

The Use of Smartphones and Task-Based Language Teaching to Motivate Female
Saudi EFL Learners in Reading Classrooms

by

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ABSTRACT

Saudi students usually spend nine years studying English as a foreign language in compulsory school courses, yet they still enter the first year of university with low proficiency levels (A2 CEFR). One major issue is low motivation amongst learners due to the teacher-centred nature of the classroom and the lack of stimulating tasks in the students' course books. Research has shown that combining the use of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) with Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL) could help shift the learning process to be student-centred, and provide students with motivating activities. Although TBLT and MALL have been valued areas of research worldwide, the combination of both fields remains under-researched. Furthermore, a considerable amount of research has examined language learning and technology in Saudi Arabia, based on students' perceptions, without carrying out actual classroom experiments. This study aimed to investigate the use of smartphone-mediated TBLT to motivate Saudi female learners in reading classrooms.

In order to do this, the study used mixed methods and mobile tasks informed by the Self-Determination Theory. The participants were three groups of B1-level (CEFR) EFL students at King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. One group was taught using the traditional PPP method, the second with a task-based approach, and the third using a set of mobile tasks that were designed for this study. Data were collected using pre-tests and post-tests, observations, questionnaires, and focus groups.

The results showed that the experimental group scored significantly higher in terms of achievement, attention, participation, and volunteering. Students in the mobile group also described the aspects of mobile tasks that contributed to their motivation, and revealed positive attitudes towards the reading course. The findings of this study can encourage teachers to design effective mobile tasks to motivate their students in

meaningful reading activities. Lastly, this study proposes further research using a longitudinal research design.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

App	Application
CALL	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELI	English Language Institute
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
E-Learning	Electronic Learning
HTML	Hyper Text Mark-up Language
ICML	International Conference on Mobile Learning
ICT	Information and Communications Technology
KAU	King Abdulaziz University
L2	Second Language
MALL	Mobile-Assisted Language Learning
MFL	Modern Foreign Language
M-Learning	Mobile Learning
MTBLT	Mobile Task-Based Language Teaching
MOLT	Motivational Orientation of Language Teaching
OOPT	Oxford Online Placement Test
PPP	Present, Practice, Produce
PDA	Personal Digital Assistant
PYP	Preparatory Year Programme
SDT	Self-Determination Theory

SMS	Short Messaging System
TBLT	Task-Based Language Teaching
UCLAN	University of Central Lancashire
WMTE	Workshop on Mobile and Wireless Technologies in Education

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background of the study

The Saudi Ministry of Education introduced English classes to public schools from the age of nine (grade four) in 2014. Students then spend nine years studying English as a Foreign Language (EFL) until they reach the first year of university at the age of 18. Despite the amount of time and energy spent on EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia, the majority of students reach the first year of their higher education level with A2 CEFR English proficiency, which is considered very low (Al-Nasser, 2015; Al-Qahtani, 2016; Rahman & Alhaisony, 2013). This low achievement is attributed to a number of factors, such as lack of students' motivation (Liton, 2013), traditional teacher-centred and grade driven teaching instruction (Al-Seghayer, 2014), and lack of authentic resources (Shah, Hussain & Naseef, 2013), among others.

The author of this thesis is has also been a language instructor in a Saudi university for six years, and has observed low students' motivation through their refraining from participating in classroom activities. Saudi researchers have investigated this lack of motivation in Saudi students and suggested changes to teaching approaches and the use of technology to aid students' language learning in classrooms (Alrabai, 2016; Al-Seghayer, 2014). Furthermore, the Ministry of Higher Education launched a programme to invite all higher educational institutions to implement the use of the latest technology to enhance the learning process and outcome (Ministry of Higher Education, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Deputyship of Planning and Information (2010). Hence, this study contributes to understanding how the use of technology with different teaching methods impacts the motivation, and consequently the achievement levels, of Saudi EFL students.

The use of mobile tasks in this study refers to a combination of two approaches to language teaching. The first is the Task-Based Language Teaching approach (TBLT), which has unique features of a language task that is different from a drill or exercise. Furthermore, TBLT is a form of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which suggests that language is best acquired through communication rather than the sole focus on language features such as grammar and vocabulary (Nunan, 2004; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). The second is Mobile-Assisted Language Learning (MALL), which is an approach to language teaching that uses mobile technology to deliver, as well as facilitate, language learning in the digital age (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013; Kukulska-Hulme, 2010).

Combining these two approaches (TBLT and MALL) is recently gaining interest amongst language scholars and is now identified by technology-mediated TBLT (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). The term ‘mobile task’ was used specifically in this study because it refers to the two key elements from those methods: smartphones, the pedagogical delivery tool in MALL, and tasks, the basic principles of TBLT. This thesis extends the literature on this emerging approach to language by investigating the influence of using smartphones tasks on learners’ perceived and actual motivation in the classroom. Furthermore, it expands the existing research in the Saudi context that is heavily based on exploring perceptions by employing an experimental approach to investigate learners’ motivation.

This chapter first introduces the context of English teaching and learning in Saudi Arabia, and then discusses the issues that this research aims to investigate. The next section sets the scene on English language in Saudi Arabia, and how it is taught and used as a foreign language. It also discusses the modular system that is used in King Abdulaziz University (KAU) in particular, because the study was conducted there.

Next, an overview of the related studies of MALL and students' motivation is presented. Finally, a rationale for mobile tasks and definitions of key terms is provided.

1.1.1 EFL in Saudi Arabia

Male and female students are segregated in separate schools and university campuses for cultural and religious considerations. For example, a female school has only female students, teachers, and administrative personnel. Arabic is the official language in Saudi Arabia, where it is used in all government and most private sectors across the country. English is spoken and used as a foreign language, usually in medical and aviation professions (Al-Shammari, 2007). The Ministry of Education realised the importance of English as a means of communication and globalisation, and hence, it introduced English as a compulsory subject in schools starting from grade six. This was later changed, in 2014, to be taught as early as the age of nine in fourth grade (Alrabai, 2016). There are twelve grades in the educational system, starting from the age of six until the age of seventeen; students continue their higher education in universities when they are eighteen.

In schools, students have to attend two English classes every week and have mid and final term examinations to progress to the next grade. In most public Saudi universities, the system requires all students to pass their preparatory year (also called foundation year), in which they study general courses of English and other subjects. Furthermore, all science departments in public and private universities must use English as a medium of instruction (Ahmad, Ali, Spira & Taj, 2017). The Saudi government has recognised the importance of teaching English as a global language because it is the language of science and technology that plays a crucial role in the development of the country. A good example of this is King Abdullah's scholarship program which encourages Saudi students to study abroad in various fields (Khan, 2011). Considerable

efforts have been made by the Ministry of Education to reform and promote English Language Teaching amongst Saudi learners by training teachers and providing learning materials and resources (Al-Khairy, 2013; Khan, 2011).

In King Abdulaziz University, the Preparatory Year Programme (PYP) provides mandatory courses for new students (Liton, 2013). The English Language Institute (ELI) is responsible for the General English courses that are divided into levels. The following information was taken from the ELI Faculty Handbook (2015) that is available on the Internet. The ELI provides language courses to more than 13,000 male and female students and employs more than 600 qualified language instructors in both male and female campuses. If students in the PYP wanted to be exempted from attending the English courses, they must provide evidence of either an IELTS test (4.5 and above) or iBT TOEFL score of 75 and above. Otherwise, all students must undertake the Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT) to determine their proficiency level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). After the placement test, students are divided into four levels of English, starting from A1 (beginner) to B1 (intermediate). Most students start at the beginner level and have to complete the four levels.

Each academic semester has two modules; each module is six or seven academic weeks with 18 hours of classes a week. Each module is considered one level of English with its curriculum and final examinations. Students must pass each module until they reach the fourth level (B1 CERF). The English Unlimited Special Edition series 2014 (Cambridge University Press) was chosen to replace the Headway Plus series (Oxford University Press) as the primary teaching material since 2015. Figure 1.1 shows the four textbooks according to the four English levels (CEFR).

A1	A2	B1	B1+
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •English Unlimited, Special Edition, Starter Course Book 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •English Unlimited, Special Edition, Elementary Course Book 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •English Unlimited, Special Edition, Pre-Intermediate Course Book 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •English Unlimited, Special Edition, Intermediate Course Book

Figure 1.1 ELI's four English levels and textbooks for PYP students since 2015

To sum up, the educational system in Saudi Arabia provides obligatory English language courses in all schools and universities. Because the Ministry of Education recognised the importance of English language as a lingua franca and means to economic success, it has spared no effort in updating the language course curriculum and providing support for teachers and students (Khan, 2011). Finally, the focus of this thesis was on female learners, because male and female students are segregated in Saudi Arabia, and the researcher had no access to the male campus to conduct this study. The next section gives a brief overview of some of the studies that are related to the topic of this research on students' motivation and MALL to provide a rationale for the use of mobile tasks.

1.1.2 Related research

Since the start of the twenty-first century, advances in mobile technology have played a significant role in research in the field of language teaching and learning (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013; Kern, Ware & Warschauer, 2004; Kukulaska-Hulme, 2005; Stockwell, 2012; Warschauer, 1996). A specific interest in smartphones has emerged because of the portability and the features that made these devices an essential commodity in the global world (Godwin-Jones, 2017).

A study by Solares (2014) could be considered the closest to the current research of this thesis in terms of research scope. Her study focused on the use of TBLT and mobile tasks on students' motivation and achievement at the National Autonomous University of Mexico. The results from the writing tests revealed promising effects on the writing abilities of students who use mobile tasks. The other findings from the questionnaire and interviews showed significant improvement in students' overall motivation in attitudes and engagement. However, the current study focused on reading skills rather than writing, and employed different data collection methods such as classroom observation. Another study by Ciampa (2014), which was informed by Lepper and Malone's (1987) taxonomy of intrinsic motivation, designed mobile tasks which promoted students' challenge, curiosity, control, recognition, competition, and cooperation. The participants were twenty-four elementary class students who were significantly motivated using the mobile tasks.

In the context of Saudi Arabia, Almekhalfy and Alzubi (2016) conducted a study on the use of the smartphone app for instant messaging (WhatsApp) on forty undergraduate male students at a Saudi university. They used chat sessions to encourage students to discuss various topics with each other and exchange images and other multimedia materials outside the classroom. Their findings showed that the participants adapted to the virtual environment and started to practise what they had learned in the classroom. Furthermore, students felt more motivated to learn collaboratively with their peers in informal settings outside the classroom.

Similarly, Sarhandi, Bajnaid, and Elyas (2017) experimented on undergraduate students with the use of smartphone-based activities to investigate students' engagement. The experimental group outperformed the control group in performance, speed, and overall involvement with the tasks. Khrisat and Mahmoud (2013) also contributed to the research literature by examining the effects of using mobile phones

on learners' achievement and attitudes. Other studies examined the use of social media on language (Ahmad, Ali, Spira & Taj, 2017) and Web Quests (Alshumaimeri & Almasri, 2012). The majority of research was mainly focused on the general use, applicability and acceptance of using smartphones by teachers and students (Ahmed, 2015; Alamer, 2015; Al-Fahad, 2009; Al-Seghayer, 2016; AlTameemy, 2017; Nalliveetil & Alenazi, 2016).

Most of the research in the area of mobile tasks and motivation in Saudi Arabia has not examined motivational behaviour in the classroom, such as students' attention and participation in the tasks. Furthermore, the mobile activities have not stemmed from a specified pedagogy or been informed by motivational theories. Finally, most studies have been conducted in male campuses, and less research has targeted female students. Hence, this research provides a unique perspective on this rapidly growing field by examining the effect of mobile tasks on Saudi female learners' motivation.

1.1.3 Definitions of key terms

This section briefly introduces the key terms and concepts that are used throughout this thesis and will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2. Each term presents the definition that was selected carefully for this study from various explanations in the literature.

Traditional Teaching: In the context of this study, a traditional teaching method comprises of several elements. First, the teacher must follow a fixed curriculum, usually based on generic paper-based textbooks. Second, teachers are the providers of knowledge and students are the receivers. Third, the focus of most exercises is on form (grammar, spelling) and little or no focus on meaning.

Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL): The use of mobile technology to assist language learning provides teachers with potentially powerful tools. Some of

the main features of portable electronic devices offer the user mobility, interaction with others, collaboration, and connectivity to learning materials (Burston, 2014). Mobile devices in this study are related to smartphones and other smart devices such as tablets and iPods.

Presentation, Practice, Produce (PPP): This approach to language teaching consists of three parts in each reading lesson. The first is where the teacher presents the material that will be covered, like the reading topic, grammar, and vocabulary. The second part is where students practise what the teacher presented by reading a passage and answering some questions from their textbooks. The final stage is where students have to apply what they have learned with written or oral production. The main focus is on the form, and the teacher is the content deliverer and facilitator.

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT): This approach to language teaching used tasks as the main tools for learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The significance of this communicative approach is that the focus tends to be on the meaning rather than the form (Skehan, 2003). This study used the task-supported version of TBLT, where tasks are important to the language development and are only one element of the syllabus (Ellis, 2003).

Task: A task is what students engage with to achieve a goal through the use of the language (Van den Branden, 2006). Since this study focused on reading, the tasks offer the students opportunities to engage with texts from their textbooks and other sources. This study adopts Ellis' task cycle (2003), in which a lesson is divided into three tasks. The pre-task phase introduces new vocabulary and topics of the main task. The main task is where students read a passage and produce an outcome. The post-task repeats a similar task to the main one and engages the students in collaborative work. The tasks focus on meaning as well as form, and they are not designed to target linguistic forms specifically.

Mobile Task: Guided by the definition of the task, mobile tasks are mainly carried out through the use of the students' personal smartphones. In case any of the participants did not carry a smartphone, the researcher was willing to provide tablets. However, 100% of the participants in the pilot and the main study owned personal smartphones and the use of tablets was not necessary. Instead of using textbooks or paper-based materials, the students in the experimental group used their smartphones to engage in tasks designed for this study with the use of two software websites that were available as mobile apps: Socrative for teacher and student (Showbie Incorporated, 2016) and Padlet (Wallwisher Incorporated, 2016).

Mobile apps: Apps refers to the applications or software programs that can be downloaded using the Internet into portable electronic devices like smartphones. There are many apps designed for different purposes, but for language learning in this study, two apps were employed. The first is Socrative Teacher, which allows the teacher to design different quizzes and supplement them with multimedia. The students use the Socrative student version in order to participate in the app. The second is Padlet, which functions as a digital bulletin board that allows the users to post text and other types of multimedia and share it with groups of people. Both Socrative and Padlet are websites that can be accessed through a web browser but can be downloaded as free apps in different mobile systems (i.e., iOS, Android). The research used the versions of the apps that were available in 2016 (Socrative 2.0 and Padlet 0.6).

Intrinsic/ Extrinsic motivation: Extrinsic motivation is the action that is promoted by external rewards rather than integral gratification. Intrinsic motivation refers to the actions that are performed for their inherent satisfaction rather than an external reward (Ryan & Deci, 2000a). In other words, students who engage in a reading activity for enjoyment and challenge can be considered intrinsically motivated. On the other hand, if a student completes a task to gain external rewards, like getting

good grades or compliments from others, he/she can be considered extrinsically motivated. However, there should be no substantial separation between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, as they run in a continuum (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008).

Self-Determination Theory (SDT): SDT is one of the significant and influential theories in motivation developed by Deci and Ryan (2002) in the field of motivational psychology and education. It refers to a persons' ability to satisfy their needs and engage in several actions that need some degree of self-regulation. This theory is based on the assumption that all individuals share the psychological need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness to progress and facilitate intrinsic motivation. The mobile tasks in this study were designed to accommodate these needs are described below.

Autonomy: This concept refers to the need to be the source of one's behaviour by being free to make choices and having control over one's actions. In other words, autonomous learners take responsibility for their learning and initiate actions when they are in control of how and what to learn. The reading tasks in this study gave students choices on how to perform tasks in two ways. The first was writing a suitable ending to a story, and the second was choosing a topic to pursue an online scavenger hunt.

Competence: The need for competence refers to feeling effective and confident of one's abilities to accomplish goals and seek challenges. Language learners need to feel that the activities match their linguist abilities to feel competent. Receiving positive feedback is another important aspect of fulfilling this need, and it was available for the experimental group.

Relatedness: This need refers to the feeling of belonging to a certain group through proper interaction and collaboration. Classroom opportunities where students can interact with each other and collaborate to feel connected and confident provide them this sense of relatedness. In this study, the tasks that were provided for the

experimental group provided opportunities for collaborative and constructive work through the use of story completion and competitions.

1.2 Statement of the problem

As mentioned in section 1.2, Arabic is the official language in Saudi Arabia and English is taught as a foreign language. The Ministry of Education implemented English as a school subject starting from the fourth grade (age 9). Regardless of all the attempts by the Ministry of Education to promote English proficiency from the early stages for both male and female students, some students still leave secondary school without being able to carry out even a short conversation (Alshumaimeri, 2003).

