news in English on the Internet.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
49-Use the Internet to watch English movies.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
50-Chat online in English with people I have never met in person.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
51-Write emails in English outside the classroom.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
52-Use voice services to talk to people in English using (Skype, Snapchat and Facebook...etc).	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
53-Chat online with native or fluent speakers of English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

**Please choose the number from 1 to 5 that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements. Please don't leave out any items.**

<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

54-I use English online because it is very interesting and entertaining	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
55-I listen to English songs online to improve my English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
56-When I am online, I quite enjoy using English	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
57- I use English online to discuss different issues.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
58-My teachers encourage us to use English on social media.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
59-My friends encourage me to use English on online chat.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
60-I feel excited when I use English online.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
61-I chat online in English to improve my English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
62-I use English online for simple exchanges "Hello, Bye, Thank you".	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
63-My messages in English are getting longer/ more complicated.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
64-If I use English online, it's to interact with English speaking people.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
65- If I use English online it's mainly because my teacher recommends it.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
66-I watch English movies online to improve my English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
67-Using English online helps me to learn about different cultures.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
68- If I use English online, it's mainly because my friends do this.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
69-My parents encourage me to use English on the Internet.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
70-I use English online to make international friends.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

#### **Part 5**

Would you be willing to participate in a second phase of this research involving a short interview about your learning of English?

Yes

No

If 'Yes', please write your contact details here:

Mobile number \_\_\_\_\_

Email address \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you**

## **Appendix B: Interview Guide**

### **Interview Guide**

#### **Part 1: Introduction**

-Explaining the purpose of the study.

#### **Part 2: English learning at university**

- How is your experience of learning English so far?
- Do you like your English classroom environment?
- Do you enjoy learning English? Why or why not?

##### **2-b English Outside university**

-Do you use English outside your classroom?

#### **Part 3: Future selves (Ought-to & Ideal selves)**

- Where do you see yourselves after 10 years in terms of using English?
- Do you imagine yourself speaking English in the future?... with teachers/boss/colleagues/friends/family (online or face to face)?
- Do you think speaking English would be an important aspect of your personality, if your dreams come true in the future?... Do you think it will contribute in your success?... in what ways? .... or why not?
- Is it necessary/obligatory for you to learn English?. please give reasons ,,Why/ Why not?
- What is the opinion of your family/friends people about your learning of English?.... do you feel any pressure to learn English?

#### **Part 4: International posture**

- Do you think English is an international language (important means of communication) in the modern globalised world? Give reasons (Why/ Why not)?
- Do you think English help you make new friends? ..International friends (online)?
- Do you have a particular message that you would like to spread to the world?/are you interested in the news?

#### **Part 5: Informal online English learning**

- Do you think the Internet is part of your everyday routine? Why or why not? Do you use English language when online? Why or why not?
- If the student uses English online: How frequently do you use English? Can you describe the kind of the activities that you engage with? Why do use English online? In what why the experience of using English is different than Arabic?
- If the student prefers Arabic, Why so?
- Can you reflect on the level of your English interactions when online?
- Do you think that the use of social media in English might improve your English/Do you use English online with the intention of improving your English? Do you have any personal experience?
- Do your friends /teachers/ parents have any role in your use of English online?

## Appendix C: Participants' Information Sheet

### Motivation, International posture and Online informal English learning for Saudi University students

Dear student,

Alaa Alnajashi is currently carrying out a research project to investigate in details learners' online engagement with English, and how it relates to students' visions of the self and international posture. The study will investigate students' self-reported habits of online engagement with English and students' vision of the self. I invite you to take part in my PhD research study. Please read the following information carefully before starting to fill the online questionnaire.

#### **What would this mean for me?**

You have been selected for this study because you are one of the foundation year students at the university. By agreeing to participate you will be asked to fill in an online questionnaire during your class time. The questionnaire may take 10 to 15 minutes to complete. The second phase of the study will include a 20- minute interview regarding your English language experiences and your online engagement with English. You do not have to take part in both phases. You may choose to participate in the questionnaire only. Both stages will take place inside the university campus. The interview will be conducted at a convenient time to you. Your participation is entirely voluntarily.

#### **Anonymity**

The data that you provide (questionnaire and interview) will be stored by a code number. You will not be asked to give your name.

#### **Storing and using your data**

Data will be stored in a password protected computer. The data will be kept for five years (after the completion of my PhD study) after which time it will be destroyed. The data may be presented at conferences and in professional Journals, but participants will not be identified individually as the data will be anonymous. If you do not want your data to be included in any information shared as a result of this research, please do not sign this consent form.

#### **Withdrawal**

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection stage and up to one week after data collection. You can do this by sending an email to [aaia504@york.ac.uk](mailto:aaia504@york.ac.uk) stating your participation number. The participation number will appear on the screen after you complete the survey. Please, keep a record of this number as data is recorded anonymously and individual scripts can thus only be identified by this number and not your name. Also, you will be given the opportunity to comment on the written script of your interview.

#### **Information about confidentiality**

The data that I collect (written scripts of the interview/questionnaires) may be used in *anonymous* format in different ways. Please click "agree" on the online questionnaire if you are happy for this anonymised data to be used in the ways listed.

I hope that you will agree to take part. If you have any questions about the study that you would like to ask before giving consent or after the data collection, please feel free to contact me by email ([aaia504@york.ac.uk](mailto:aaia504@york.ac.uk)) , or the Chair of Ethics Committee via email: [education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk](mailto:education-research-administrator@york.ac.uk)

To open the online questionnaire, Scan the barcode through any barcode app available in your phone:



Or turn on the airdrop and the researcher will send the questionnaire to you.

Please read the consent form carefully and then click agree and start the questionnaire.

At the end of the questionnaire, you will receive a participation number. Please keep a record of this number by capturing the screen or you may write it here ( )

Please keep this information sheet for your own records.

**Thank you**

## Appendix D: Final Questionnaire

The Online questionnaire (Arabic version) is available in the following link:

[https://york.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV\\_78acEIEWqO9E18x](https://york.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_78acEIEWqO9E18x)

Dear Students,

I would like to ask for your help in completing the following questionnaire concerning your online engagement with English learning and your views and practice as an English language student. Please read the consent form carefully as it will give you a detailed description of the study. If you decide to participate, please sign the consent form and click 'start' to complete the online questionnaire.