With all those exceptional efforts from the Ministry of Education to enhance English language learning in Saudi Arabia, Saudi learners' language skill levels are still considered unsatisfactory. The EF English Proficiency Index is a yearly rating website that tests the scores of more than one million adults in 80 countries who took the EF Standard English Test. Saudi Arabia was ranked 72 out of 80 in 2017, with a very low proficiency EF EPI score of 43.98, which is equivalent to level A2 CEFR (EF English Proficiency Index, 2017). Alrabai (2016) and Al-Seghayer (2014) also reported low achievement levels in EFL learners and investigated the possible causes and solutions for this occurrence. In relation to reading, Al-Qahtani (2016) observed low reading abilities in Saudi learners and examined some of the potential constraints that were related to the lack of motivation and the nature of the traditional teaching methods.

Since Arabic is the official language, the English classroom is considered the most significant place where students can produce and be exposed to the language (Al-Khairi, 2013; Al-Shumaimeri & Alzyadi, 2015; Alrabai, 2016). The lack of opportunities to use the language in the immediate society results in extrinsically motivated or even unmotivated learners (Jones, Llacer-Arrastia, & Newbill, 2009).

Research has been conducted to investigate why students exhibit low levels of language proficiency after years of studying English in schools in Saudi Arabia. Fareh (2010) attempted to outline some of the key challenges in the current state of EFL teaching (as cited by Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013):

1. Poor teacher-training or inadequate teaching methodology.
2. The dominance of a teacher-centred approach over student-centredness.
3. Low student proficiency and motivation to learn.
4. Textbooks and teaching aids.
5. Methods of assessment.
6. Exposure to authentic English content.

Their findings suggest that the problem of poor English skills, observed in the majority of students, is complicated and can be traced to four major constraints: beliefs, curriculum, pedagogy, and administration. However, curriculum and administrative issues could not be fitted into this research because its focus is on the effects of mobile tasks on learners' motivation.

Beliefs play a crucial role in students' success and failure of learning and developing language competence (Candlin & Mercer, 2001). English is rarely spoken outside the classroom in Saudi Arabia, which lead students to have no immediate desire to master the language; they attended English classes only because they are an academic requirement. These beliefs created a series of intricate factors that affected students' attitudes and performances towards learning English. Because there are few opportunities to use the language in everyday life, students are only extrinsically motivated to get good grades and, without using the language, they lack basic communicative skills which lead some of them to get anxious and demotivated to work harder.

Grade-driven learners would not pursue learning beyond their ultimate goal of passing their courses and getting a degree. This form of extrinsic motivation affects Saudi students' learning because it would restrain them from putting effort into learning and they would only provide what was necessary to acquire good grades (Fareh, 2010; Maherzi, 2011; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Liton, 2013; Javid, Al-Asmari, & Farooq, 2012). These beliefs, which a lot of Saudi students hold, negatively influence their amount of participation in the classroom activities (Alrabai, 2016). Moreover, because students have no opportunities to practise the language in authentic settings in and out of the classroom, they develop language anxiety to speak and engage in the classroom. This creates a vicious cycle of not practising, have low self-esteem, feel anxious, and feel reluctant again to practise.

Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009) investigated the levels of intrinsic motivation among 55 Saudi EFL learners from different schools and universities. The results showed a highly positive attitude towards learning English, and the learners showed a very distinct awareness of the advantages they could accomplish with language in their personal and professional lives. Nonetheless, positive attitudes may not be equated with motivation, although it is an important prerequisite for it. Moskosvsky and Alrabai (2009) noted how the EFL context in Saudi Arabia is still fairly teacher-centred and, in order to elevate levels of motivation in students, teachers must engage their students in more challenging and interesting activities to promote independence in them. They also encouraged further investigations into the role of the modern technology, such as smartphones, as a motivational factor for learning English amongst students. Figure 1.2 gives an overview of the factors that hindered the majority of Saudi students' motivation.

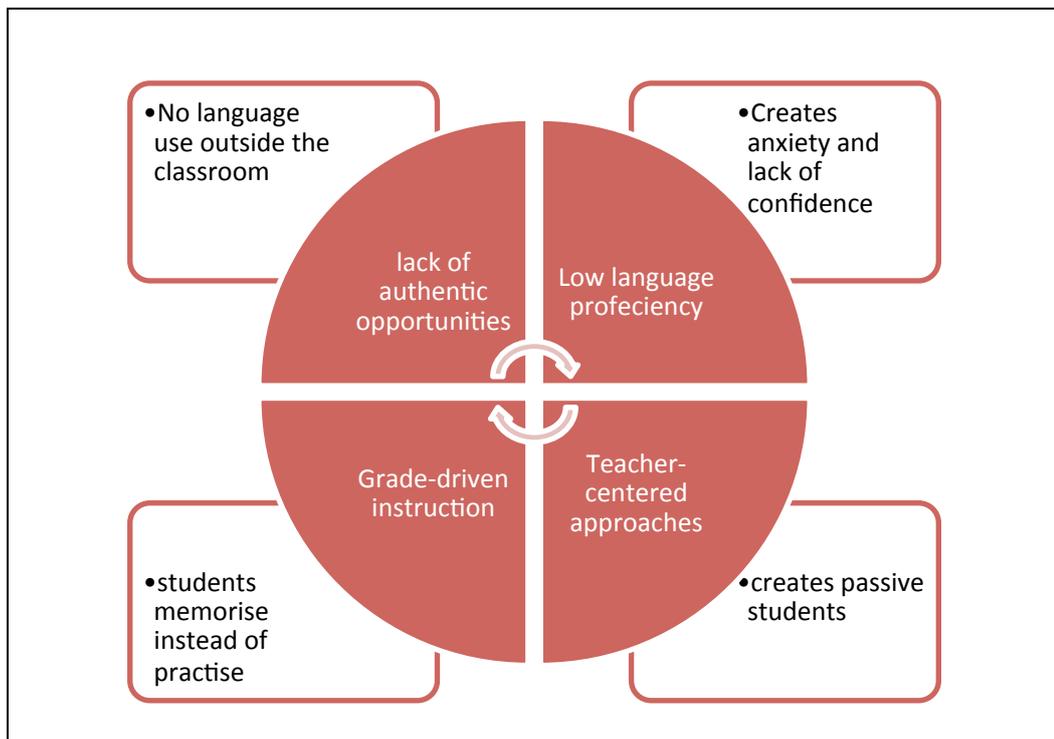


Figure 1.2 Illustration of the issues affecting learner’s motivation in Saudi Arabia

According to the research, language learners in Saudi Arabia face several issues that may have negatively influenced their motivation and consequently their overall achievement. The teacher-centred methods and the nature of the content delivery instruction have made the students passive receivers of information in the language classrooms. Furthermore, the lack of authentic and engaging reading materials has made the students less likely to participate in classroom activities. Finally, students’ low proficiency affected their confidence and prevented them from becoming active learners. This study focused only on students’ motivation, leaving other issues like teacher training and methods of assessment for future research. The following section lists the objectives that this research aims to achieve in order to contribute to the above-mentioned motivational challenges.

1.3 Aims of the study

This thesis, in light of SDT, aims to:

- a) Uncover some of the motivational challenges that face Saudi female students in their current classroom instruction;
- b) Identify the aspects of motivation that have been influenced by the use of mobile tasks; and
- c) Investigate students' perceptions of the impact of mobile tasks on their motivation and learning experience.

1.4 Research questions

As has been explained in section 1.2, a significant amount of EFL learners lack the motivation to take part in their learning, and the outcome is poor language skills (reading, writing, speaking, and listening). However, since the ELI requires students to attend a three-hour class everyday, it was not possible to include all the skills in the scope of this study. The focus on reading was chosen for two main reasons: firstly, the passive nature of the reading lessons in Saudi caused students to lack interest in engaging with its activities according to the researcher's prior experience and the research literature (Al-Qahtani, 2016; Alrabai, 2017b). Secondly, Burston (2014) stated that reading skill was one of the least researched areas in Mobile Assisted Language Learning. The three research questions that this study aims to answer are as follows:

- 1) What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching method in the reading classroom?
- 2) In what ways does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation?
- 3) How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?

The first research question identifies some of the challenges that faced EFL students in the reading classroom that affected their motivation to engage in activities.

Understanding these issues could provide insights into how mobile tasks could impact their attitudes and motivation. The second research question investigates the effect of using mobile tasks on learners' perceived and observed motivational aspects. The third research question explores students' perceptions of the use of mobile tasks and examines the features of mobile tasks that students identify as contributors to their learning experience in the classroom. The study was piloted first to test the research instruments for four weeks in 2015 before the main study was conducted for six weeks (the length of the module) in early 2016. The next section discusses how this study contributed to existing literature in the EFL Saudi context and the field of MALL.

1.5 Significance of the study

This thesis intends to make an original contribution to knowledge in several ways.

Firstly, little experimental research has been conducted in Saudi Arabia to explore the area of mobile assisted language learning and how it might motivate language learners to develop their language reading skills (Al-Shehri, 2012). This study responds to the need for research in this rapidly developing area in the Saudi EFL context. Furthermore, the findings of this study contribute to the Saudi government's need for technology implementation in education and learner-centred pedagogy with digital technologies in the EFL sociocultural context (Ministry of Higher Education, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Deputyship of Planning and Information, 2010). From a broader perspective, this study investigates an under-researched area of the growing field of Technology-mediated TBLT; an approach to language learning that combines the pedagogies of MALL with the teaching instruction of TBLT (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014).

Secondly, in order to explore students' motivation while using mobile apps, the study used several instruments to gather data that were modified for the purpose of this study. The Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) observation scheme of Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) was intended to measure students' motivation through the use of motivational strategies but was modified to fit the nature of mobile tasks. Both the questionnaire and the observation sheet were adopted from the MOLT and could be enhanced and used for future studies. After reviewing much of the literature in Saudi Arabia, it was found that classroom observation was rarely used in EFL research, and this study extends the measures to investigate motivation in language classrooms.

Thirdly, the results can encourage teachers and language instructors to use SDT informed tasks to achieve the following:

- 1) Motivate their students using free and user-friendly apps.
- 2) Encourage their students to use their smartphones and monitor their progress, attention, and participation in reading tasks.
- 3) Promote the sense of autonomy in their learners by making them more active, thus taking control of their learning.

Fourthly, the implications of this study could lead other researchers to investigate other aspects of motivating mobile tasks. Finally, the study could provide solutions to the low proficiency levels of students (Al-Nasser, 2015; Al-Qahtani, 2016; Alqurashi, 2014) and improve the students' lack of motivation in the Saudi EFL classrooms. The next section gives a brief overview of the methodology of this research and highlights some of the important findings of this study.

1.6 Methodology

As mentioned in section 1.4, the purpose of this study was to examine EFL Saudi female students' motivation in reading classrooms with the use of smartphone tasks. In order to achieve this, experimental research was conducted with three intact classrooms. The first group was taught using the traditional method used by most teachers (PPP) based on the textbooks. The second was taught using paper-based tasks (TBLT), and the third one used mobile tasks that were designed especially for this study (MTBLT). All groups had different teachers and the experiment lasted for twenty hours. The mixed methods approach used quantitative data tools (pre/post-test, questionnaire, observation) and qualitative tools (focus group, open-ended questionnaire item), and used triangulation to investigate the complex nature of students' motivation in a reading classroom.

The reading tasks designed for this study attempted to fulfil the three conditions that enhance SDT by providing a choice of tasks (autonomy), instant feedback (competence), and collaborative activities (relatedness). Socrative and Padlet apps were used to carry out the tasks for the MTBLT group. The five-point Likert scale questionnaire used some modified items from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) to ask students about their perceptions of their overall motivation, current teaching method, and mobile tasks. The observation also used a modified version from the previous authors to gather quantitative data about the number of students who paid attention to class, participated in tasks, and volunteered to answer the teacher. The focus groups aimed to gather further insights into the current teaching method and mobile tasks.

Before the start of the module, a pre-test was carried out to ensure all students were of the same level of English (B1 CEFR). The researcher observed students' attention, participation, and volunteering during the reading tasks. At the end of the module, a post-test was carried out to measure students' achievement in reading

comprehension by comparing the results of the pre and post-tests. A questionnaire and focus groups were also conducted to gather more data. The next section gives a brief overview of the next chapters of this thesis.

1.7 Outline of the thesis

This thesis consists of seven chapters, starting with an introduction to introduce key terms, a statement of the problem, and how this study contributes to knowledge.

Chapter 2 explores the literature of the three main aspects of this study; motivation in language learning, task-based language teaching, and Mobile-Assisted Language Learning. Chapter 3 presents the two phases of the study in details, starting with the pilot phase that had implications for the main study of this research. Firstly, it presents the research paradigm that guided the research process. Secondly, the research context was explained along with the data collection tools and the design of the experimental tasks. Aspects of reliability, ethical considerations, and data analysis are also discussed.

Chapters 4, 5, and 6 present the qualitative and quantitative findings and discussions according to the three research questions of this study. Chapter 4 presents the findings of the first research question on motivational challenges that students face in their current teaching methods and discusses the results in light of other studies in the Saudi context to answer the first research question. Chapter 5 presents the findings of the second research question on the effects of mobile tasks on students' perceived and observed motivation, with reference to the literature and Self-Determination Theory to answer the second research question. Chapter 6 presents the findings of the third research question about students' perceptions of the use of mobile tasks. The discussion of this chapter brings the three chapters together by comparing and contrasting the findings of Chapters 5 and 6 and how they affected the challenges of students' motivation in Chapter 4 to answer the third research question. Chapter 7 provides the

contributions of this study and discusses its limitations, implications, and suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This study aims to investigate the use of smartphones and Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) on students' motivation in English reading classrooms. This chapter gives a detailed overview of three major areas of interest in second language acquisition (SLA) research; second language motivation, TBLT, and Mobile-Assisted Language learning (MALL). The first section about motivation gives an overview of the historical development of studying motivation in relation to language learning, followed by a broad introduction to the theories that have influenced the research in this area and the framework for this study, which used the self-determination theory as its focal lens. Researching motivation is complex because of the nature of language as a communication vehicle, and it also carries the identity of the students and their social dimensions with others (Dörnyei, 1998). A discussion on L2 reading and the concept of motivation can be found in Section 2.2.3.

The second part of this chapter aims to give an overview of the development of TBLT as an approach to communicative language teaching, covering the aspects of task definitions, its features and popular frameworks that dominated the pedagogy of TBLT. This is followed by a discussion on the relationship between motivation and task engagement in TBLT.

The third part explores the area of technology-enhanced language learning, with its emerging learning theories, affordances, and relevant research. Finally, the last section attempts to justify the use of TBLT as a means of motivating students in the English reading classroom.

2.2 Motivation in Second Language Learning

Motivation plays a crucial role in learning in general, and it is one of the essential factors in the success of language learning (Dörnyei, 2001, 2005; Gardner, Trembly, & Masgoret, 1997; Hurd, 2006; Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Ushioda, 1996, 2001). Several studies have revealed the importance of motivation and the major role that motivation plays in language learning (Brown, 1987; Dickinson, 1995; Dörnyei, 1990; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Harmer, 1983) among others.

The word motivation comes from the Latin ‘movere’ that means ‘to move’, i.e., to move to a state of action (Melendy, 2008). The literature shows little agreement among researchers on the definition of motivation in language learning, which has resulted in a diverse number of definitions of the term. Motivation is a complex human behaviour, and it is, therefore, difficult to assume any straightforward answer (Dörnyei, 1998). The earliest definition of the word came from the two founding fathers of L2 motivation, who defined motivation as the work and eagerness of learners to learn a language (Gardner & Lambert, 1959). This broad definition was narrowed by Gardner later, in 1985, in his socio-educational model of Second Language acquisition (SLA). Gardner then produced the most used definition for the word in education, which is: “the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favourable attitudes towards learning the language” (Gardner, 1985, p.10).

Research in L2 motivation began from the late 1950s and is still evolving, with researchers expanding their empirical studies on existing paradigms in this area and providing different models for researchers and teachers. Another major development in the field of L2 motivation is linking motivation research with theories of psychology, including acculturation theory (Schumann, 1978, 1986), attribution theory (Skehan, 1989; William & Burden, 1999), self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985, 1991, 2002), self-regulation theory (Kuhl & Goschke, 1994), and learner autonomy (Ushioda,

1996), to mention a few. Dörnyei's motivational self-system (2005) is a recent motivational concept in L2 research, which is based on two major psychological theories of motivation; the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan 1985). Overall, this ever-growing field has undergone major defining stages through the years. The most recognised periods, as described by Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013), are the socio-psychological period (1959-1990s), the cognitive-situated period (1991-2000s), and the socio-dynamic period (2002-present), which are discussed in the following sections.

It was accepted, until the late 1950s, that intelligence and verbal ability were dominant in language learning, with no attribution to the influence of attitudes, motivation, and anxiety. This was followed by a period of time where L2 scholars focused more on how students perceive L2 and its culture that had an impact on their wish to learn the language (Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay & Masgoret, 1997). Gardner and Lambert first introduced their model of motivation in language education in 1959, which later became widely known as the socio-educational model and was adopted in most classroom research until the 1990s.

This model consists of two main concepts, instrumental orientation and integrative orientation. The instrumental concept is the pragmatic gains of L2 (e.g., better jobs, passing exams), and the integrative is the desire to interact with other L2 speakers. This brief review of Gardner's socio-educational model will be limited to two areas, for the purpose of this study. The first is on the integrative motive, and the second is on the socio-educational model of motivation.

Gardner's construct of the integrative motive established a relationship between motivation and orientation, in which the latter refers to reasons for learning a second language (Gardner, 1985). He identified two forms of orientation: integrative orientation and instrumental orientation. The integrative represents the positive

disposition and desire to use L2, and the instrumental represents the pragmatic benefits. In light of integrative motivation, any individual who is interested in learning another language will do so to be psychologically closer to the community that speaks that language and be a valued member of that community (Dörnyei, 2003). The integrativeness “represents a socially relevant, as opposed to an educationally relevant construct” (Gardner, 2010, p.86).

The integrative motive is said to be made up of three components: 1) integrativeness, as in integrative orientation; 2) attitudes towards the learning situation, and; 3) motivation. Dörnyei (2001) represents Gardner’s conceptualisation of the integrative motive and learning, where integrativeness and attitudes towards the learning situation support motivation, and motivation is an essential element that supports learners’ behaviour to learn a language. According to this assumption, acquiring a second language is a social psychological phenomenon rather than just an educational one. The socio-educational model of SLA that Gardner has developed focused on four variables: the social milieu, individual differences, SLA contexts, and outcomes.

The use of Gardner’s model as a framework for research was of great value to language learning motivation at the beginning. However, starting from the early 1990s, there was a call for developing new approaches to classroom motivation, and serious criticism of his hypotheses and views of motivation emerged (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1990, Oxford & Shearin, 1994). One of the aspects of this criticism was against the integrative motive hypothesis, which scholars claim yielded contradictory results. Au (1988) stated that it is difficult to generalise this hypothesis because some of the research found the correlation between the integrative motive and the language achievement to be negative, while others found it to be positive. Another strong argument against this model is that it identifies motivation with only the long-term or

future goals, disregarding the learners' present interest when doing the task (Van Lier, 2014).

With all this criticism of Gardner's model, he fully supported these efforts to expand and add to his theory of motivation in response to the scholars mentioned above (Gardner & Tremblay, 1994). He revised his model and included other motivational aspects from other theories like goals, valence, and self-efficacy, up to the beginning of the cognitive situated period, which is discussed in the following section.

A new approach emerged in cognitive psychology in the early 1990s, which renewed the interest in the role of motivation in language learning. This approach did not discard the social psychological aspects, as discussed in the previous section, but rather built on its existing theories by focusing on the cognitive motivation perspective, making motivation research more relevant to educational settings (Dörnyei, 2001). To best differentiate between the periods, the social psychological period focused more on the attitudes and feelings of the language learners towards the language and its community, whereas the cognitive period focused more on returning to the psychological area of the mental processes of the learners. This period was characterised by two main traits according to Dörnyei (2001):

- 1) Language motivation research should focus more on the cognitive aspect of motivational psychology; and
- 2) It should focus more on situated analysis of motivation in various learning contexts

Among of the first to research and explore this educational shift were Crooks and Schmidt (1991) who stated that more aspects should be considered and researched in L2 motivation. Furthermore, they examined motivation in four different ways (micro, classroom, syllabus, extracurricular). For example, they argued that different stages of a lesson have significant motivational effects on learners. Their empirical research found

that using group work as a communicative approach enhanced students' motivational effects.

The third period, the process-oriented, led by Dörnyei and colleagues, provided more evidence to show the complex nature of L2 motivation. According to Dörnyei and Otto (1998), "motivation is not so much a relatively constant state, but rather a more dynamic entity that changes over time, with the level of effort invested in the pursuit of a particular goal oscillating between regular ups and downs" (p.4). Nonetheless, little empirical research has been based on this approach until now due to the complexity of this approach.

2.2.1 Influential theories in L2 motivation research

Theories of L2 motivation were developed from the field of social psychology in the late 1950s, formulating in-depth models for language education. Early theories in motivation focused mainly on basic aspects of human behaviours like the instinctive or reflexive sides as portrayed in Weiner's (1992) "man as a machine" concept. Motivation was merely a 'need' (Hull, 1951), or a 'drive' (Freud, 1934). However, this deterministic view of human behaviour developed significantly to sustain a more cognitive approach around 1960 with researchers like Deci, Ryan, and Weiner.

Some of these theories have greatly influenced L2 motivation research like the possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986), self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985), and expectancy-value theory (Atkinson, 1957). The fact that there are so many theories regarding L2 motivation presented the researchers with evidence of similarities and common ideas between some of them.

The goal and attribution theories are reviewed briefly in this chapter, whereas the self-determination theory was used as a framework for this study, and hence will be discussed in great length.

2.2.1.1 Goal theory

This theory is based on a human's need to set a 'goal' that will provide individuals with motivation and direct their actions. According to this theory, a focus on a goal can be approached from different angles, of which two are discussed in this section. The first is *goal setting* (Locke & Latham, 1990), which suggests that how people set their goals will determine their performance. This theory was developed to understand motivation in the workplace and industrial organisation settings. Research in goal setting theory shows that people who set challenging and explicit goals for themselves tend to persevere longer in performing a task than people who set easy and unclear goals (Latham & Locke, 2007). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) summarise Locke's (1996) goal setting theory in five points:

- 1) Difficult goals result in greater outcomes
- 2) Specific goals produce more precise achievement
- 3) Combining difficult and specific goals result in better performance
- 4) Committing to a goal that is both challenging and specific is crucial
- 5) Commitment to goals can be maintained if the person believes that the goal serves a valid purpose and is attainable.

The other type of goal theory is the one that focuses on the learners' goal orientation, i.e. why they engage in a task and how they approach it. This theory was initially developed to understand how children learn in educational settings. Ames (1992) distinguished two types of goal orientation, the mastery of goals where the focus is on learning content, and the performance goals where the emphasis is on getting high

grades or outdoing others. Dörnyei (1998) suggests that learners who are highly motivated place more value on what they think is of utmost importance to them. In other words, students with set goals usually put time and effort on the tasks that would fulfil their goals.

Goals are crucial to the concept of motivation because they give purpose for doing and persisting, and are considered a replacement for needs in Maslow's hierarchy (Dörnyei, 2001). In language learning motivation, some researchers embraced the goal setting theories in their studies (Oxford & Shearin, 1994; Dörnyei, 1998), because they provide measurable objectives and autonomy to learners (Pagliaro, 2000). However, since language learning is complex and not an achievable goal in a short time, Dörnyei suggests that a goal (learning a language) should have sub-goals that could be attained within a short period.

2.2.1.2 Expectancy-value, achievement and attribution theories

These theories target the understanding of motivation through a person's expectancy of success and how that person values this success (Atkinson, 1964). The focus of this theory was more on the expectancy of success (achievement) rather than the value of the task. The literature on motivation in education was heavy on studies based on achievement motivation in certain areas (Brophy, 2009). However, in recent years, scholars started to apply more focus on the value aspect of this model (Brophy, 2009; Wigfield, Eccles, Schiefele, Roeser, & Davis-Kean, 2007). Wigfield et al. (2007) specified four components to determine the task value:

- 1) Attainment value: mastering a skill to complete a task.
- 2) Intrinsic value: enjoyment of performing the task.
- 3) Extrinsic value: task outcome has an influence on the individual's quality of life.
- 4) Cost: negative values such as time, anxiety, and fear of failure.

More theories emerged from the framework of the expectancy-value theory, like Atkinson's model, which is called 'achievement theory'. This concept is based on a need for achievement, expectancy of success, and task values. Another theory emerged from this regarding how an individual perceives his or her success or failure in a task. The attribution theory was originally formulated by Heider in 1958, but is widely known because of the significant work of Weiner (1985, 1992, 2005) in which he tried to understand how and why a person attributes his or her success and failure to a particular outcome. This aspect of motivation gained importance in L2 motivation in the 1990s, as Dörnyei (2001) emphasised the value of causal attributions where the learners link between their past experience and their future behaviour. Learners' perceptions and attitudes were also acknowledged by Williams and Burden (1999) and Higgins (1987). Connecting attributions to the self-concept was also emphasised in the work of Cantor et al. (1986), which will be discussed in the following section about the self and determination.

2.2.2 Self-Determination Theory

The concept of the 'self' is now considered to be an important element in motivation for modern scholars. This section will review the concept of the Self-Determination Theory and explore some of the research in language acquisition that has been influenced by this theory and how it is related to this current study. Self-determination theory (SDT) is a major theory of motivation developed by Deci and Ryan (1985, 1991, 2002), and is considered one of the most influential approaches in motivational psychology and education. For the past several decades, self-determination theory has been more widely implemented in research to examine how learners' motivation varies depending on several internal and external factors in different fields. This theory focuses on "the

degree to which people endorse their actions at the highest level of reflection and engage in the actions with a full sense of choice” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p.68). They have proposed three types of motivation: (1) motivation, (2) extrinsic motivation, and (3) intrinsic motivation. In its basic form, human motivation exists as a six-point continuum, from motivation at the least determined end, four categories of extrinsic motivation, to intrinsic motivation at the most determined end (Ryan & Deci, 2002; Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Motivation is demonstrated when learners do not have the competence nor value in completing actions, whereas extrinsic motivation comes from external sources. The four extrinsic motivation types described by Deci and Ryan are:

- 1) External regulation: the least self-determined extrinsic motive which refers to the reward from social environment or fear of punishment (e.g., good grades or parental confrontation). This is an unstable level that tends to disappear once the reward or punishment is dismissed.
- 2) Introjected regulation: this refers to more internalised reasons for learning when learners need to maintain self-worth by demonstrating the ability to communicate in a target language. This type is more stable than the external one as it does not depend entirely on external rewards.
- 3) Identified regulation: this is a more self-determined type of extrinsic motivation with a conscious acceptance of behaviour and the personal value that is placed on the outcome of an action.
- 4) Integrated regulation: This is the most self-determined type of extrinsic motivation and it occurs when regulations are included in a person’s self-evaluation and beliefs in personal needs. This type shares some qualities with intrinsic motivation, but still is part of the extrinsic motivation because

it is extrinsic to the self instead of being the inherent enjoyment of the action.

Intrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is the most determined motivation, which is defined as “the doing of an activity for its inherent satisfaction rather than for some separable reason. When intrinsically motivated, a person is moved to act for the fun or challenge entailed rather than because of external prods, pressures, or rewards” (Ryan & Deci, 2000b, p.56). According to SDT theory, individuals have basic psychological needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Autonomy has been the focus of a considerable amount of research in the study of L2 motivation to which it became popular in language learning and education in general (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005; Littlewood, 1999; Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 1999; Ushioda, 1996). Autonomy refers to volition: the unpressured disposition to engage in actions (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ryan & Deci, 2006). Benson (2007) defines autonomy as the ability to take control over one’s learning and suggests that autonomy is an essential condition for successful learning of a language because learners “not only become better language learners, but they also develop into more responsible and critical members of the communities in which they live” (p.1).

Although researchers have been paying an increasing amount of attention to autonomy in language motivation (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005; Littlewood, 1999; Ushioda, 1996), others have viewed autonomy as a culturally specific value relevant to ‘western’ cultures (Dörnyei, 1990; Healey, 1999; Toohey & Norton, 2003). According to Littlewood (1999), independent language learning could be applied in contexts where the dominant feature is individualism (in western contexts), but not collectivism (in eastern contexts). Furthermore, Ho and Crookall (1995) claimed that Chinese students had a preference for taking authority from their teachers, and felt uncomfortable doing otherwise. Similarly, an empirical study in Japan by Hart (2002) and Smith (2003)

yielded parallel results to that of Ho and Crookall (1995). However, other research has shown the applicability of autonomy in Asian countries, for instance Clarke and Gieve's study (2001) where students showed similar independent learning manners when compared to British students. Other research by d'Ailly (2003) also found that Taiwanese children displayed similar autonomous behaviours to American children. Perhaps the cultural context may affect the level of acceptance of promoting independent learning, but in a small classroom, one teacher could always be found who would strive to use learning strategies which would promote autonomy in their students' early stage (Canagarajah, 2002).

The second condition that enhances intrinsic motivation in SDT is *competence*, which is a learners' sense of accomplishment and usually refers to the individual's perceived competence. This may be different from his or her actual level of ability. Therefore, competence is not a skill or ability that can be obtained, but rather a felt sense of confidence in an action (White, 1959). To facilitate intrinsic motivation, learners must attain optimal challenge and positive feedback in their performance to enhance their perceived competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

The third condition in SDT is *relatedness*, which represents the individual's need to belong and be emotionally connected with others like teachers and peers. After proposing autonomy and competence as essential needs for intrinsic motivation, Deci and Ryan (1991) found that relying only on competence and autonomy did not capture the intrinsic social need to be valued and relevant. Hence, relatedness was added to self-determination theory. Researchers have found that, when learners work together to achieve a common goal, it enhanced their perceptions of relatedness and lead to more self-determined motivation (Ryan and Deci, 2000; Standage, Duda, & Pensgaard, 2005). Much research has shown the advantages of cooperative learning, which is

associated with higher levels of motivation in language learning (Johnson and Johnson, 1995; Julkunen & Borzova, 1996; Ushioda, 1996).

Finally, SDT, when applied to language learning, can create a feeling of autonomy, competence, and relatedness in students, which will fulfil their psychological needs and foster intrinsic motivation and success. It is difficult to divide cultural contexts into western or non-western because there will always be a large variation within a single country. The effects of autonomy are still rather controversial and in need of further research. As a result, the next section offers an overview of the research done in L2 motivation in Saudi Arabia.

2.2.3 L2 motivation research in Saudi Arabia

Some research has been carried out on motivation and language learning in Saudi Arabia. Moskosvsky and Alrabai (2009) investigated the levels of intrinsic motivation among Saudi EFL learners, and the results showed high positive attitudes towards learning the language for integrative motives. On the other hand, Al-Amr (1998) claims that instrumental motivation would be more relevant in the Saudi context than the integrative motivation, mainly because English is a foreign language in Saudi Arabia and is taught away from target speakers and their culture (as cited by Moskosvsky & Alrabai, 2009).

There is even less research on EFL reading motivation in Saudi Arabia, and most of those studies were based only on students' attitudes and perceptions. One study showed that Saudi students preferred Speaking and Listening classes to writing and reading (Albalawi, 2013). Furthermore, students' unsatisfactory reading skills resulted in low achievement levels in terms of academic gains (Al-Qahtani, 2016). A study on Saudi students' reading skills revealed that the participants lacked the motivation to learn, and

had major difficulties in scanning and skimming, understanding main ideas, and using prior knowledge (Nezami, 2012). EFL textbooks in the Saudi curriculums are standardised in such a way that both students and teachers have fewer opportunities to select the reading materials that would suit the learners' interests (Alsubaie, 2014). This caused low motivation in students and affected the development of their reading skills.

In his unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Alsubaie (2014) conducted his study on 16 male students from three universities in Saudi Arabia following the Think Aloud Protocol and semi-structured interviews to investigate EFL reading comprehension challenges in adult Saudi learners. The results revealed that participants blamed their poor reading skills to lack of practice, lack of resources, and poor teaching. Participants also noted that reading materials are not appealing or relevant to them. Alsubaie attributes the poor reading skills amongst Saudi learners to the fact that the Saudi culture does not promote reading in general. Furthermore, a serious lack of authentic reading resources in the students' textbooks resulted in what he referred to as "cultural isolation". The following section examines the relationship between L2 reading and what motivates students to become better readers.

2.2.4 L2 reading and motivation

It is significant to note that acquiring reading strategies in L1 is important because these strategies can be easily transferred to other languages (Tarone, Bigelow & Hansen, 2013). Therefore, if the necessary skills were not taught in L1, individuals may face challenges when learning to read in other languages. The ultimate aim of reading is comprehension (Nation & Norbury, 2005), which is the result of several procedures that precede it. Researchers of language acquisition agree that reading comprehension is a complicated skill that requires more than decoding written symbols and finding

vocabulary meanings. Readers need to go through an interactional process of linking new information to retained information in their memory in order to infer meaning from text (Bernhardt, 1991), and that is why two people may have a different understanding of the same reading piece (Farr, Pritchard, & Smitten, 1990). This change in approach to reading comprehension from a simple word decoding to complex levels of processing mental information was a result of the cognitive psychological theories (Carrell, 1988).