Please note that this is not a test and there are no wrong answers. All that is required is your personal opinions and real experiences. The questionnaire consists of five parts. In each part, there are instructions along with examples. All you need to do is follow the instructions and click the appropriate answer. Most questions are multiple-choice questions, and you will rarely be asked to write anything. The questionnaire will take no longer than 25 minutes. At the end of the survey, you will receive a participation number. Please retain this number in case you wish to withdraw from the study. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time during the data collection stage and up to one week after data collection.

Thank you very much for your help.

Alaa Alnajashi  
([aaia504@york.ac.uk](mailto:aaia504@york.ac.uk))  
University of York  
York, UK

### Part 1

1-a Which English class are you currently attending?

- a-Level 2
- b-Level 3
- c- Level 4

2-b What is your track of study?

- a-Humanities
- b-Science

## Part2

**Please choose the number from 1 to 5 that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

1-I can imagine myself living abroad and having a conversation in English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
2-I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
3-I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends online.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
4-I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
5-I can imagine myself writing English e-mails fluently.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
6-Learning English is necessary because my friends/parents/teachers/ other people expect me to do so.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
7-I consider learning English important because my friends/parents/teachers /other people I respect think that I should do it.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
8- I can imagine myself living abroad and using English effectively for communicating with the locals.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
9- I study English because my friends/parents/teachers/other people think it is important.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
10- If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting my friends/parents/teachers /other people down.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
11-I like the atmosphere of my English classes.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
12- Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my friends/parents/teachers/ other people.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
13-I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
14-The things I want to do in the future require me to use English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
15-I really enjoy learning English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
16- I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents/friends/teachers/ other people will be disappointed with me.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
17-I always look forward to English classes.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
18- Studying English is important to me because my friends/parents/teachers/other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
19-I can imagine a situation where I am speaking English with foreigners.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>





*Please, choose the number from 1 to 5 that best expresses how often you do the following on an average week:*

<b>Almost Never</b>	<b>Once a week</b>	<b>Several times a week</b>	<b>Once a day</b>	<b>Several times a day</b>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

*How often do you.....*

37- Read news in English on the Internet.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
38-Tweet in twitter using English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
39-Use instant text messages (what's app, Facebook messenger) to chat in English with friends.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
40- Talk On-line in English using voice services.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
41-Read written documents in English on the Internet.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
42-Use social network sites (twitter, Facebook..etc) to communicate with English speaking people.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
43-Watch English videos on YouTube.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
44- Use the Internet to listen to English songs.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
45-Use the Internet to watch English movies.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
46-Chat online in English with people I have never met in person.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
47-Write emails in English outside the classroom.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
48-Use voice services such as (snapchat, Tango, facebook) to talk to people in English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
49-Chat online with native or fluent speakers of English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

**Please choose the number from 1 to 5 that best expresses how much you agree or disagree with the following statements.**

<i>Strongly disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly agree</i>
<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

50-I use English online because it is very interesting and entertaining	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
51-I listen to English songs online to improve my English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
52-When I am online, I quite enjoy using English	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
53- I use English online to discuss different issues.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
54-My teachers encourage us to use English on social media.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
55-My friends encourage me to use English on online chat.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
56-I feel excited when I use English online.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
57-I chat online in English to improve my English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
58-I use English online for simple exchanges “Hello, Bye, Thank you”.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
59-My messages in English are getting longer/ more complicated.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
60-If I use English online, it’s to interact with English speaking people.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
61- If I use English online it’s mainly because my teacher recommends it.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
62-I watch English movies online to improve my English.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
63-Using English online helps me to learn about different cultures.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
64-My parents encourage me to make international friends online.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
65- If I use English online, it’s mainly because my friends do this.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>
66-I use English online to make international friends.	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>5</b>

**Part 5**

Would you be willing to participate in a second phase of this research involving a short interview about your learning of English?

Yes

No

If ‘Yes’, please write your contact details here:

Mobile number \_\_\_\_\_

Email address \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you**

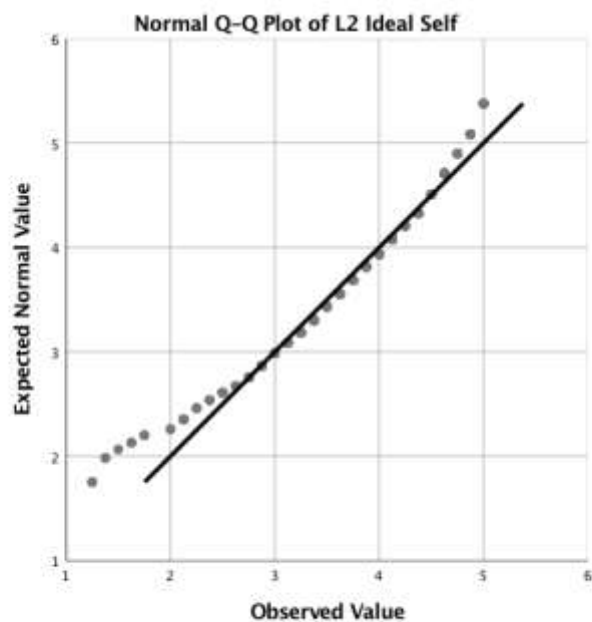
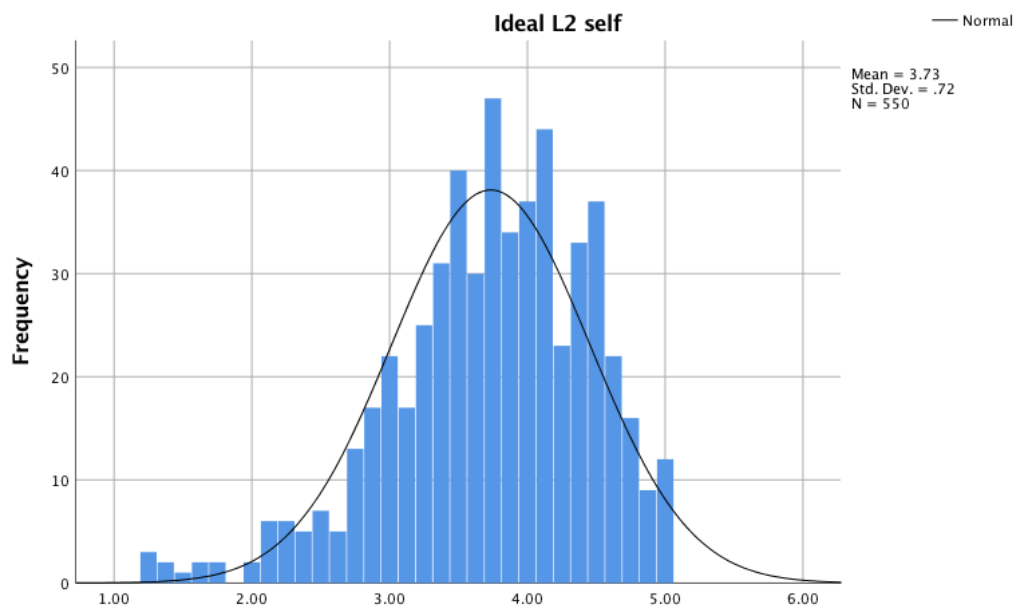
## Appendix E: Interviewees' Motivational Profiles