Much research has shown the relationship between reading frequently and student's word level and comprehension skills (Stanovich & Cunningham, 1992; Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997). As such, readers who practise less reading have fewer decoding skills and less exposure to new vocabulary. This creates a cycle where low skills lead to less reading and vice versa. Krashen (1989) stated that vocabulary and spelling are acquired by reading. In his study, students who reported more desire for reading performed better in writing, reading, grammar, vocabulary, and spelling. His findings highlights the importance of using authentic reading materials in foreign language teaching because this will enable students to have better productive skills in speaking and writing. Some research on reading motivation has documented a decline in reading motivation for students in schools (Guthrie & Wigfield, 1997; Moje et al., 2000). Wilhelm (2004) argues that students who repeatedly fail in reading through their schooling show a decreased amount of motivation to read. However, other qualitative research gathered evidence that learners have different reading behaviours outside and inside school. They revealed that some students who are not motivated to read at school are highly motivated to read outside the classroom. One of the prominent differences in students' behaviour is the reading materials chosen (Lawrence & Snow, 2010) and attitudes towards the text-based activities (Moje et al., 2000).

Williams (1983) suggests that authentic materials may reduce students' motivation because they might find them too difficult. In real life, readers read for

information and pleasure, whereas non-native learners read simply to learn the language. When the authentic material is difficult, the reader will be forced to focus on form rather than the meaning of the message. He insists on combining authenticity with simplicity to adhere to the learner's need for relevance. Another aspect that affects reading motivation is the authenticity of the task itself. Some researchers emphasised the importance of authentic reading; i.e. the learning tasks performed in class should correspond to real activities that students might encounter outside the classroom (Chapelle, 1999; Wang, 2002).

To sum up this section on L2 motivation, an overview of its development and influential theories were presented, with a special focus on SDT; a theory which informed the design of the tasks in this study. Ryan and Deci (2002) suggest that motivation runs in a continuum, one end of which is considered least determined (extrinsic), and the other end is the most determined (intrinsic). In order for learners to become more intrinsically motivated, the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness must be fulfilled. Autonomy refers to the sense of control and responsibility towards the tasks that require action. In other words, if students were given a choice of how and what they learn, they would be more determined to engage in that learning activity. Competence is the linguistic ability to communicate using the language with the individual's gained resources. This means that the level of the language tasks should be relevant to the learner's proficiency, and it should also guide and reinforce their learning with the use of feedback. Relatedness is the sense of closeness to other members of the learning society, like teachers and classmates. The feeling of isolation could result in demotivating students from participating in classroom activities and, therefore, deterring them from practising and improving their language skills. Providing the learners with opportunities to build, collaborate and share knowledge would aid their sense of relatedness and, consequently, be motivationally determined. The next

section presents an overview of the literature on Task-Based Language Teaching, which is the approach that was used in this study.

2.3 Overview of Task-Based Language Teaching

As mentioned in section 2.2.3 on motivational issues in Saudi EFL classrooms, one of the suggested solutions for demotivation in students is implementing different teaching methods of language learning (Fareh, 2010). This also includes a gradual shift from a teacher-centred to a more student-centred approach. In this section, the focus will be on the development of TBLT as an approach to language teaching, the features of a task, and how this method relates to L2 motivation. The following sections provide an overview of the developments of TBLT, their origins, the features of tasks, and the frameworks of TBLT for teaching and research.

Task-Based Language Teaching is an approach to language learning which follows the notion that language is best obtained by functional use (Long, 1981; Norris, 2009). It adopts Dewey's (1933) concept of experiential learning, that learning has a greater effect when students engage in meaningful activities. TBLT provide students with language experiences that usually happens naturally outside the classroom, making it a better alternative than other traditional and 'artificial' teaching methods that are heavily teacher-centred (Long & Norris, 2000). Richard and Rodgers (2001) define this approach as "the use of tasks as the core units of planning and instruction in language teaching" (p.233).

Beginning in the mid 1980s, researchers and teachers were attracted to TBLT as a vehicle that brings communicative language teaching and student-centred classrooms together (Breen, 1987; Nunan, 1988; Skehan, 1996). More recent research in this area confirmed the ability of tasks to enhance language acquisition (Samuda & Bygate,

2008; Shehadeh, 2012; Shehadeh & Coombe, 2010). An early well-known research study on the task-based approach is the Bangalore Project (BP) carried out by Prabhu (1984, 1987). The research was greatly influenced by hypotheses from the earlier works of Widdowson (1968) and Krashen (1981) which were set to emphasise the role of communicative language learning. In his project, Prabhu designed a series of tasks that focused on meaning and consisted of three task phases: pre-task, task, post-task. Those cognitive tasks did not focus on language form unless it was crucial. The findings of this study showed the effectiveness of TBLT regarding language gains.

Before the emergence of task-based and communicative language teaching, language teaching mainly focused on language features (e.g., grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation), and using the present-practice-produce (PPP) approach to language teaching (Howatt, 1984; Littlewood, 1981). Scholars heavily criticised this approach in the 1990s, both for lacking robust connections to second language acquisition and for its behaviouristic nature. Willis (1996) pointed out a major disadvantage of PPP is that learners who are taught to use language forms and are told to practise them in the production stage may not be able to use them accurately. This might affect students' motivation and distract them from choosing the forms they need to convey the language, as they understand it. Another criticism of PPP is that there is no evidence to support the idea of learning occurring in the order of how it was taught (Skehan, 1996).

Communicative language teaching (CLT) was initiated as an effort to shift from the focus on language features in structural language approaches towards a focus on language use. The primary concern of CLT was to develop learners' ability to use L2 appropriately in real-life communication. According to Howatt (1984), a strong version of CLT happens when "language is acquired through communication" (p.279) when learners are encouraged to determine the language system themselves during

communication rather than be taught elements of language first and then use them.

Nunan (1991, p.279), states the five basic characteristics of CLT should be:

- 1) Emphasising learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
- 2) Introducing authentic texts into the learning situation, like media or real-life interaction with native speakers.
- 3) Offering opportunities for learners to focus on language as well as the learning process itself.
- 4) Enhancing learners' personal experiences is an important element in classroom learning.
- 5) Linking classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom, like using technology to use the language with speakers in different countries.

Although task-based language teaching represents a strong version of communicative language teaching for many language educators, it is not the only version of it.

Furthermore, CLT can be achieved through a variety of ways other than tasks such as immersion education or content-based instruction. Nonetheless, TBLT has attracted a many language educators (Breen, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 2004; Prabhu, 1987; Willis, 1996) because it serves as a powerful tool in designing a communicative language curriculum in foreign language contexts where learners have fewer opportunities to engage in authentic L2 communication.

The significance of TBLT lies in the fact that it emphasises meaning rather than just form, as Skehan (1998) suggests. For example, asking students to use the correct form of the verb 'imagine' only focuses on form, but asking the students to write what they 'imagine' would happen if they became rich focuses on meaning more than the form. Similarly, Willis and Willis (2007) emphasised the importance of producing the spontaneous exchange of meaning in a successful classroom activity. The role of the

students is vital in this approach as they have their share of freedom and responsibility when they choose linguistic forms and use their own resources to complete a task (Nunan, 1988; Benson, 2007).

Finally, TBLT has been established as one of the major approaches to language learning and teaching that was developed from CLT (Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Van den Branden, 2006). This rising interest in TBLT can be attributed to its ability to shift learners' attention to the meaning and use of the language. In order to understand TBLT better, one must look at the core element in its approach, which is the 'task'. According to Samuda and Bygate (2008), there are three perspectives of contextualising tasks for pedagogical purposes. The first is the task-based approach that was discussed earlier. Tasks in this sense are the vehicle that drive the classroom and the core of the syllabus. The second is the task-referenced approach where tasks are merely used for assessment purposes and determining achievement. The third is the task-supported version, where tasks are not central to the lesson, but serve a purpose within the classroom. An example of this is the use of tasks in PPP, where students engage in a task with predetermined language features (Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008). Table 2.1 shows the features of each version of TBLT for purpose of comparison.

Table 2.1 Task position in three different versions of TBLT (Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008)

Version of TBLT	Syllabus	Language acquisition	Task role	Assessment
Task-based	Tasks define the language syllabus	Tasks are essential	Real-world activities	Task performance is used for assessment
Task-referenced				Tasks are mainly used for assessment
Task-supported	Tasks are one element of the syllabus	Tasks are important, but not essential	Tasks are used in conjunction with other activities	Tasks are one element of assessment

Table 2.1 shows the task position within each version, where it is only used for assessment purposes in the task-referenced version. Tasks are the defining element in task-based instruction, whereas it is only one element in the task-supported approach. In order to fully understand the meaning of a task, the following section attempts to give an overview of the definition of a task and its features in language learning.

2.3.1 Defining tasks in TBLT

Many researchers and material writers have recognised the value of tasks in language learning (Ellis, 2003). Some of them merged tasks into traditional approaches to language teaching, while others used tasks as units of teaching in which courses were based on them. Ellis (2003) referred to those two approaches to language teaching as *task-supported language teaching* (a weak version of CLT) and *task-based language teaching* (a strong version of CLT), where the use of ‘tasks’ in both approaches is to make language teaching more authentic and to create opportunities for collaborative language learning. The weak version portrays tasks as a means to practise the language communicatively for language elements that were introduced earlier in a traditional way. In this case, a task ceases to be a ‘task’ and becomes an ‘exercise’ instead. An example of this is stated by Solares (2014), in which she argues that the EFL context in Mexico is characterised as task-supported rather than task-based because the textbooks taught in classrooms that claim to be task-based used tasks that complement, not replace, the traditional teacher-centred methodologies. She claims that many Mexican teachers believe that TBLT is a trend to ‘replace’ CLT approaches, while others perceive TBLT “as a pedagogical proposal to achieve, rather than replace, communicative language teaching” (p.82).

It is vital to present some definitions of a ‘task’ from various points of view. These range from the general understanding of Cameron (1997) of a task as a “classroom event that has coherence and unity, with a clear beginning and an end, in which learners take an active role” (p. 346) to Willis (1996) who defines a task as a “goal-oriented communicative activity with a specific outcome, where the emphasis is on exchanging meaning, not producing specific language forms” (p. 36), (as cited in González-Lloret and Ortega, 2014, p.5). A more holistic definition is provided by Van den Branden (2006), who identifies a task as “an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language” (p. 4). Table 2.2 of selected definitions from Ellis (2003) shows how the understanding of the task evolved from the late 1980s to the most recent ones to date.

Table 2.2 Task definition’s development over the years based on Ellis (2003)

Author	Year	Definition
Breen	1987	Work plans to facilitate learning of a language from simple activities to more complex ones.
Prabhu	1987	“an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some process of thought, and which allows teachers to control and regulate that process” (Prabhu, 1987, p17)
Willis	1996	A set of activities for students to use their communicative language skills and produce a creation as an outcome.
Skehan	1998	An activity that has primary meaning, solving a communicative challenge, related to real world, and assessment of the outcome.
Nunan	2004	Linking language learning in the classroom with the language use outside it.
Van Den Branden	2006	An activity that creates an opportunity for learners’ engagement and use of language to reach an objective.

All of the task definitions in Table 2.2 have some common features in which they require authentic language use in a meaningful way, and have a defined outcome or

goal. However, scholars argue that the outcome should not only be focused on linguistic gains, but should have other non-linguistic properties (Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Willis, 1996). Whatever the definition of a task is, most features of it have been emphasised like real-world activities (Skehan, 1998), primary focus on meaning (Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 1998), and non-linguistic goals (Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Willis, 1996). Some key features of a ‘task’ are also conveyed in the following five points by González-Lloret and Ortega (2014).

1. Primary focus on meaning: learning must be incidental and the focus of the language learning must be hidden from the learners.
2. Goal orientation: the task must include some communicative purpose and the outcome must result from task completion including communicative outcomes (e.g., written or oral messages) and non-communicative outcomes (e.g., winning a game or booking a flight).
3. Learner-centredness: the task must address students’ needs and wants, which is done by needs analysis. Learners must use their own linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and digital skills, which allows for flexibility and diversity in the task process.
4. Holism: the task must encourage a real-world process of language use, which is a vital feature for ‘authenticity’ in all the TBLT definitions of tasks.
5. Reflective learning: since the goal of education is to construct knowledge and intellectual growth, learning must encourage reflective higher-order learning.

According to Ellis (2003), progress will be most successful if the focus is on natural language learning rather than the attempt to teach the language in parts. For example, a task-based syllabus focuses more on meaning rather than form and inspires engagement from learners to produce language through communication in the four language skills.

In an attempt to distinguish a ‘task’ from an ‘exercise’, Ellis (2009) lists the following criteria which should be fulfilled for a task to be called as such:

1. The focus is on meaning.
2. It should have a gap.
3. Learners should rely on their own resources.
4. It has a clear defined outcome other than the use of language.

Ellis (2003) also defined how a task could be judged in terms of outcome, and how a task ‘outcome’ should be distinguished from its ‘aim’. According to him, ‘outcome’ is the product of the learners’ efforts after completing a task, e.g. describing a picture, but the ‘aim’ relates to the meaning-focused pedagogical purpose of the task. With this clear distinction between them, he argues that it is possible to achieve the outcome, but fail to reach the aim of the task. An example of this is a task where the teacher asks the students to spot the difference in two pictures, and students point to the differences without using the language. The students completed the task (outcome) but failed to use the language (aim). Accordingly, Ellis emphasised that students need to commit to achieving the aim of the task rather than just receiving the outcome.

After defining what is and what is not a task in TBLT, it is important to review the task models or frameworks that guide the task in a task-based realm of language teaching. The following section presents a few widely acclaimed frameworks and a justification for the one chosen for this study.

2.3.2 Task frameworks in TBLT

Since the spread of TBLT as a communicative method for teaching language, scholars have paid attention to designing guidelines for effective tasks. One framework in TBLT is suggested by Long (1985, 1997, 2005), where tasks are designed after completing a

needs analysis to target real-world communication needs. His idea relies on focusing on form when it is needed for communication and, by doing so, in an indirect way. However, his framework is best suited for designing curriculum in TBLT, going through a series of task design, implementation and assessment.

Another popular framework is the work done by Willis (1996, 1998) that suggests integrating meaning and form in a communicative task cycle. By dividing a task into three parts, students can perform a task as well as report on it. The following illustration, as seen in Table 2.3, summarized Willis' task cycle.

Table 2.3 Willis' framework for task cycle (1996)

Pre-task		
The teacher introduces the topic of the task and points out important words or phrases. (Focus on meaning and form)		
Task-cycle		
The main task has three components (focus on meaning) as follows:		
Task Stage	Planning stage	Report Stage
Learners engage in pair or group work while the teacher monitors their progress.	Learners produce a written or oral outcome about what they have learned or discovered.	Learners exchange and compare their outcome with the rest of the class.
Post-task		
Learners listen or read a similar task and compare its outcome to their own work. (Focus on form)		

This framework, as Willis portrays it, has three important stages. The pre-task emphasises preparing the students for the task by equipping them with necessary language forms for the topic. The task-cycle stage is when students perform the task collaboratively, produce written or oral content, and share it with their teacher and classmates. The post-task is when they analyse what they have produced and report on what they have learned from it. The post-task is usually when students shift from meaning to focus on form, where they discuss the problems they faced and the teacher offers them help to understand what they have done incorrectly. Willis' task cycle

emphasises promoting learner-centredness by allowing students to use their own resources to tackle the problems they face.

Furthermore, Ellis (2003) developed a similar model for a task cycle, embracing the three phases of task progress as Willis. The pre-task phase introduces the topic and facilitates language acquisition. The main task or “during task” phase is when students are involved in a task with a time limit. The post-task, in which students repeat a similar task, reflect on the task, or discuss the learned language form. Table 2.4 shows Ellis’ task cycle and its features.

Table 2.4 Task cycle framework as suggested by Ellis (2003)

Task phase	Features
Pre-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Students perform a similar task to the one they will engage in. - Observe a model related to the task (watch or listen) - Non-task activities - Make a strategic plan for the task
During task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Pair or group work - Time pressure - Outcome (linguistic and non-linguistic)
Post-task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Report on progress - Evaluate achievement (reflection) - Repeat a similar task - Draw attention to problematic form

At first glance, Willis’ model of the task cycle could be seen as similar to Ellis’ framework. However, the main difference between Willis’ framework and Ellis’ is the stage in which focus on form occurs. For Willis, form is not predetermined in the task, but the focus on it appears only when needed in the final stage of the task cycle. As for Ellis, treatments of language forms are predetermined and can occur in any of the task phases of the lesson.

For the purpose of this study, Ellis’ task cycle was embraced as a framework for designing the tasks of each reading lesson. The reason for this choice is that participants of this study are intermediate students who do not have sufficient knowledge of the

topics of their textbooks. Aiming for predetermined forms and emphasis on them is necessary for each phase of the task. In addition, dividing the lesson into three smaller phases allows room for detailed observation of students while they perform the task. These phases are similar to the textbook activities that implement PPP as a weak version of CLT, and thus designing tasks for this study was more convenient and assuring to students and teachers. Furthermore, focus on form is considered equally important to be emphasised by teachers and learned by students for the purpose of assessment. Lastly, although much of the literature appeared to be in favour of TBLT, it is vital to note that no method of teaching is perfect, and criticising TBLT should also be considered, as in the next section.

2.3.3 Criticisms of TBLT

Regardless of the major shift towards the use of TBLT, a lot of criticism has been evident in the context of foreign language research. One major viewpoint claims that TBLT may be successful for advanced language learners since they normally know more language and, therefore, can produce more output, but it is less effective for beginner learners (Swan, 2005). Swan also criticised TBLT for the emphasis on output and diminishing the importance of new language input that traditional textbooks provide. Furthermore, Littlewood (2007) lists many classroom problems associated with TBLT such as classroom management, avoidance of English, conflict with educational values and traditions, and minimal demands on language competence.

In addition, Widdowson (2003) argued that the criteria which define tasks are overly loose and TBLT over-emphasises 'authentic' language use. Other researchers (Butler, 2005; Carless, 2004; Li, 1998) claim that TBLT is not a practical approach in Asian countries, where teachers have to adhere to a philosophy of teaching which is

different to that of TBLT, and limited second language proficiency, and they deviated from the tests they need to prepare their students for. In an attempt to revoke these claims against TBLT, Ellis (2009) pointed out that most of this criticism is based on the misinterpretation of TBLT by teachers who favour a more traditional approach in language teaching. He explains that TBLT can engage students in tasks that would promote valuable gains. A final point of criticism is the fact that TBLT was based on an unproved hypothesis (Swan, 2005) which needs further research to investigate its other aspects in different contexts (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). The following section aims to link the previous discussion of on motivation to TBLT. It discusses the ways in which TBLT can enhance learners' motivation and task engagement.

2.3.4 L2 Motivation and TBLT

As discussed earlier in this chapter, motivation is a complex phenomenon and it consists of various components, making it a challenge to conceptualise and measure in motivation research. One important factor to determine how we can measure motivation in L2 learners is choosing carefully what aspects of motivation we are attempting to capture (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013; Touré-Tillery & Fishbach, 2014). Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece (2008) discussed four indexes of motivation drawn from students' behaviours. The first is the choice of task, where students are offered a variety of tasks to choose from, and what they choose would indicate where their motivation lies. Effort is also an indicator of motivation; when students give more effort to difficult tasks it means they are highly motivated. Persistence in task engagement and tackling obstacles is another index of higher motivation. Finally, achievement is considered an indirect indicator of motivation.

L2 motivation research, as discussed in the previous sections, was dominated by analysing learners' achievements. This trend made a direct correlation between students' test scores and their motivation level. Dörnyei (2001) argued that motivation should not be researched in relation to achievement alone, simply because motivation is complex and involves other factors which can affect it. He suggested examining the behaviour of students during learning and how other factors (e.g., working memory, relevance, attitudes) affect students' behaviour, which in turn has an effect on language achievement. According to Brown (2007), there are three levels of motivation; the first is the global motivation, which is the general desire to achieve language-learning goals. The second one is the situational motivation that is dependent on the environment in which an individual is learning. The third one is the task motivation, which refers to how students perceive their needs and how they relate to the task in the classroom. This notion of task motivation adopts Deci and Ryan's idea of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation to gain an external or internal reward (Deci & Ryan, 1985).

The emotional behaviour is another influential factor that was also linked to students' motivation, or lack of it, in terms of their attitudes towards the language task (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei, 1998; Gardner et al, 2004; Kraemer & Birenbaum, 1993). An example of this is Kraemer and Birenbaum's (1993) study of Arabic language learners in Israel and found a positive correlation between students' motivation and their satisfaction with their lessons (attitudes). In the case of tasks and motivation, other studies showed that positive attitudes towards the tasks resulted in a qualitatively higher L2 output (Dörnyei, 2001; Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004). Dörnyei and Kormos' study measured the output of 46 Hungarian students by the number of words and turns produced during oral tasks and analysed their attitudes. Task relevance was also found to contribute to motivation in students, as in the studies by Crookes and

Schmidt (1991) and Bernaus, Moore, and Azevedo (2007), where the latter found that students who failed to connect to the L2 tasks showed a decrease in motivation.

Motivation and engagement are terms that are widely used by L2 researchers, although they can be hard to be precisely described because they have broad and complex meanings (Dörnyei, 2001; Russell, Ainley, & Frydenberg, 2005). Early research on task engagement was conducted in L1 learning environments. An experiment by Turner (1995) revealed that students preferred open tasks to closed ones because it gives them opportunities for challenge and autonomy. Another study by Miller and Meece (1999) showed that students spent more time engaging with difficult and complex tasks compared to the easy ones. However, that could not be the case with L2 task engagement. Lee (2012) suggests that ESL learners showed higher engagement levels in closed tasks rather than open ones due to their lack of the necessary skills. He also suggests balancing between open and closed tasks in accordance with students' level, and this area may need further research.

Learners' task engagement was often used to measure students' motivation, because motivation is hard to observe (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). However, Russell et al. (2005) argue that, sometimes, motivated students do not necessarily engage or show interest in classroom activities. Furthermore, Russell, Jane, and Mackay (2003) stated that a group of highly motivated EFL students showed low levels of task engagement. This shows that motivation and task engagement are not the same, but one of them is possibly the product of the other.

To conclude, it is important to distinguish between motivation and engagement, where motivation is the students' attitude towards what they believe, and engagement is their attitude towards the task. Students are likely to engage in a task if it provides them with opportunities to make choices, connect with others, and offers them a challenge (Shernoff, Kratochwill, & Stoiber, 2003). Another way to move the task to the next

level is through mobile phones. A recommendation made by Frank, Golonka, Bowles, Becker, Freynick and Richardson (2008) points out that technology could provide the students with endless opportunities for various programs and online interactions with native speakers. The following section explores the realm of mobile assisted language learning, giving an overview of its development through the years and how it could be utilised to motivate learners in reading classes.

2.4 Overview of Mobile Assisted Language Learning

To understand Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) better, we should go back in time to the emergence of technology in education in the 1960s. That is the time when Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) started to evolve with the use of computers in language learning and teaching (Warschauer, 1996). In its basic definition, CALL refers to the integration of language learning with technology-assisted learning. Chapelle (2010) states that any type of technology using interactive multimedia and encourages electronic communication can be denoted by CALL. According to Warschauer (1999), the first theories of CALL emerged from behaviourist theories and went through an integrative approach, which is a form of socio-cognitive perspective of learning in the late 1980s. Since language learning is social in nature, constructivist CALL started to gain influence, and more approaches started to integrate technology with teaching pedagogies and authentic content (Hampel & Hauck, 2006; Kern, Ware & Warschauer, 2004).

MALL, on the other hand, builds upon the principle of CALL, but with the mobility and flexibility the devices offer for learning. The affordances of MALL exceed those of CALL with access to authentic language materials that is not restricted to a time and place (Kukulska-Hulme, 2005). Although early definitions of mobile learning

included the use of wireless technologies as a key feature, later definitions started to include other aspects like physical mobility, mobility of technology, social space mobility, and time dispersed learning (Kukulska-Hulme, Sharples, Milrad, Arnedillo-Sánchez & Vavoula, 2011).

The field of educational technology is growing rapidly and computer-assisted language learning (CALL) has developed beyond the use of computer devices because of the growing popularity of mobile devices (Jarvis & Achilleos, 2013). ‘MALL’ is a new term used in the emerging field of Mobile Assisted Language Learning. One of the prominent definitions of mobile learning refers to learning mediated through handheld devices, potentially available anytime, anywhere, for formal or informal learning (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008). In order to understand the concept of MALL, we first have to explain some of the terminology associated with educational technology and how it relates to language learning theories and other language approaches in the following sections.

Mobile learning (m-learning) is a new term that appeared over a decade ago when the first dedicated conference for mobile learning, MLEARN, was held in 2002. This became a new and established field of education in general when both researchers and instructors found its valuable potential for learning. Other organisations and conferences started to establish themselves in this new field of educational technology, such as the International Conference on Mobile Learning (ICML) and the National Workshop on Mobile and Wireless Technologies in Education (WMTE), to name a few. Mobile learning is showing consistent growth since its emergence and has moved from small-scale pilot projects to become ready to confront more difficult issues like sustainability and evaluation in education and training (Kukulska-Hulme & Traxler, 2005).

M-learning has many definitions by different researchers. Early perspectives of m-learning centred around the technology itself as a delivery method, by means of mobile technology such as mobile phones and digital audio players. Ally (2005) defined mobile learning as a method of delivering learning materials on a mobile device that allows access from anywhere and anytime. Keegan (2005) claimed that mobile learning ought to be restricted to learning in portable devices that could be carried everywhere. Furthermore, other researchers suggest that M-learning is an extension of e-learning which can take place anytime anywhere with the help of a mobile communication device.

Many researchers aimed to define mobile learning as the learning that occurs with the use of mobile devices to facilitate that learning (Hwang & Chang, 2011; Kukulska-Hulme & Traxler, 2005). Some researchers consider M-learning to be an extension or a subset of electronic learning (e-learning) (Brown 2003; Keegan, 2005). Winters (2007) even put e-learning (learning through digital media tools) as a phase that started after research focused on the technological aspect of mobile devices rather than the learning or the learners. The phase after that was the focus on m-learning as a reinforcement for classroom learning. Furthermore, other researchers concluded that m-learning is a subset of d-learning (distance learning) as well as e-learning (Chan et al., 2006). However, when compared to distance and electronic learning, mobile learning does not have a major difference except for the terminology (Laouris & Eteokleous, 2005). Whether m-learning is a subset of e-learning or d-learning, its primary focus was always on the online delivery of content similar to online learning.

According to Kukulska-Hulme (2009), the term “mobility” does not only mean spatial movement, but also how such movement influences temporal or conceptual borders. “Mobile” can refer to the technology, the students, or the content. Vavoula and Sharples (2002) mentioned three ways in which learning can be considered mobile. The

first way is in terms of space (where learning takes place at home or school). The second is regarding the different areas of life (self-improvement, leisure, school demand). The third is in terms of time (at night, at weekends, during the day).

According to this, learning can happen anywhere, anytime, and in any aspect of life. This makes mobile phones powerful, because many students carry these devices with them all the time. However, the relationship between mobility and learning has not emerged because of new technology. The concept of mobility is closely linked to the nature of learning (Naismith, Sharples, Vavoula & Lonsdal, 2004).

The impact of technology is felt in many areas of communication and not least in language education. Many schools as well as having supplied a number of computers, have their own website and many publishing houses have integrated their textbooks with their websites. There are also some companies which provide language courses via the Internet; programs and software have been developed for this purpose. The use of technology in the teaching of language is influenced by three factors, namely technology knowledge and skill in its use, the pedagogical approach of the teachers, and the competence and ability of students. The first two factors have a major impact on the work and results, so there is a need to aim for a higher level of preparation by upgrading in-service teachers and adequately preparing future instructors. The third factor requires some initial investigation of the students' skills and needs to determine what is best for their learning experience.

To conclude, mobile learning is a multidimensional concept that can be integrated into various ways and settings. Recent research has shown a shift towards focusing on using mobile phones in language learning. These studies, according to Stockwell (2012), use mobile phones in language learning in two ways: the first is as a communication tool (e.g., Short Messaging System (SMS) and email) and the second is through an internet browser or installed applications. Whichever way phones are used in

a language-learning context, many studies have been conducted on vocabulary learning and other aspects of language learning (Chen & Chung, 2008; Kennedy & Levy, 2008; Lu, 2008; Stockwell, 2008, 2010). The following section examines some types of mobile devices that are used in language learning around the world, and what they have to offer to learners in educational settings.

2.4.1 Mobile learning affordances and challenges

The application of technology in a learning and teaching environment is considered an important element, which has gathered considerable interest in the recent years. The development of hand-held devices, based on computers, gave birth to Mobile-Assisted Language Learning. Earlier, MALL was concentrated on the exploration of five main mobile technologies, namely Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs), electronic pocket dictionaries, MP3 players, ultra-portable tablet personal computers and mobile phones (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). As noted in the previous sections, any portable device can be called ‘mobile’ if it is not restricted to be used in one place as a desktop computer is. The following is a brief description of the most popular mobile devices to date.

E-book reader: These devices are mainly used for downloading digital books and magazines in a book-size screen with powerful backlighting for comfortable reading.

iPod: This digital media player by Apple, Inc. is designed to download music and other audio files such as podcasts and audiobooks. Another type of the iPod is the iPod Touch, which adds various services to the normal iPod such as video players and access to the Internet similar to a smartphone.

Laptop or tablet: These devices are bigger in size than smartphones and have even more features. Tablets such as an iPad are usually more expensive and combine

the functions of the iPod touch and smartphones but in a larger size. They provide larger screens and it is easier to type with their touch keyboard. However, because of their relatively larger size, it makes them not as portable as the smartphones or the iPod touch. In the same vein, laptops are powerful and have full functionality as a desktop computer, but their size makes them difficult to carry around and they take more time to start up.

Smartphone: A device which combines the features of a cell phone (calls and text messaging) with other capabilities such as a digital camera, audio and video players, and access to the Internet. The popularity of smart mobile phones has influenced the learning, communication and life style of society. The growing technologies, which include podcasting, social networking and speech recognition enclosed in the applications of the mobile increase the changes taking place in the Mobile Assisted Language Learning environments by including new opportunities for learning and reforming the learning styles. The use of mobile technologies is capturing the attention of new users, providing sophisticated use and increasing the capacity (Godwin-Jones, 2012).

The use of smartphone and tablet technology has become much more central in the classroom in recent years. This is partly due to the reduction in the price of these technologies as well as the desire of educational institutions to be able to use tablets as a selling point in terms of their commitment to educational technology. When we talk about mobile devices, that term includes all portable devices such as PDAs and MP3 players. Mobile phones are portable and usually personal in nature and are not shared. However, they have a network capability that makes sharing and receiving information very easy. Klopfer, Squire and Jenkins (2002) suggest some key advantages to mobile learning:

Portability: the mobility of the devices makes them easy to use anytime and anywhere

Social interactivity: students and their peers and teachers can interact and exchange information and activities.

Connectivity: students can stay connected with classmates and teachers for updates and shared experiences.

When using any type of technology for educational purposes, researchers and educators must first understand its affordances to inform future decisions for implementing it (Gibson, 1986). Combining smartphones devices with the power of the Internet can have huge potentials when compared to traditional textbook-focused lessons (Wallace, 2004). An important potential use of mobile phones is to facilitate communication and collaboration in learning. One unique feature of smartphones is that they offer immediate feedback from teachers and other students to learners' assignments and quizzes (Norris & Soloway, 2004). An example of students' collaboration using smartphones is the study by Yarnall, Carriere, Stanford, Manning and Melton (2007) which found that students spent more time writing when they were offered collaborative activities.

The ideal situation would be to have many computers and many links, but especially at present, there are several situations where it is still possible to achieve the same result (Haynes, 2012).

1. Download material from the internet and make copies for the class by printing directly from that page on the Internet or transferring it on transparency (the danger is that the material is too large, or there is the copyright);
2. Save pages as text and then open the document in a word processor;
3. Save the page as an HTML document or otherwise and show these documents on your computer or a television monitor;

Sometimes a single computer may be too small to show the whole class the material but there may be different solutions like a widescreen TV, an LCD projector, and a

computer's display adapter to the TV monitor. In case work is done with multiple computers but without the connection, the teacher can save the pages to disk first and then bring them to class to work in offline mode. This procedure can also be useful if the computer lab is equipped with connection because in this case, the web pages are more easily accessible, the asset is controlled by the teacher and students cannot get lost in prohibited areas. Pages can also be downloaded first and then be networked to the laboratory server.

Another powerful function of smartphones is the ability to install different applications and tools for interactive learning opportunities. Some of those apps are general-purpose and not intended for learning, but teachers and educators can use them in the classroom for educational purposes. Some general apps are the calculator, maps and weather forecasting tools. Godwin-Jones (2011) discussed some apps that have a high potential for educational use, one of which is the web browser "Mobile Safari" which is a built-in app in all iOS devices like iPhones and iPod touch devices. Users can have access to the "full" web by typing a link or searching for information using powerful search engines like Google. Similar web-browsers are also available through different platforms in various smartphones like Samsung and Sony which use Android as their operating system instead of iOS used for Apple devices.

Other general applications that can be used for specific learning situations such as language learning have been overviewed by many educators online. Siskin (2009) made a list of apps that can be implemented for language learning. Those apps can be used in the classroom or for informal learning. On the other hand, more language-specific apps are becoming popular and more powerful than ever (Rosell-Aguilar, 2017). Duolingo is one the highest rated apps available on the Internet and has apps for different platforms. Babbel is another similar app to Duolingo, but it requires a monthly payment to alter the learning experience according to the individual's needs.

Smartphones are becoming more popular among students, but not for educational usage. Most smartphone owners use them for sharing images and videos on the Internet and social media. Some of the apps discussed previously have appealing characteristics like having control over learning goals, mobility, and instant sharing (Clough et al., 2008). According to Hwang and Chang (2011), mobile learning can be more attractive to students than traditional learning and can greatly motivate them.