### Motivational profiles for the Interviewees

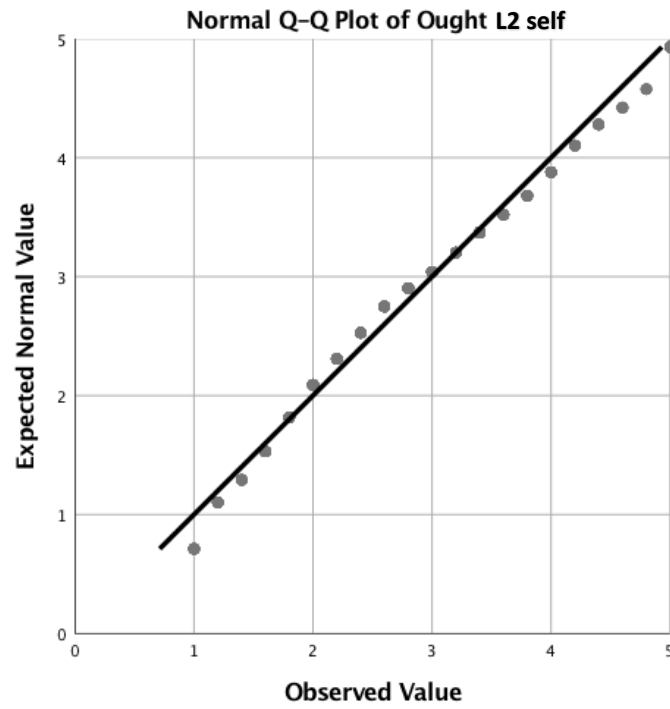
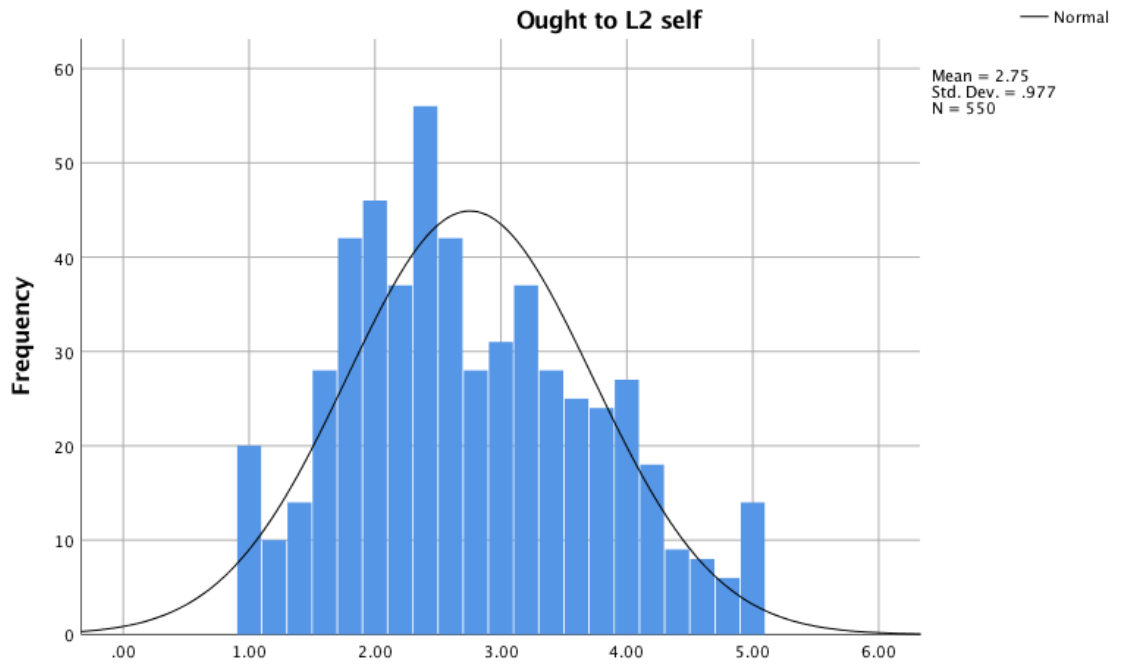
No.	Ideal	Ought	IP	Participant no
1	High	Low	Neutral	8755
2	High	High	Neutral	6739
3	Neutral	Low	Low	9995
4	High	Neutral	Low	9335
5	High	Neutral	Low	684
6	High	High	Neutral	9074
7	High	High	High	5120
8	High	Neutral	High	7518
9	High	Low	High	5591
10	High	High	High	9596
11	High	High	High	6356
12	High	High	High	3374
13	High	High	Low	4305
14	Neutral	High	Neutral	3636
15	High	High	High	4969
16	High	Neutral	Low	6258
17	Low	Low	Neutral	2111

## Appendix F: Histograms and Q-Q Plots of the variables

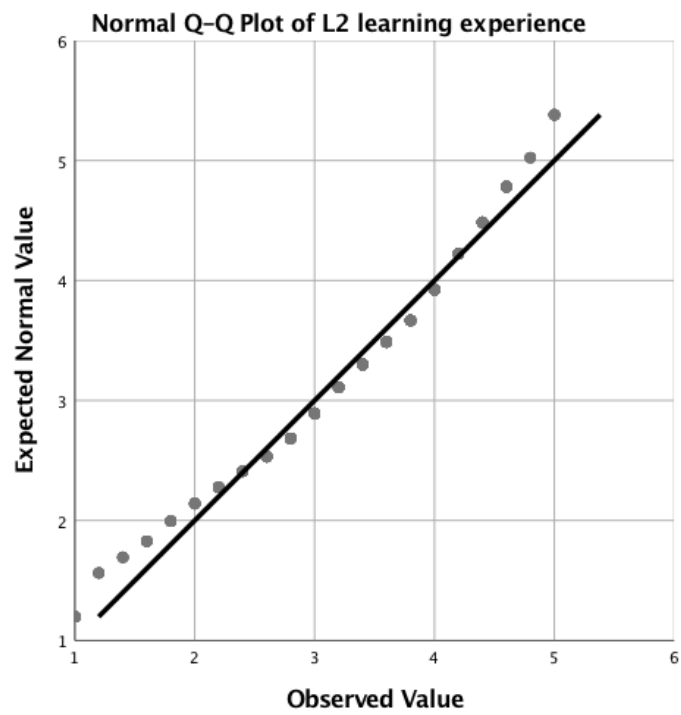
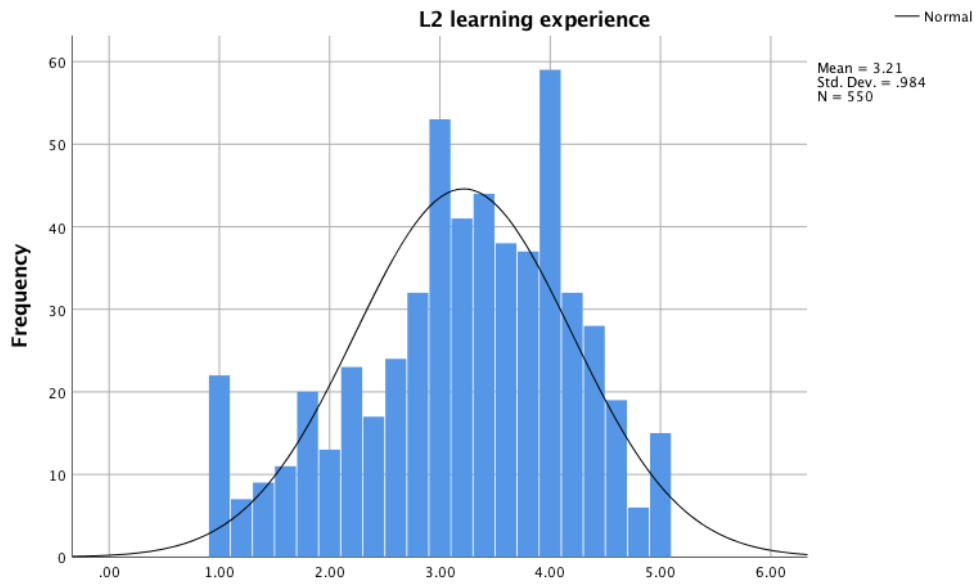
### 1) Ideal L2 self



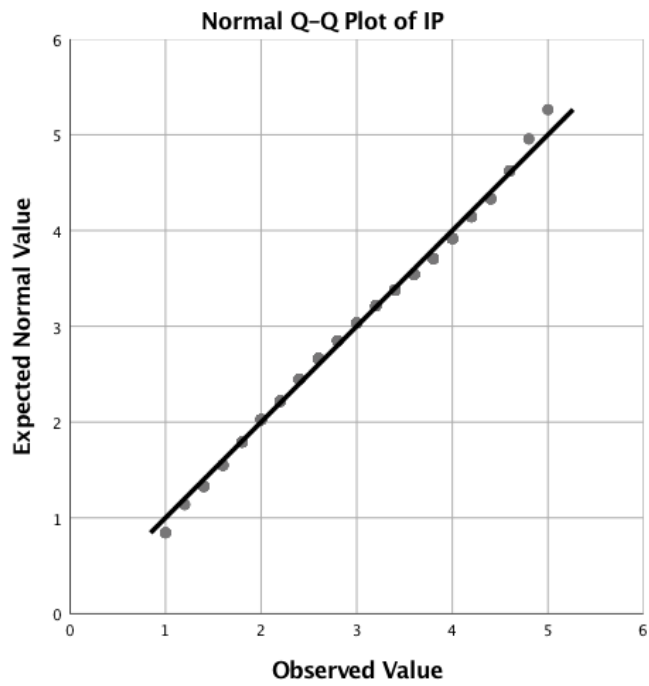
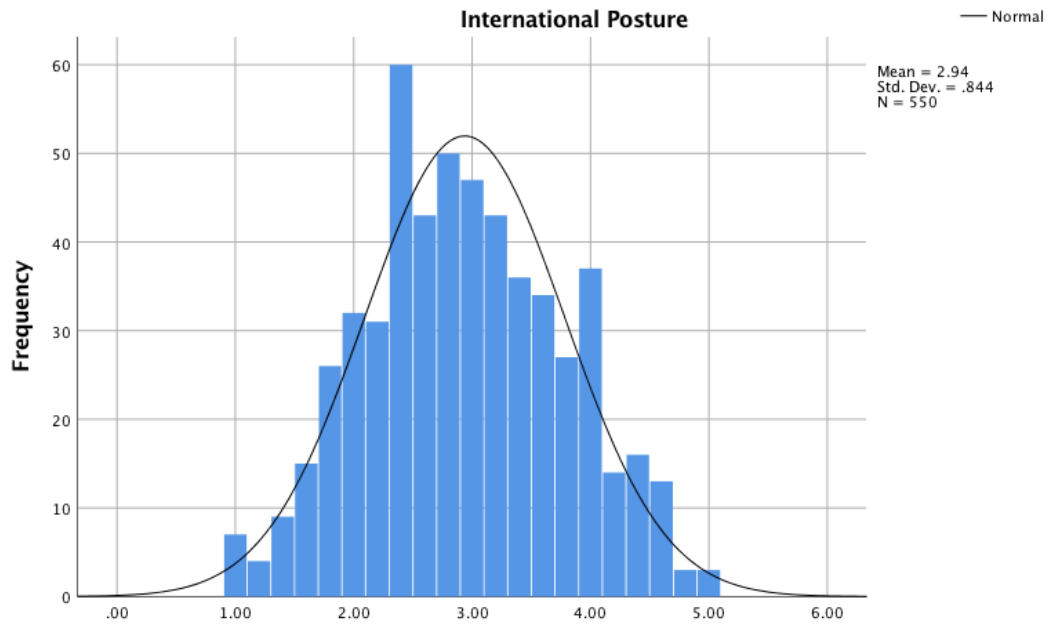
## 2) Ought to L2 self