Mobile learning is considered a blend of learning theories with variable pedagogical underpinnings (Sharples, Arnedillo-Sánchez, Milrad & Vavoula, 2009), and it is defined as a form of learning and teaching rather than being viewed as merely a portable electronic one. Three main features that encourage the use of mobile phones in the classroom, according to Kukulska-Hulme (2007), are the accessibility to information, the need for change in education, and institutional goals for development. When we want to examine this change and need for development, we see more interest in collaborative learning to help students see language from a different perspective using mobile technology.

The lack of authentic and meaningful opportunities for language practice outside the classroom is considered a limitation of EFL instruction in the world. Integrating technology into EFL learning can provide learners with authentic and contextual material to enrich students' engagement with the target language out-of-class (Shin, 2006). Mobile technologies can provide rich out-of-class learning chances for EFL learning (Kolb, 2008; Kukulska-Hulme, 2009; Wong, Chai, Chin, Hsieh, & Liu, 2011).

In addition, mobile phones can bridge the divide between the technologies students use at home and what they use in school, i.e., social communities that students developed outside the classroom, which can be used for contextually based out-of-class activities (Prabhu, 2010). Graves (2008) made a distinction between target language embedded and target language removed contexts and how it might provide for out-of-

class learning. Learning outside the classroom can also be called informal learning. Livingston (2000) defines informal learning as a deliberate form of learning that happens without a classroom, an instructor, or an organised curriculum (as cited in Clough, Jones, McAndrew & Scanlon, 2008). The use of mobile learning can happen anywhere and anytime according to Attewell (2005). Sharples et al. (2010) also support the idea that mobile learning can be extended to happen outside the classroom when used in a communicative way. Using these portable technologies resulted in a noticeable improvement in students' achievements. They also noticed that students could share their experiences outside the classroom by posting images and video clips.

To conclude, the literature in the field of MALL revealed some benefits regarding students enjoyment and motivation (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Rau, Gao & Wu, 2008), Co-constructing learning through collaborative activities (Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008), and Social interactivity (Naismith et al., 2004). It is also important to note some of the limitations shown in the literature regarding the use of mobile phones. These include issues in informal teacher-learner interaction (Kukulska-Hulme, 2010), screen size (Cheng, Hwang, Wu, Shadiev, & Xie, 2010; Thornton & Houser, 2002), and keeping batteries charged (Perry, 2003). Some other challenges not related to the technology were mentioned by Kukulsak-Hulme (2010), regarding the students' privacy when giving out their mobile numbers or information, information overload, and the lack of guidelines on what is acceptable in the interaction between teacher and student. However, Rau, Gao and Wu (2008) claim that students in Taiwan felt that the communication between the students and the instructors led to a positive view of the teacher and the learning material, which in turn led to an increase in their motivation to learn. Using mobile devices in the language classroom on its own does not make learning better without also implementing a good pedagogical approach. The following

section discusses the learning theories related to technology-mediated learning and how they can influence the learning experience of the 21st century.

2.4.2 Learning theories associated with mobile learning

Although Burston (2014) states that MALL was dominated by behaviourist paradigms since Kukulska-Hulme and Shields (2008), he believes that this is not the only approach that supports and informs mobile learning. A theory of mobile learning is essential when thinking of the role of mobility and communication in language learning. A crucial step in creating a theory of mobile learning is to define the key features that distinguish a mobile learning system from other learning methods (Sharples et al., 2010). The first feature is the mobility component, which gives the opportunity for learners to take control of their learning process. Secondly, it is important to consider that learning can occur anytime, anywhere and is not restricted to the classroom. Thirdly, the necessity for having powerful mobile devices is increasing in popularity. Sharples et al. (2010) suggest that the mobile learning theory must be tested to ensure that: 1- it covers both formal and informal learning, 2- it theorises learning as a constructive and social process, 3- it analyses learning as a personal and situated activity using technology.

Mobile technology can impact the way learning is directed, whether learner-centred, knowledge-centred, community-centred, or assessment-centred (Naismith et al., 2004). There is not a singular theory predictably associated with mobile learning (Burston, 2014). To name a few current mobile learning theories: Behaviourism, Cognitivism, Constructivism, Situated Learning, Problem-Based Learning, Lifelong Learning, Informal learning, Socio-Cultural, and Activity Theory. However, Siemens (2005) identified limitations when applying those traditional learning theories to

technology-based learning because “these theories do not address learning that occurs outside of people (i.e., learning that is stored and manipulated by technology). They also fail to describe how learning happens within organisations” (p. 11).

Constructivist learning is an activity process in which learners construct new concepts based on their current and past knowledge (Bruner, 1966; Naismith et al., 2004). It focuses on context and content-dependent learning as well as collaboration and interaction in a mobile learning environment. Students are working with their higher order skills like analysis and synthesis and they address real-life tasks which they will likely experience in the real world. This approach engages learners in situations where they have to collaboratively consider their own explanations for problems or questions with the support and guidance of a facilitator (Altalib, 2002). Some examples of these applications are games, virtual reality, SMS, and interactive multimedia. Situated or contextual learning is a process of social participation rather than the acquisition of knowledge by individuals (Brown et al., 1989). Finally, there is the individualism perspective, which focuses on the individuals who are productive when interacting or creating information through their portable device (Wexler, 2009).

2.4.3 Mobile Language Learning research

In his review of MALL research, Burston (2014) analysed 570 works that have appeared over two decades of his publication. This comparative analysis found that over 40% of the work done in MALL was on mobile phones, and English was the target language in more than 60% of the overall publications. Most of the MALL applications were in Japan and Taiwan, and adults in university settings formed the majority of those studies. Furthermore, the most targeted language area was vocabulary, at nearly 45%, followed by listening (14%) and speaking (7%).

Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson, and Freynik (2014) reviewed over 350 publications that focused on empirical studies investigating the ‘actual’ technology implementation in language learning rather than researching their ‘potential’ use. They gathered all the studies that compared a technology-mediated approach with the traditional method of teaching, and they concluded that the studies, specifically on mobile devices, were not sufficiently addressed. According to their criteria, they only found one study exploring the impact of using tablets on language reading processes. Lan, Sung, and Chang (2007) studied two groups of elementary EFL learners in Taiwan to investigate how students collaborate and work with their peers using technology. One group used tablets with a mobile-device-supported peer-assisted learning (MPAL) system and Skype to get feedback, while the other group did not. The results showed that the tablet group performed better than the control group in terms of collaborative behaviour, paying attention to reading tasks, and overall motivation and confidence. In the case of smartphones, Golonka et al. (2014) found that the majority of research targeted the use of messaging (SMS) when compared to paper-based teaching. Finally, Golonka et al. (2014) called for more empirical studies on the actual effects of using technology in EFL in terms of the process and outcome of learning. They argue that most of the literature revolves around the affordances and the level of enjoyment amongst students, but whether the students’ enjoyment may lead to learning achievement is still under-researched.

Recent research on the literature from 2007 to 2016 also revealed that mobile phone use was dominant in MALL research (Shadiev, Hwang & Huang, 2017). Shadiev et al. (2017) found that most of the research conducted in this period focused on learners’ perceptions ($n=33$), which included their perceptions in general, their learning attitudes, and their level of satisfaction. Language proficiency was second ($n=32$), with listening at the top (8 publications), followed by speaking (5 publications), then writing

(3 publications), and finally reading (2 publications). Less focus was on learning behaviour (n=16), where observations were used in only five research papers. Finally, similar to Golonka et al. (2014), they suggested that future studies should consider assessing students' proficiency by comparing two groups of learners with and without the use of technology.

Although there has been an interest in benefiting from the technological advances in language teaching and learning worldwide, not much has been explored in Saudi Arabia. Most of the research done in this field targeted students' perceptions of using mobile phones, but without using it as an experiment in actual classrooms. Even less research explored the relationship between mobile learning and students' behaviour in language classes in general, and reading classes in particular. Nalliveettil and Alenazi (2016) conducted research to explore Saudi students' perceptions of using mobile phones to master language skills. 52 undergraduate English major students took part in this study using questionnaires. The results showed that 67% of the students think using mobile phones would improve their language skills, and they use it to check spelling and grammar even if they are not in the classroom. Again, that study did not experiment on the real use of mobile phones in the classroom, and only aimed at examining students' attitudes towards the use of technology in EFL.

Alsheail (2010) proposed a guide on how to use available technologies for learning purposes and developing course topics and criteria for choosing content and setting goals for second language teaching. Furthermore, Altameem (2011) proposed a framework for a mobile learning system for Saudi universities, which included educational resources, training, blogs, and games. This framework was shown to deans of some leading universities who supported the idea and suggested further improvement and research. This showed the widespread interest in integrating this technology into the educational system in Saudi Arabia.

Moreover, in the field of distance learning, an adaptive mobile course system was developed and tested at King Abdulaziz University. Razek and Bardesi (2011) designed a prototype for an integrated business course which allowed participants access to study units, learning objectives, assigned reading materials, and general information about class rules and plans. They found that most participants had positive attitudes in terms of self-paced learning and involvement in online discussions.

In the realm of educational social media, a study by Al-Shehri (2012) found that using Facebook through mobile phones enabled students to transition from being passive to being more involved in their learning task. It also showed that students experienced contextual learning that was highly student-centred and collaborative. The study used qualitative tools, which included pre- and post-task interviews, stimulated recall sessions, and Facebook observation.

A paper by Khrisat and Mahmoud (2013) conducted an experimental study on foundation year language students at King Abdulaziz University. They formed two groups of male students, in which the control group had a regular class while the experimental one was taught with the aid of mobile phones. The results show no significant difference between the two groups. However, the study did not focus on one particular skill, and used basic features of the mobile phones such as taking notes and texting. Nonetheless, the findings show that the students held positive attitudes towards using mobile phones in an EFL context.

Finally, Abanomey (2013) conducted an experimental study on 348 male university students. The control group undertook a reading comprehension test in printed format, and the experimental group took the same test but using an online format. The findings show that the experimental group did slightly better in achievement ($M=0.73$) than the control group ($M=0.67$). Abanomey (2013) suggests that students who used the online format might have been more motivated than their

peers who used a paper-based format. This conclusion was based on the work of Alipanahi (2005), who found significant differences in attitudes and performance between an online reading group and a paper-based group. Regardless of the remarkable findings, the study of Abanomey (2013) relied solely on students' achievement scores in one test. The participants did not experience any mobile-based reading classes or training before the experiment took place. Moreover, motivation and students' behaviours were not under investigation in this paper.

In conclusion, little research has been conducted in Saudi Arabia to explore the area of MALL and how it might motivate language learners to develop their L2 reading skills. Researchers in Saudi Arabia call for more studies in the effects of using smartphones for specific language skills to aid students' motivation and language acquisition.

2.5 MALL and L2 reading

The use of authentic materials is an important principle of communicative language teaching (Brandl, 2002). According to Warschauer (1997), computer-mediated communication activities should be goal-oriented and the tasks should be meaningful and of interest to the learners. The most prominent reason for the use of the Internet is the wide access to authentic materials in L2. Chun and Plass (2000) listed other general features of using the World Wide Web in educational language settings such as the communication opportunities through networking, multimedia use, and the non-linear structure of information. However, Brandl (2002) points out some challenges that must be considered before using internet-based reading materials in a foreign language classroom, which are:

1. The presentation of hyperlinked information may cause students to get lost.

2. There is no control over the quality and accuracy of the information.
3. There is not enough empirical research on how to design tasks using internet-based materials.

In an attempt to overcome these challenges, Brandl (2002) suggested three different approaches for the use of internet-based reading tasks in the language curriculum. The following section will explore those approaches, which range from a teacher-centred to a student-centred approach to lesson design.

1. Teacher-determined lessons: this approach uses the computer as an electronic textbook, where the reading materials are previously selected by the teacher according to students' proficiency level and made available to them through the teacher's webpage. The significance of the use of computers over printed resources is that students can have access to those materials outside the classroom at their own pace. According to Brandl, the use of this approach allows learners to take advantage of the images and hypermedia functions when reading and exploring the tasks.
2. Teacher-facilitated lessons: this approach has gained popularity amongst language instructors, where the teacher selects a topic and a set of goals for the lesson. A few websites are then selected and the teacher facilitates the reading process and guides the learners through a variety of tasks that students should accomplish. The tasks are designed in a way that it is not too broad so students will not get lost, and yet it is open enough for different outcomes. This approach has a high potential for beginners and intermediate level students.
3. Learner-determined lessons: in this approach, the learners determine the topics, reading materials, and how they will explore the texts themselves. They take the role of autonomous learners who formulate the goals, search for content, and decide how the outcome would be evaluated. This approach follows the

theory of project-based learning, which Stoller (1997) describes as a focus on content learning rather than language targets. However, this open-ended approach requires that learners have higher language proficiency skills and, therefore, might not work with beginners.

For the purpose of this study, the teacher-determined approach will be implemented in the design of this experiment. Although it is important to shift the learning process to a more learner-centred approach, it is difficult to do so in this particular study because there is a fixed curriculum to be used and it will not be fair to other groups who are not participating in the experiment. This ethical consideration will be discussed in Chapter 3 section 3.4.4. Authentic reading materials can be easily accessed through the Internet and can be read anywhere anytime. The next section investigates another approach to motivating students. Using a more communicative approach to language learning can make learners more active during the lessons and might offer teachers a unique approach to motivating students by using Task-Based Language Teaching.

2.6 Motivation through tasks and smartphones

The use of online communication technologies is a growing area and has attracted the interest of researchers (González-Lloret and Ortega, 2014; Ushioda, 2013). Several studies have been carried out to investigate the use of mobile technologies and motivation in language learning (Li & Hegelheimer 2013; Wang & Smith 2013). An issue has been raised on how the use of smartphones will make a difference in language learning from a motivational point of view (Ushioda, 2013). She suggested that it is better if learners were given the freedom of choice of how much they wish to engage with mobile technologies when learning a language, which underlines the importance of intrinsic motivation that leads to high quality learning. Therefore, in this study, this

blend between in-class structured TBLT informed tasks with the use of smartphones will be presented through the lens of the self-determination theory (SDT). This theoretical framework supports the idea that people have an inherent desire for psychological growth and development of their skills, which forms a sense of autonomy that motivates them to learn (Ushioda, 2013). From this perspective, it is suggested that students should be free to choose whether to use their smartphones to engage in language learning inside or outside the classroom. Petersen and Sachs (2015) suggest that:

“One possible step forward would be to approach MALL with a philosophy of task-based language teaching, encouraging learners to use mobile devices ... to scaffold themselves through the performance of relevant real-world multimodal communicative tasks in ways that promote input, output, negotiation of meaning and feedback” (p.15).

The use of technology in foreign languages strategies is a useful technique to assist learners and encourage them to use L2 outside the classroom. Frank et al. (2008) suggested that using technology allowed students to take control of their learning by using computer-assisted interactive programs over the Internet, which allowed for interactions with other native speakers of L2. Furthermore, a study by Al Jarf (2004) examined the different levels of achievement in writing of two groups at King Saud University, Saudi Arabia. The first group used only their textbooks, whereas the other group used a combination of textbook and web-based instruction to share their assignments for 12 weeks. The results showed that the second group was more motivated to write and had developed significantly in their writing skills.

It was reported that web-based assignments had a positive effects on students' motivation and attitudes to learning the language and culture (Lafford & Lafford, 1997; Lee, 1997, 1998; Osuna & Meskill, 1998). Several empirical studies on university-level

students used self-report questionnaires and interviews about those assignments, which all showed positive reactions from students (Gruber-Miller & Benton, 2001; Lafford & Lafford, 1997; Osuna & Meskill, 1998).

Most EFL contexts in Asia and the Middle East have been characterised as teacher-centred and students are assumed to be passive recipients of knowledge (Al-Hazmi, 2003, 2008; Chen, 2007, Crooks & Lehner, 1998; Liu, 1998). In addition, EFL education has been criticised as being in-class-only learning and target language opportunities are rarely available outside the classrooms. In Saudi Arabia, classes are not only characterised by teacher dominance, but also by a focus on content delivery (Al-Seghayer, 2014) where the teachers are burdened with the responsibility for delivering the knowledge to their students. In order to increase the relevance of language learning in EFL contexts, there is a need for more student-centred collaborative and communicative activities that educational technology might offer.

There has been a considerable amount of interest in the field of technology mediated TBLT in research articles and books. Chapters by Schrooten (2006) and González-Lloret (2007) discussed the potential ways of enhancing the integration of TBLT and technology, as cited in Van den Branden (2006) and Van den Branden, Verhelst, and Van Gorp (2007). Additionally, a book by Al-Bulushi (2010), an edited collection by Thomas and Reinders (2010), and the recent publication of González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) also presented valuable insights on the use of technology informed by language teaching pedagogy.