### 3)L2 Learning experience

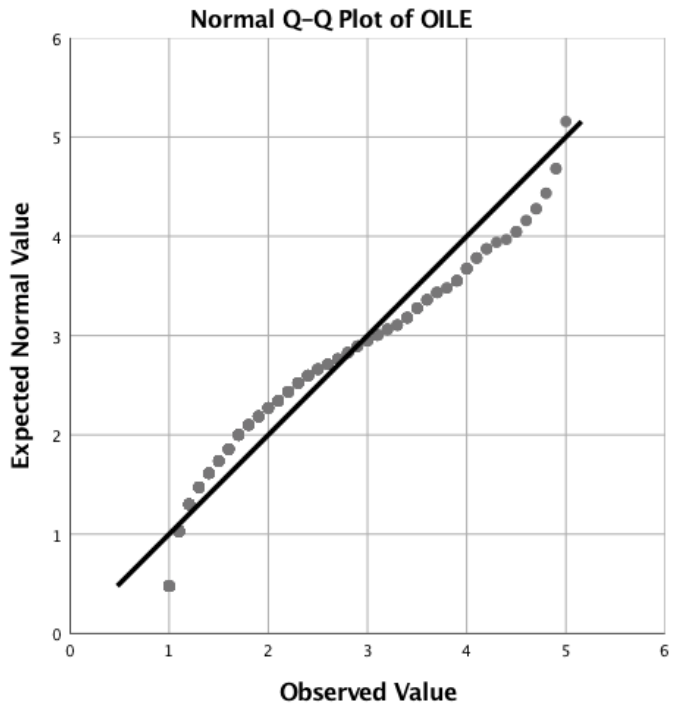
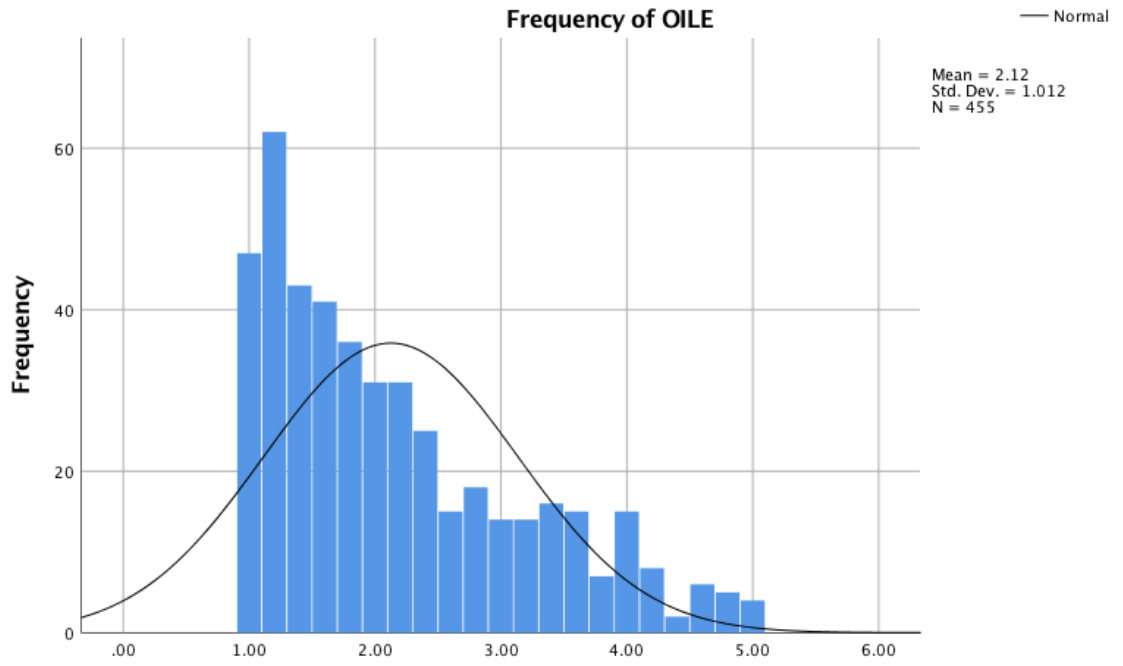


#### 4)International Posture

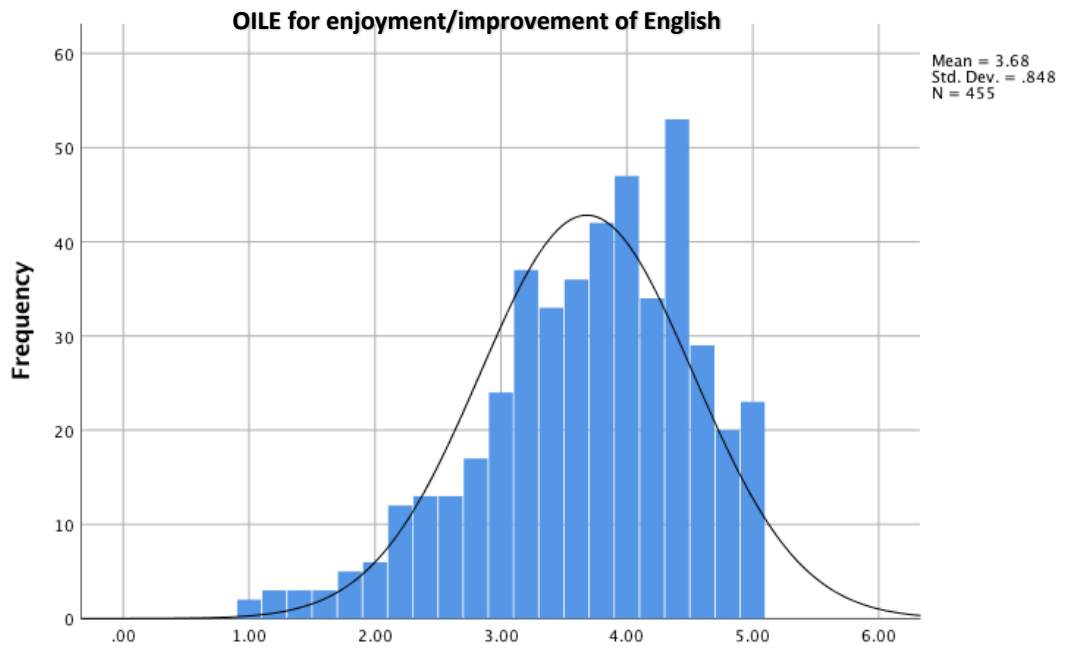




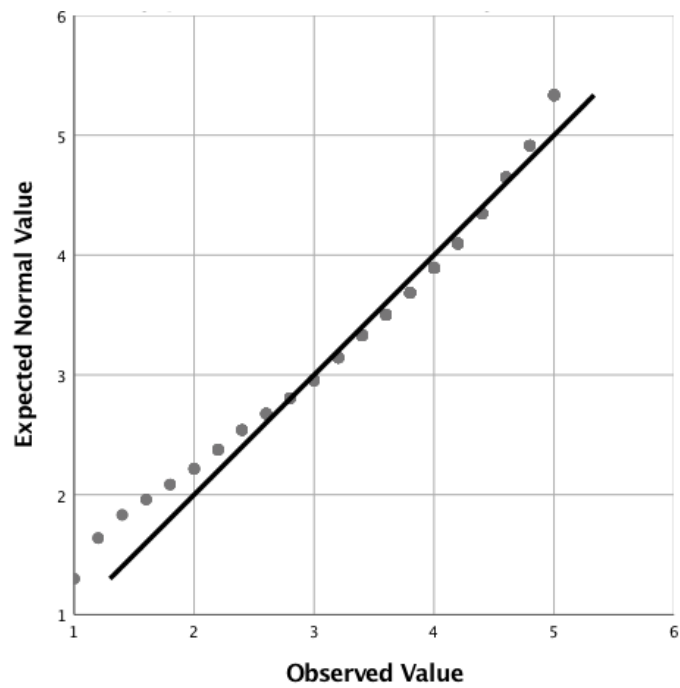
### 5)OILE frequency



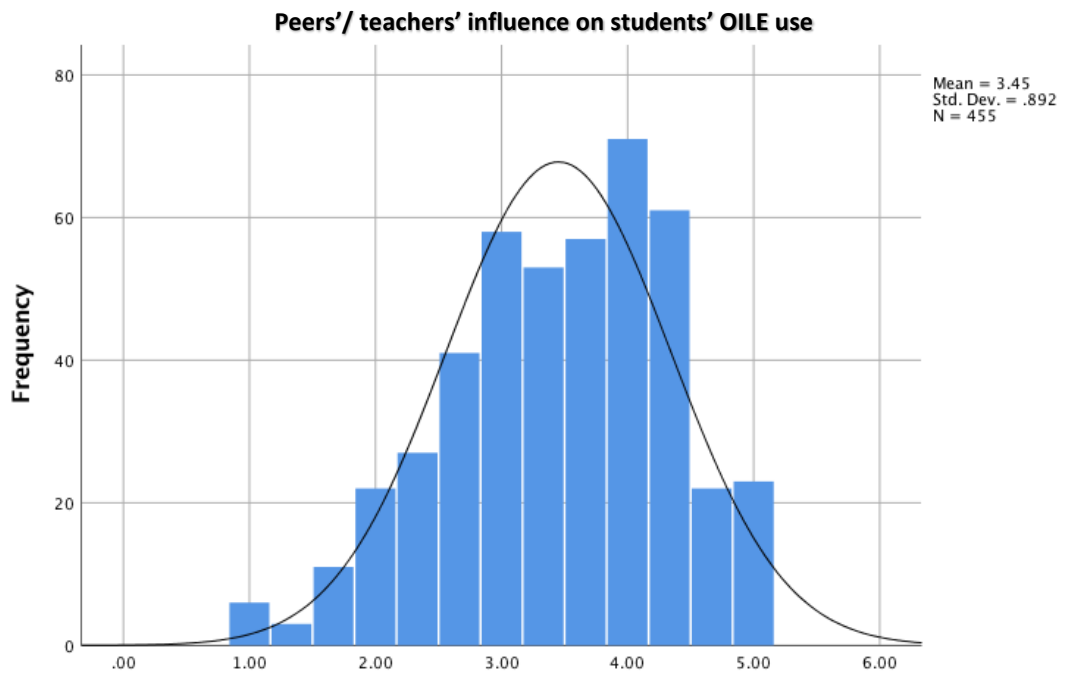
6) OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English language



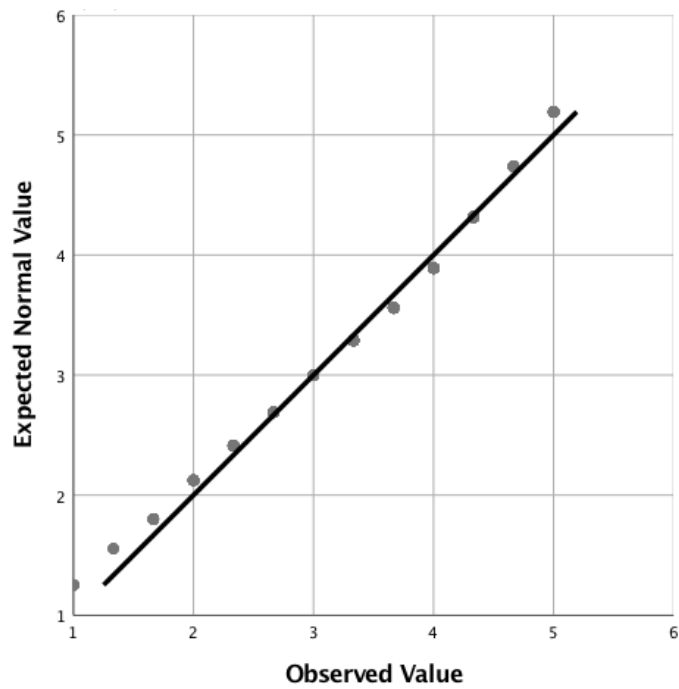
Normal Q-Q Plot for OILE for enjoyment/improvement of English