A study conducted in an Iranian EFL context showed that university students had a positive attitude towards the use of technology in their English classes (Kalanzadeh, Soleimani, Bakhtiarvand, 2014). In her published article edited by González-Lloret and Ortega, Solares (2014) conducted a study in an EFL classroom with three groups. The first group engaged in technology-mediated task-based

instructional design. The second group underwent the same design but without the use of technology. The third group used the textbooks only and did not implement the task-based design or technology. The results showed no difference in linguistic gains among the three groups, but students in the first group reported developing new digital competencies, and both groups held positive perceptions towards task components and technology use.

In their chapter, Tran, Warschauer, and Conley (2013) argue that one of the important strengths of mobile devices is their potential to motivate learners by discussing the unique features of handheld phones and tablets. In their attempt to apply motivation theories to learning with mobile devices, they focused on how such devices can increase intrinsic motivation through the self-determination theory discussed in the Section 2.2.2. The reason behind this choice is that the use of mobile phones is often driven by people's own choice, which applies to intrinsic motivation. Such handheld devices include portable features that are suitable to address the conditions to enhance self-determination: autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

Competence: the need to develop key skills to gain confidence (Ryan & Deci, 2002). For students to feel confident, they need to know that they have the skills required to resolve challenges in their learning process and be provided with constant feedback for their work. The use of technology in education can provide unique opportunities for rapid feedback and adaptive instruction.

Autonomy: students will feel intrinsically motivated and will have a strong desire to face challenges if their teacher supports their need for autonomy (Deci et al. 1991). This sense of autonomy happens when the students have some control over the way they learn, which is a factor missing from the traditional nature of education in Asian and Middle Eastern countries. Having the Internet in handheld devices enables students to gain access to multiple sources of information and allows them to navigate

and explore knowledge in their own time and at their own pace. Tran et al. (2013) state that because mobile phones' applications are easy to start and close, the user becomes more autonomous because he or she can decide how and when to interact with the device.

Relatedness: students are intrinsically motivated when they have a sense of belongingness; when they feel respected by their teacher and classmates (Ryan & Deci, 2000b). The Internet in mobile devices allows for endless opportunities for social interactions and a larger audience that they could collaboratively learn with (Warschauer, 1996, 1997). Writing to an audience can increase students' interest when writing an essay, and blogging or fan fiction have been much approved of and discussed in the literature.

A study by Chen and Brown (2012) investigated the role of task-based CALL on students' motivation in writing, with a focus on the aspect of providing an authentic audience to the students. Although the results showed elevated levels of motivation, some students preferred to have a variety of tasks that focused on meaning and others with a focus on form. This emphasised the importance of form that should not be ignored in designing the tasks (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). However, Chen and Brown's findings concluded that the students felt motivated to share their writing with native speakers as well as their classmates. Because they engaged in tasks that they felt were meaningful to them, they became more responsible for their learning in a competitive and collaborative environment.

Lastly, a study by Sarhandi et al., (2017) experimented on Saudi undergraduate EFL learners using paper-based and smartphone-based tasks to identify differences in motivation and achievement. The participants were found to be highly motivated to engage in the mobile tasks and scored higher results in the language test when compared to the other group. However, since both groups used the exact tasks with a

different delivery method, the researchers attributed the success of this method to the “escape from routine” element. Other components of the mobile tasks were not explored in that study and further research was suggested to challenge this hypothesis and explore other facets of this approach.

To summarise, although there has been much interest in combining the field of TBLT with MALL, the real challenge is how to integrate the two together while this area is still new and under-researched (González-Lloret & Ortega, 2014). Nonetheless, the previous authors believe that if a technology-mediated task was integrated properly with TBLT theory, technology can minimise students’ fear of failure, raise their motivation to be meaningful and creative, and enable them to practise their language with other speakers worldwide. It is vital, then, to consider the use of technology to mediate tasks, and not merely as a vehicle to deliver them.

2.7 Summary

From the review of much of the literature in TBLT and MALL, the researcher found that: a) most studies on mobile tasks occurred in non-Saudi contexts; b) most studies on mobile language learning in Saudi institutions mostly focused on exploring learners’ and teachers’ perception, and did not investigate the pedagogical aspects of motivation in particular; c) studies that combine the use of TBLT with smartphones to motivate students are still in need of further investigation; d) research that targeted behavioural motivation is still under-researched; e) most studies on mobile language learning were focused mainly on vocabulary, listening and speaking, whereas reading was scarcely targeted.

For the first two points, Burston (2014) revealed that most of the studies on MALL originated from Japan and Taiwan (37%), and few Arabic contexts were

addressed. In a similar manner, Elaish et al. (2017) identified two studies from the United Arab Emirates and only one from Saudi Arabia to appear out of more than 171 research papers covering the years from 2010 to 2015. Furthermore, motivation research in Saudi Arabia focused more on uncovering aspects of demotivation (Al-Qahtani, 2016; Alrabai, 2016; Al-Seghayer, 2014) and less on exploring ways to overcome motivational challenges with the use of TBLT (Hakim, 2015), motivational strategies (Alqahtani, 2016), authentic materials (Alshumaimeri & Alzyadi, 2015), and smartphone-based activities (Sarhandi et al., 2017). As a consequence, one of the aims of this current study was to analyse some of the motivational challenges that learners face regarding the teaching methods used and how mobile tasks could address them.

Regarding the third point, González-Lloret and Ortega (2014) have called for further research that combines the use of clearly defined tasks with new technologies to aid language learning, as it is still an emerging area of research. For the last two points, meta-analysis of the field of MALL has shown that reading was less targeted than other language skills. Burston (2014) stated that 45% of the targeted content in MALL focused on vocabulary learning, followed by listening (14%) and speaking and reading (8%). Similarly, Elaish et al. (2017) analysed over 171 research papers on mobile English language learning and found that vocabulary-targeted research formed 21%, whereas reading formed only 7%. Although studies on MALL and motivation are widely investigated (Elaish et al., 2017), behavioural motivation and students' observed engagement still need further research (Bodnar et al., 2016).

The current study is unique in that it combines the pedagogical aspects of TBLT, with MALL practices to design mobile tasks informed by SDT to investigate students' motivation in reading classes. The study first examines the motivational challenges that learners face with their current teaching, and then compares them to the motivational behaviour of students who used mobile tasks. Lastly, students report on their experience

with mobile tasks in order to determine the elements that had an effect on their behaviour.

This chapter reviewed the relevant research on motivation in language learning with task-based mobile devices. It theoretically framed this study based on the concepts of motivational theories, with particular attention to the Self-Determination Theory. Studies on the integration between TBLT and MALL showed how mobile tasks created a more motivating environment for EFL students by providing authentic material, audience, feedback, collaboration, autonomy, competition, and interaction. Students who are motivated to learn have the desire to learn the language, and then transform that desire into action by putting effort into their learning regardless of the success or failure of their attempts and actions (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). Therefore, learners who have the desire to learn a language but spend no energy on learning are considered demotivated.

This chapter gave an overview of L2 motivation, TBLT, and MALL. Discussion on the interrelationship with all of them together showed the complex and dynamic nature of this research area. Motivation is different from task engagement, as students can say they are motivated to learn but show little engagement with the classroom task (Russell et al., 2005). Finally, the current literature suggests that it is inappropriate to assume that the use of smartphone tasks can motivate students on its own without further investigation supported by motivational theories (Jones et al., 2009).

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided a thorough review of the literature related to this research on the effects of using mobile technologies, with the aid of task-based language teaching, on learners' motivation in the EFL classroom. Much of the EFL research conducted in the Saudi context supports the idea of integrating technology to aid in motivating university students to practise the language in the classroom (Alqurashi, 2014; Alrabai, 2016; Al-Tameemy, 2016; Nalliveettil & Alenazi, 2016; Taj et al., 2017). However, not enough studies have carried out classroom research to investigate learners' motivational behaviour when using mobile tasks informed by motivation theories. This research aims to contribute to the literature and explore the ways in which mobile tasks could enhance students' participation and language practice in the classroom and the effects of this method on their achievement in the reading class.

This chapter first restates the research questions in Section 3.2 then demonstrates the research paradigm that guided this study in Section 3.3. Next, the research design in Section 3.4 explains this study's mixed methods approach, the selection of participants, ethical considerations, and the researcher's positionality. Section 3.5 describes how the reading tasks were designed for each group using two smartphone apps and the Internet with the experimental group. Section 3.6 reveals details of the data collection tools, justifying the use of questionnaires, tests, observation and focus groups. Section 3.7 demonstrates the main study's procedures and how data were collected from the three groups in the pilot and main studies. Data analysis in Section 3.8 describes the coding and thematic analysis of the qualitative data processes and the measures used for the

quantitative data. Validity and trustworthiness are discussed in Section 3.9. Finally, the summary section includes key elements from this chapter and restates the purpose of this study.

3.2 Research questions

To ensure the significance of this study remains clear, it is important to reaffirm the research problems discussed in Chapter 1. There has been an increasing call for implementing technology in the language classroom, but little research has investigated the effects of mobile tasks on learners' motivational behaviour. This study primarily aims to investigate how the use of mobile tasks could impact students' motivation in the reading classroom. Table 3.1 gives an overview of the three research questions and the methods and data collection instruments used to answer each question.

Table 3.1 Overview of the research questions, methods, data collection tools, and participants

Research questions	Method	Data collection	Participants
1- What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching method in the reading classroom?	Quantitative	Questionnaire	72
	Qualitative	Focus groups	13
2- In what ways does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation?	Quantitative	Pre/Post-test Questionnaire Observation	72
3- How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?	Quantitative	Questionnaire	72
	Qualitative	Focus groups	13

The first research question sets the scene by uncovering the motivational challenges that the students perceived in their 'traditional' classroom instruction. The questionnaire results provided students' overall perceptions, and the focus groups

provided additional information on demotivational factors. The second research question explores the aspects of motivation on students: levels of linguistic progress through achievement scores, levels of attention, participation, and volunteering. The data to answer this question were gathered quantitatively through the use of classroom observation, questionnaires, and tests. The third question aims to understand the elements of mobile tasks that the students identified as motivational.

Motivation is difficult to observe, so most L2 motivational studies have examined the relationship between motivation and language achievement through test scores (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). To investigate the effect of different teaching methods on students' motivation, researchers have used behavioural measures (course attendance, volunteering answers) as criterion variables to make the concept of motivation more attainable (see Table 3.5 in Section 3.6.3 for variable definitions). The next section discusses this study's research paradigm.

3.3 Philosophical paradigm

Patton (2002) defines a paradigm as a worldview that is informed by the philosophical assumptions of the nature of reality, ways of gaining knowledge, and ways to know if that knowledge is true. According to Creswell and Clark (2011), a worldview is the “basic set of beliefs or assumptions that guide inquiries” (p.39). The most well-known and widely referred to paradigms are positivism, constructivism, and pragmatism. A brief discussion about positivism and constructivism will be presented below, followed by the pragmatic paradigm and why it was chosen in the context of this study.

3.3.1 Positivist paradigm

Positivism is based on the beliefs that knowledge is only gained through sensory experience and interpreted through mathematical procedures. In other words, a positivist supports the scientific method as the only way to establish truth and objective reality, and hence it is referred to as the conventional paradigm (Guba, 1990).

Positivism is based on experimentation and deductive logic to formulate and test hypotheses before arriving at measurable outcomes. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2002), a positivist researcher should be able to generalize the results of the research to other situations using the inductive inferences.

The ultimate aim for a positivist researcher is to establish theories that account for social behaviour. Positivism uses internal validity, external validity, and reliability as criteria for validating data (Creswell, 2003). Moreover, positivism is characterised by the use of quantifiable measures to test hypotheses and draw conclusions from the tested population. It is popular in the physical and natural sciences and uses mainly quantitative measures to acquire knowledge (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Although it is still widely utilized within the social sciences, it has been criticised by interpretivists because social life is complex and truth is plural rather than singular.

3.3.2 The interpretivist/constructivist paradigm

The interpretivists and constructivist paradigms understand the world in similar ways in that knowledge is seen to be subjective and stems from human experience (Guba & Lincoln, 1989). In other words, knowledge is constructed through the researcher's cognitive processing of data and through interaction with research subjects. For the interpretivist, reality is socially constructed and, therefore, researchers are inevitably

influenced by their values in such a way that bias cannot be removed, though it may be reduced (Creswell, 2003).

For the constructivist researcher, the aim of research is to understand people's experiences. Unlike the positivists, Guba (1981) suggests that the interpretivist aims to establish trustworthiness and authenticity of his/her data rather than internal and external validity, and reliability. The research approach that is usually associated with positivism is quantitative, where the researcher implements methods of data collection that are pre-determined, and numeric data is the result. Constructivism is usually associated with qualitative research approaches that employ interviews as data collection methods and end with textual data (Creswell, 2003).

3.3.3 The pragmatic paradigm

Related to constructivism, the pragmatic researcher adopts a more flexible approach and focuses on employing any method that is deemed useful or 'what works' in order to solve research questions (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Pragmatism could be placed in a central position between positivism and constructivism in that it rejects the distinction between subjectivity and objectivity, because they run in a continuum rather than opposing sides (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009). Furthermore, it does not matter if there is a single or multiple realities, or whether it is understood or not. The prime emphasis for pragmatist is that knowledge arising from their research will be of benefit to the world.

According to Creswell and Clark (2011) and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), pragmatism is considered the most applicable paradigm to the mixed methods approach. This is mainly because the prime focus of pragmatism is on the research questions and the implementation of every possible resource to solve them. Furthermore, Guba and

Lincoln (1989) stated that using qualitative methods enriches and supports quantitative data with information through the participants' subjective experiences.

As explained above, pragmatism allows the researcher to decide on which procedures are best suited to a particular research problem (Creswell, 2003). With a mixed methods approach, blending the qualitative data with the quantitative can combine the best of multiple paradigms (Frels & Onwuegbuzie 2013). As a pragmatist researcher, the use of mixed methods was the most appropriate approach to conduct this study. In this thesis, the researcher used various qualitative and quantitative data collection tools (pre-tests, post-tests, questionnaires, observation, focus groups) on three different groups to answer the research questions about the effects of using mobile tasks on students' motivation. Furthermore, triangulation of the findings gave the researcher the advantage of supporting and validating the data involved in this study. An example of this involved comparing students' behaviour in the classroom (observation) with what the students said about their behaviour (focus group) to compare and contrast the findings to support the research hypotheses. Another example was the use of students' perceptions in focus group data to explain their behaviour in classroom observation. Triangulation was thus an important technique that was used to understand the complex environment of the language classroom and to elicit more information about it (Creswell, 2003).

The aim of this study was to gain multiple perspectives on the effects of mobile tasks, and therefore, the study presents different views. Table 3.2 highlights the most recognized characteristics of pragmatism and how its adoption was consistent with the aims of the study.

Table 3.2 Pragmatic worldview and consistency with the research process

The research process	Pragmatic worldview
The research questions	Investigating a real life problem that has been identified and not fully researched. Research questions were formulated carefully to gain understanding of current issues in Saudi EFL students' motivation.
Research design	Using experimental study to investigate the complexity of motivation in language classrooms.
Participants	Using three groups to compare three different teaching methods to gain insights into students' motivation.
Data collection tools	Qualitative and quantitative methods to gain more understanding of the research problem.
Analysis	Using triangulation to analyse and interpret the data.

The next section provides an overview of the mixed methods approach and the design of this study.

3.4 Research design

Motivation is a complex psychological phenomenon, so Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) suggest using a mixed methods approach in experimental classroom observation research to capture every possible element. This study used a mix of qualitative tools (focus groups, one open-ended questionnaire item) and quantitative tools (tests, questionnaires, observation) and merged the results to explore how different teaching methods with and without technology use affected students' motivational behaviour in the classroom. Hence, the study needed three different groups to compare motivation levels with the use of PPP, TBLT and mobile TBLT. The motivational aspects that were

the focus of this study were drawn from previous research by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), which determined motivation by the students' attention to the lesson, task participation, and volunteering to teachers' requests.

Observation is widely used in classroom research and is typically associated with qualitative research. However, most observation *schemes* use observation as a quantitative tool to measure the frequency (numbers) of an observed behaviour (Macky & Gass, 2013). Since this study used a modified version of the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) observation scheme (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), the researcher marked the frequency of targeted behaviour (attention, participation, and volunteering) at a regular time intervals, in accordance with the coding variables that will be discussed in section 3.6.3. Therefore, the use of observation in this study will fall under the quantitative data because it uses numbers to observe frequency.

The researcher worked for King Abdulaziz University (KAU) in Saudi Arabia, so the study was conducted on EFL learners in their preparatory year. The researcher gained ethical approval from the administration and participants to carry out the study for six weeks (see Appendix A for UCLAN ethical approval and Appendix B for KAU ethical approval). The next subsections will discuss the study's design in detail.