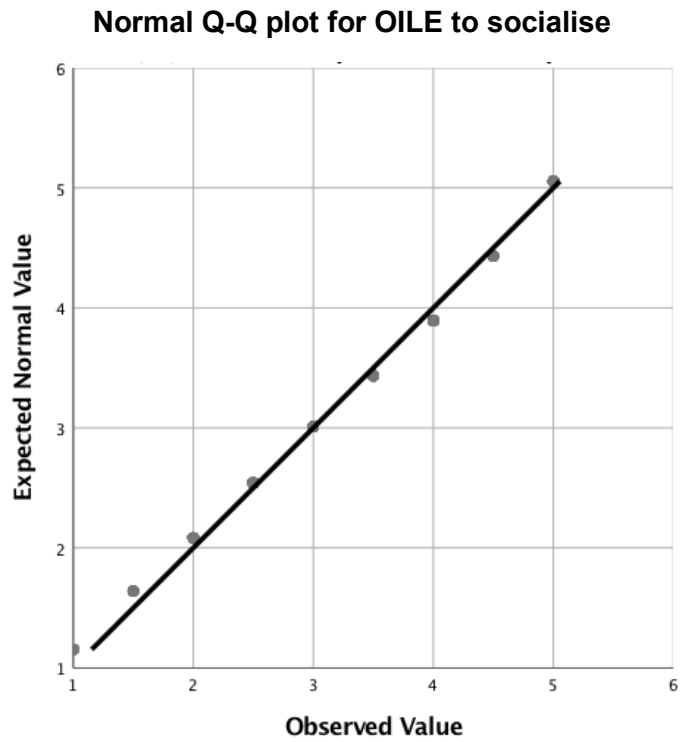
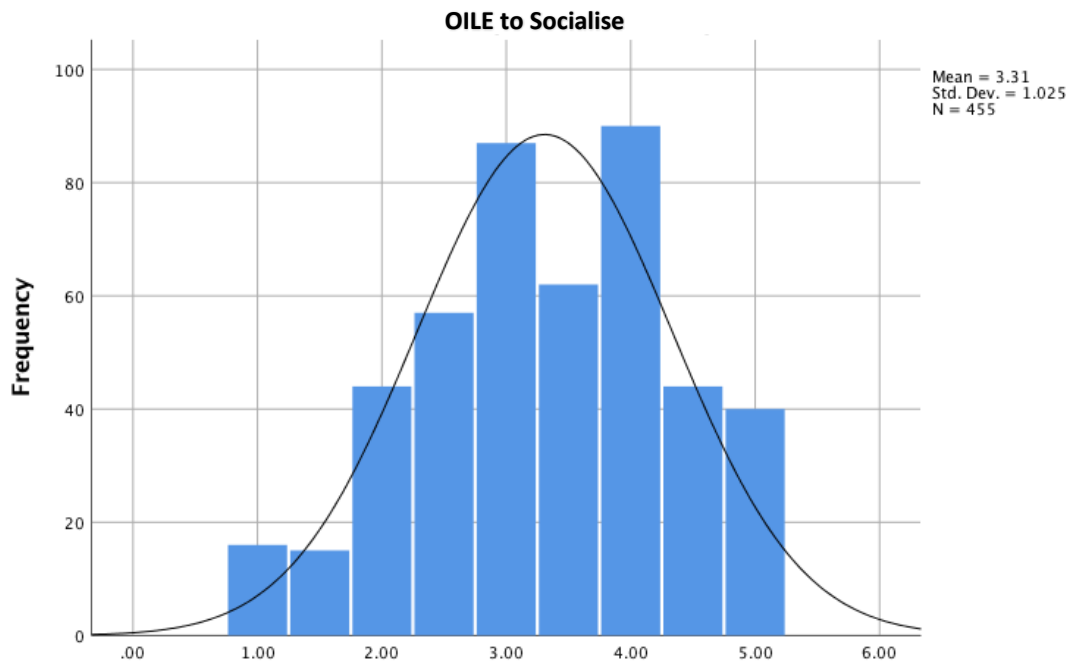
7)Influence of Peers and teachers on students' OILE use



Normal Q-Q Plot for peers'/teachers' influence on students' OILE use



8)OILE to socialise



## **Appendix G: Predefined Themes**

### **Predefined themes based on the interview questions (before coding the Interviews)**

Deductive approach

1) Learning English in General

- a) Experience of learning English
- b) English classroom environment
- c) Enjoyment of English learning

2) English learning outside the university

- a) Formal
- b) Informal

3) Ideal L2 self

- a) Future English-speaking self
- b) English to realise future dreams

4) Ought-to L2 self

- a) English is obligatory
- b) Opinions of others on the process of learning English/ to meet others' expectations

5) International Posture

- a) English is an international language
- b) International friends online using English
- c) Interest in international news

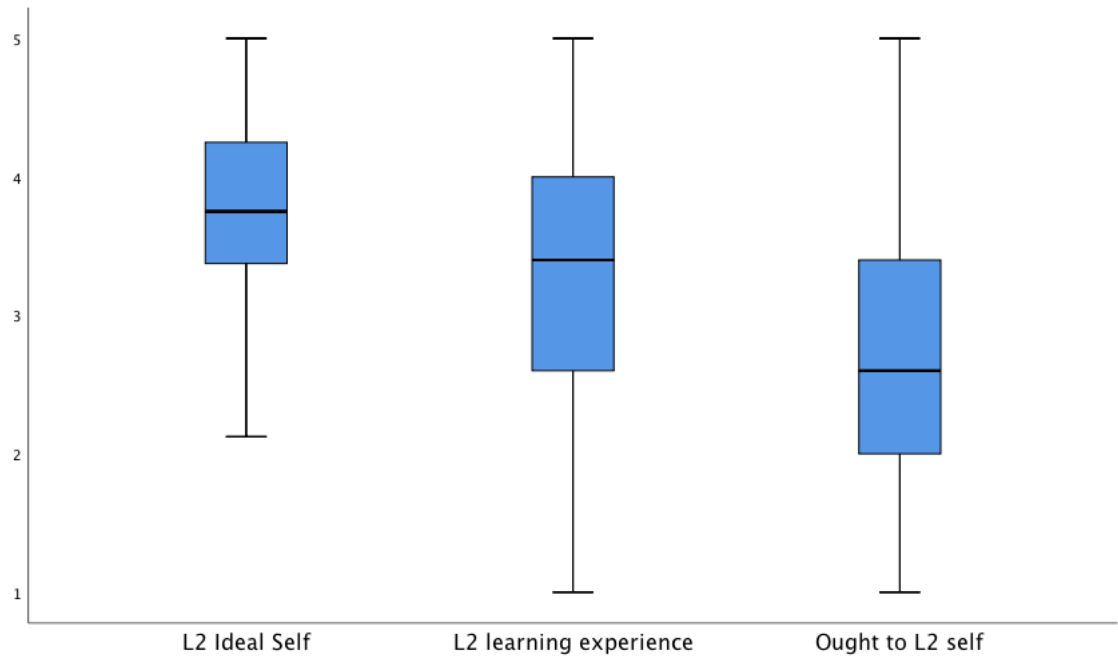
6) Informal online English learning (OILE)

- a) Internet use in general
- b) Frequency of English use online (OILE habits)
- c) Reasons for Arabic preference when online.
- d) Self-reflection on learner's level of English when online
- e) Experience of engaging with OILE
  - 1-Desire to improve English online
  - 2-Influence of the immediate environment on online use
  - 3-Enjoyment of OILE
  - 4-Socialising via OILE

## Appendix H: Screenshot of the Excel Sheet Used in the Analysis

Pattern	participant numbers	Profiles			I2 learning experie	ideal self			ought to self			IP			I2 learning experience			Quant OLE	
		Ideal	ought	IP		(+)	(-/+)	(-)	(+)	(-/+)	(-)	(+)	(-/+)	(-)	(+)	(-/+)	(-)		
High I2 ideal	Interviewee 12	High	High	High	neutral	1	1	2	1	3	2	1	2	1	3	1	3	low	
	Interviewee 3	High	High	High	neutral	4		4		1	1	1	3	1	1	3	1	3	neutral
	Interviewee 8	High	High	High	high	2		2		1	3	2	1	2	1	2		2	low
strong ought	Interviewee 13	High	High	High	high	2		4		1	2	1	2	1	3	2		2	high
	Interviewee 5	High	Neutral	High	high	2		3		1	2	1	2	1	7	1		2	low
	Interviewee 2	High	High	High	low	3	1	4		1	2	1	1	1	1	1		3	neutral
High IP	Interviewee 16	Neutral	Low	Low	low	1	0	2		2	2	2	2	2	2	2		1	low
	Interviewee 10	Neutral	High	Neutral	high	1	1	5			2	1	1		1			1	neutral
neutral/ideal	Interviewee 6	High	Neutral	Low	neutral	2		3		1	2	1	2	1	1			3	neutral
	Interviewee 15	High	Neutral	Low	high	2		3		1	1	2	1	4	1			1	low
	Interviewee 17	High	High	Neutral	high	1	1	1		1	2	1	1	6	1			2	low
Neutral Ought to selves	Interviewee 9	High	High	Neutral	high	3		1		1	1	1	2	3	1			3	low
	Interviewee 11	High	Low	Neutral	high	2		2		1	1	1	2	2	1			1	low
	Interviewee 4	High	Low	High	high	2		1		1	2	1	2	2	1			1	high
Low I2 ideal self	Interviewee 1	High	Low	Neutral	low	2	2	5		2	2	4	6	1	1			1	low
	Interviewee 11	High	High	Low	high	3		4			2	2	1					4	neutral
Low ought to selves	Interviewee 14	High	Neutral	Low	high	1		1		1	1	2	2	2	2			2	low
	Interviewee 7	Low	High	Neutral	low	1	1	2		1	1	1	1	1	1			2	low

## Appendix I: Boxplots for the L2MSS Components



**Appendix J: Overall Interviewees' Profiles (Motivation, IP  
and OILE Use)**

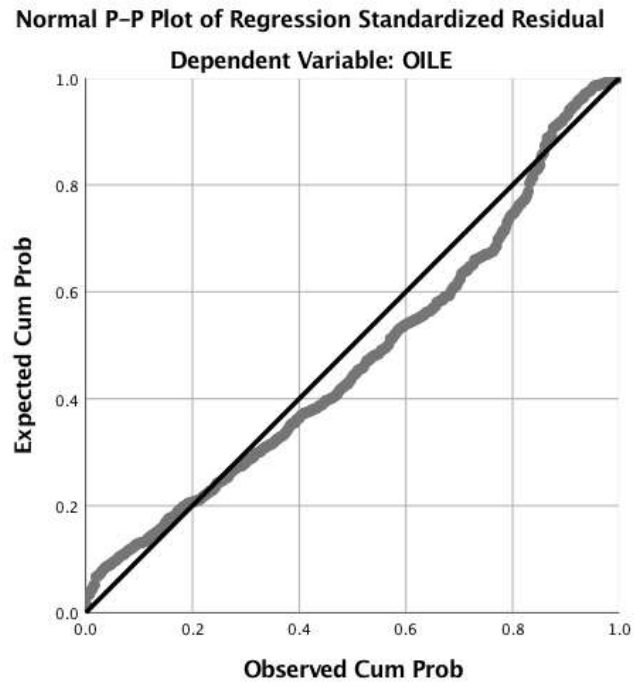
**Overall Profiles of the Interviewees**

No.	Ideal L2 self	Ought to L2 self	IP	L2 learning experience	Use of OILE	Participant no
Interviewee 1	High	Low	Neutral	Neutral	Low	8755
Interviewee 2	High	High	High	Neutral	Neutral	3374
Interviewee 3	High	High	High	High	Neutral	9596
Interviewee 4	High	Low	High	High	High	5591
Interviewee 5	High	Neutral	High	High	Low	7518
Interviewee 6	High	Neutral	Low	Low	Neutral	684
Interviewee 7	Low	High	Neutral	Low	Non-user	2838*
Interviewee 8	High	High	High	High	Low	5120
Interviewee 9	High	High	Neutral	Neutral	Low	9074
Interviewee 10	Neutral	High	Neutral	High	Neutral	3636
Interviewee 11	High	High	Low	High	Neutral	4305
Interviewee 12	High	High	High	High	Low	4969
Interviewee 13	High	High	High	High	High	6356
Interviewee 14	High	Neutral	Low	High	Low	6258
Interviewee 15	High	Neutral	Low	Low	Low	9335
Interviewee 16	Neutral	Low	Low	High	Low	9995
Interviewee 17	High	High	Neutral	High	Low	6739
Interviewee 18	Low	Low	Neutral	Low	Non-user	2111
Interviewee 19	Neutral	High	Neutral	Neutral	Non-user	*2739



## Appendix K: P-P Plot for the Multiple Regression Analysis

Normal P-P plot for regression analysis using OILE as dependent variable (Backward entry)



## Abbreviations

CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CTL	Commonly Taught Languages
ELI	English Language Institute
GPA	Grade Point Average
h/w	Hours per Week
ICC	Intercultural Contact
IELTS	International English Language Testing Services
IP	International Posture
KAU	King Abdullaziz University
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
LBC	Language Learning Beyond the Classroom
LCTL	Less Commonly Taught Languages
L2	Second Language
L2MSS	L2 Motivational Self System
MTUAS	Media and Technology Usage and Attitudes Scale
NNS	Non-Native Speakers
No.	Number
OILE	Online Informal Learning of English
OOPT	Oxford Online Placement Test
PC	Personal Computer
QUAN	Quantitative
QUAL	Qualitative
SDT	Self Determination Theory
WTC	Willingness to Communicate
WV	Wimb Voice

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