3.4.1 Mixed methods approach

According to Dörnyei (2007), data collection in quantitative research follows procedures that result in numerical findings. Examples of these procedures are closed-ended questionnaires and tests that use statistical software for analysis. One of this method's strengths is reliability and replication in other contexts. On the other hand, this type of method disregards the subjectivity of individual life and shows neither reasons for a specific phenomenon, nor its underlying dynamics. Nonetheless, the use of

questionnaires in this method has been widely used in L2 motivation research to convey learners' attitudes towards language aspects in different contexts, leading to a better understanding of L2 motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). This research also used test scores to determine whether there is a significant difference in students' achievement between the control and experimental groups.

Mackey and Gass (2013) define the qualitative methods approach as a descriptive way of presenting data that does not use statistical processes. When qualitative data is collected, the results usually consist of many pages of textual transcripts or field notes instead of numbers. As mentioned above, qualitative data comes in many non-numerical forms, such as field notes, interviews, journals, open-ended questionnaires, recordings of a phenomenon, and written texts from the participants. This study used quantitative instruments to observe students' behaviour in the classroom and qualitative tools to examine their attitudes to the lessons from focus groups.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2013) define mixed methodology as one that 'involves the collection and/or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches at one or more stages of the research process' (p. 242). The most important aspect of this method is bringing out the best of both methods while eliminating their weaknesses. Dörnyei (2007) examined the main types of mixed methods design, depending on the sequence and dominance of the methods. For example, a questionnaire (quantitative) followed up by an interview (qualitative) is based on the chosen method's sequence of occurrence. This study used the concurrent combination of quantitative and qualitative design to broaden the research perspective and examine a complicated phenomenon like motivation. This study's need for a mixed approach was because motivation is hard to observe alone, and

needs to be combined with either a questionnaire or interview (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013).

This research also followed Creswell's convergent parallel design of a mixed methods approach. This design deals with both quantitative and qualitative data, and the two databases usually merge in the analysis phase. This design was chosen because the study used the same participants in both quantitative and qualitative methods. The size of each group was also similar, so the researcher could more easily converge databases and reach a meaningful comparison (Creswell & Clark, 2011). This design gains more information on the same topic by using different methods to complement the data gathered (Morse, 1991). Creswell (2013) recommends this design for researchers who have limited time to collect the qualitative and quantitative data in one visit. Furthermore, he suggests using the convergent design if the researcher feels that both quantitative and qualitative data are equally important for understanding the issue. Moreover, this type of design usually falls under the umbrella of the pragmatic worldview discussed in section 3.3.

The use of mixed methods in this study was crucial because investigating motivation is complex and needs both quantitative (observation) and qualitative (focus groups) approaches to gather data. Figure 3.1 shows this study's convergent design with data collection tools, which are described in detail in Section 3.6.

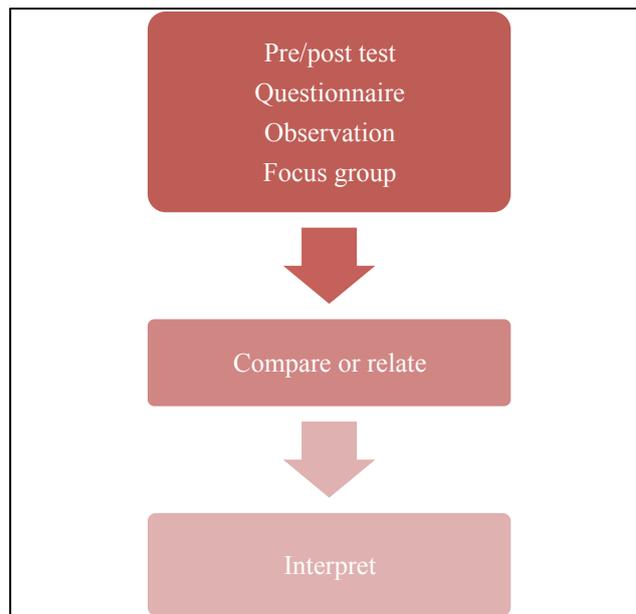


Figure 3.1 Creswell's (2013) convergent parallel design adopted for this study

In this design, the data gathered were analysed separately, then results were compared and merged to answer the research questions. The next section introduces the research by describing its location and participants.

3.4.2 Research context

Although English is taught in Saudi Arabian schools from the fourth grade onwards, it is taught as a foreign language. English is not spoken in social environments in Saudi, and students have few opportunities to interact with native speakers or in authentic contexts outside classroom settings (Alrabai, 2016; Liton, 2013).

The study was conducted at KAU, one of the largest public universities in Saudi Arabia. It has two separate campuses for male and female students, and the study was carried out on the female campus because it was the only opportunity for the researcher to attend and observe classes. When students are accepted into KAU, they must enrol in a compulsory preparatory year program, where they must pass English courses and other general subjects before choosing their preferred college (Shah et al., 2013). The

English Language Institute (ELI) provides general English courses for all foundation year students. This compulsory course is divided into four modules during the year, in which all students must pass four levels of English. In other words, the first semester that starts in January is divided into two modules, and the second semester that starts in September is also divided into two modules. Students spend 18 hours per week in classrooms of no more than 25 students each. All the classrooms are provided with a computer, projector, and free Internet access through Wi-Fi.

In 2016, ELI changed the course textbooks from the Headway Plus series (Oxford) to the English Unlimited series (Cambridge). Hence, the Headway textbooks were used only in the pilot study, whereas the main study was based on the English Unlimited series. The new textbooks offer an intensive curriculum of 14 chapters with various topics in each module. However, the method used to teach the books is left to each teacher, mainly using the Present, Practice, and Produce (PPP) approach to language teaching. ELI teachers are encouraged to use available technology in the classroom, like the computers and projectors. Furthermore, students go through mid and final examinations, as well as weekly graded quizzes in each language skill, and the outcome determines if they pass or not.

ELI permitted the researcher to carry out the study, observe three classrooms, and collect data from students. The three teachers were also cooperative and followed the researcher's instructions when delivering the reading tasks among the three groups. The next section explains how the participants were chosen and how each group was treated for this experimental study.

3.4.3 Research participants

This study selected participants using the convenience sample approach suggested by Clark and Creswell (2011), because this study focused on intact classrooms. ELI does not permit choosing individual participants to form classes for research purposes. Hence, choosing a random sample was not feasible when the research needed to examine intact classrooms (Mackey & Gass, 2013). Males and females are segregated in Saudi Arabia, so the researcher only had access to female students. All participants were of Saudi nationality and were between the ages of 18 and 19. They were foundation year students who needed to pass all general courses before choosing a college and field of their preference. All students must undertake the Oxford Online Placement Test (OOPT) to be placed at the appropriate level. In accordance with the ELI handbook (2014), all the participants were at level B1, which follows the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR), and each intact classroom originally consisted of 25 students. However, after the study began, one student dropped out of the PPP group and two from the MTBLT group for personal reasons. Table 3.3 gives an overview of the three participating groups and their demographics.

Table 3.3 Summary of participants and their country, gender and proficiency level

Group	# of participants	Country	Gender	Level
PPP	24	Saudi Arabia	Female	B1
TBLT	25	Saudi Arabia	Female	B1
MTBLT	23	Saudi Arabia	Female	B1

The duration of the main study was six weeks (three hours per week for reading classes), but the module is usually seven weeks in ELI. The researcher was unable to be in Saudi Arabia in time for the first week due to administration problems regarding ethical approval from KAU. However, the researcher was granted two hours at the end

of the last week to complete 20 hours of reading class time. The groups were intact classes of learners assigned automatically by ELI. The sample consisted of three different classrooms (groups):

PPP Group (24 students): the control group, which was taught using regular classroom strategies approved by ELI and the approved student textbook.

TBLT Group (25 students): the first experimental group, which was taught using the task-based approach and the print version of the MTBLT group tasks.

MTBLT Group (23 students): the second experimental group, which was taught using mobile-based tasks designed for this study (see section 3.5 for reading task design).

Furthermore, each group had a different teacher. All three teachers had more than eight years experience teaching EFL adult students. After the ELI administration had given the researcher approval to choose three intact classrooms, the administration suggested a few teachers who would be interested in taking part in this study. All teachers agreed to participate by using the researchers' methods in the reading classroom. The PPP group's teacher used the assigned textbook as the primary teaching material, occasionally with the aid of a computer and projector. The TBLT group's teacher used a task-based approach with the aid of a computer/projector and paper-based tasks. The MTBLT group's teacher used a task-based mobile approach in reading classes. The researcher designed and teachers approved reading tasks for all groups. Table 3.4 gives an overview of the teachers' nationality, qualifications, and teaching experience.

Table 3.4 Summary of teachers' profiles regarding age, country, experience and qualifications

Teacher	Age	Country	Teaching experience	Qualifications
PPP Teacher	+35	Saudi Arabia	+10 years	Bachelor's degree
TBLT Teacher	+35	Egypt	+10 years	Bachelor's degree
MTBLT Teacher	+35	Canada	+10 years	Bachelor's degree

All the teachers had more than ten years experience teaching English as a foreign language, but they were of different nationalities. One was Saudi born and raised, and another was Egyptian. Both spoke Arabic as their first language, whereas the third teacher was Canadian who spoke English and very basic Arabic, as summarised in Table 3.3. The MTBLT teacher was chosen because she had prior experience using smartphones in her classes, making it easier for the researcher to explain how to carry out the study's mobile tasks. Each class was assigned to a specific teacher, and the researcher did not choose which teacher should teach which class.

To sum up, this study's participants – students and teachers – were convenience samples due to administrative restrictions and the study's need for intact classrooms. The students were all at a B1 CEFR level and had passed two levels of English courses in ELI. All classes had a maximum of 25 students each, but some students dropped out in the middle of the study for personal reasons. The next section presents the study's process of gaining ethical approval.

3.4.4 Ethical considerations

When conducting a study that involves human participants, it is important to acknowledge various ethical issues that occur in the process of collecting data.

According to Dörnyei (2007), "Social science –including research in education–

concerns people's lives in the social world and therefore it inevitably involves ethical issues" (p.63). The ethical processes of this thesis were consistent with the wider educational procedures recommended by the British Educational Research Association (BERA, 2018), and more specifically, it strictly adhered to the guidelines and principles recommended by the British Association for Applied Linguistics (BAAL, 2016). Principles such as participants' consent, right to withdraw, anonymity, the privacy and security of their data, and how to reduce harm are discussed below.

Before returning to Saudi Arabia and carrying out the study, the researcher gained approval from the Ethics Committee in the Faculty of Culture and Creative Industries at the University of Central Lancashire (Appendix A) and the Ethics Committee at KAU (Appendix B). The researcher prepared and revised the participants' information sheet (Appendix C) and the consent form (Appendix D). The information sheet provided a detailed report on the purpose of the study, how long it would take, the benefits and risks, and participants' confidentiality.

It is the sole responsibility of the researcher to acquire informed consent from the participants by providing sufficient information about the study. Before the start of the study, the researcher disseminated printed information sheets (Appendix C) to the students and gave them a presentation on the nature of the research and its duration. Students were informed that participation was optional and they had the freedom to withdraw at any time. The information sheet and consent form were translated into Arabic for the convenience of the participants, and the researcher encouraged them to ask questions about the study. After discussing the information sheet, the researcher disseminated the consent forms (Appendix D) to each student who were asked to read and sign it if they agreed.

In terms of withdrawing from the study, students were explicitly informed that participation was voluntary, and they could opt out at any time before, during, or after

the study. In the case of ‘power relations’ (BAAL, 2016, p.5), the researcher attempted to reduce its effect by raising their awareness of how this could influence their participation. For example, students were made aware that they might feel pressured into participation if they were asked by a powerful figure such as their teacher. Students knew that the researcher was a language instructor at KAU, but they were assured that the researcher was not teaching at the moment and would not be awarding or influencing their grades. Students were also told that taking part in the study would give them more opportunities to practise English (through the pre-test and post-test), and even if some of them decided not to participate, they would still have access to the tests if they wanted. This lifted the pressure from the students and helped acquire their informed decision-making.

In terms of the anonymity of the participants, qualitative data usually include personal details of the participants’ lives (Dörnyei, 2007), and complete anonymity is difficult to achieve. Therefore, students should be informed that it is not always possible to accomplish anonymity completely (BAAL, 2016). However, to ensure students’ privacy, their names were replaced with pseudonyms (numbers and group name), such as PPP-3 and MTBLT-5. All the data were securely stored and only the researcher had access to them. Furthermore, the coded data was not stored in the same place as the original data in accordance with ethical guidelines (BAAL, 2016; BERA, 2018). Finally, after the data collection, students were given the opportunity to read the Arabic transcript of the focus group in which they participated and to provide their approval as to its efficacy.

The researcher attempted to minimize harm to the participants in various ways. Firstly, participants were not pressured to spend extra time or energy on matters related to the research. Secondly, in experimental research where intervention is used, the control group usually does not have the advantage of that intervention unlike the

experimental group (BERA, 2018). The researcher acknowledged that the two control groups' participants (PPP and TBLT) did not have the advantage of having access to the mobile tasks offered to the MTBLT group. Hence, the PPP and the TBLT groups were offered the opportunity to have access to the mobile tasks after the conclusion to the study. Finally, the researcher was from the same socio-cultural groups as the participants, so there was no misunderstanding or compromises to the participants' wellbeing (BAAL, 2016, p.4).

3.4.5 Researcher's positionality

In qualitative research, it is important for the researcher to declare his or her position and personal biases related to the study (Ezzy, 2002). This section describes how the researcher's world-view relates to the nature of social reality and knowledge (Sikes, 2004). This involves acknowledging the researcher's biases and criticism of the research outcome.

As this study's researcher and observer, the position as a member of the ELI academic staff might have some broader consideration as follows. She had the advantage of attending three intact classrooms for research purposes. She had unlimited support from the administrative staff and her teacher colleagues in ELI. However, her authority as a language instructor and researcher/observer in the classroom had to be acknowledged and diminished to ensure partiality of her role. The researcher has been working for KAU as a language instructor for seven years, but has been living abroad for more than four years to pursue higher education. Furthermore, this study's participants were foundation year students in their first year of university, which means they had never met the researcher before and will probably never be her students in the

near future, because they knew the researcher was leaving to complete her studies abroad.

While the researcher was working for ELI, she always tried to implement mobile tasks in her classes. As a researcher, she spent a lot of time reading and researching various ways to incorporate technology into the language classroom. The researcher had prior anecdotal evidence of the potential positive effects of using mobile phones to enhance the language-learning classroom. This bias might have influenced how the observation sessions were scored. In order not to influence the students, the researcher asked the groups' teachers to distribute the questionnaires, tests, and tasks. When the researcher was the observer, she stayed quiet while observing the interactions and did not participate in activities. Moreover, to ensure that the researcher's bias did not affect the evaluation of observation, the teachers were asked to review the scores after each class. The only time the researcher had direct interaction with students was during the focus groups interviews.

3.5 Design of the reading tasks

In order to carry out this case study, the researcher designed a set of reading tasks before data collection. Two sets of tasks were formed based on student textbook topics and goals. The first set of tasks was designed for the MTBLT group using the textbook materials through smartphone apps. The second set of tasks used paper-based tasks for the TBLT group. The PPP group was taught using exercises from the student textbook. The English Unlimited textbook was the ELI's chosen content-based material, and it included one to two reading passages with open-ended comprehension questions. Each unit in this textbook included many exercises to cover all language skills (see Appendix J for a scan of one page from the English Unlimited Special Edition 2015).

According to Ellis (2003), a task can be described as a ‘work plan’, which creates a gap for the students to fill. Furthermore, a good task must involve students pragmatically using the target language in a meaningful way (Ellis, 2003). With that in mind, the next step in this research was designing the task’s three parts. This research used topics from the students’ reading textbook to form tasks guided by Willis’s task cycle (1996) that were carried out through smartphone applications. According to the task cycle discussed in Chapter 2, there are three phases: the pre-task, task cycle, and post-task (language focus). As a result, three tasks were designed for each lesson to be used through three mobile applications.

Mixing the use of technology with the TBLT approach required some key definitions for a technology-mediated task. Some key features of a ‘task’ are conveyed in the five points by González-Lloret and Ortega (2014), which are: primary focus on meaning, communicative purpose, learner-centredness, authentic use, and knowledge construction (as discussed in Chapter 2 section 2.3.1).

Before describing the apps used by the MTBLT group, it is important to explain how the types of tasks were chosen. Firstly, since students did not enrol in the English course voluntarily, their primary motive was to pass the English course. Therefore, the tasks should be based on the curriculum (textbook) and should cover each reading lesson’s main goals. Deviating from the textbook would be unfair to the participating students since they would undertake the same final examinations as the other non-participating groups (Ushioda, 2013). Secondly, since all the task content should be similar among all the groups, the TBLT and MTBLT tasks were carefully designed to consider the elements that enhanced Self-Determination Theory: autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Autonomy was promoted through providing students with a sense of responsibility and control over what and how they learned. This was accomplished by allowing participants to choose what they want to read in the post-

task. Relatedness provided students with opportunities to share the outcome of their learning with their classmates. Competence was enhanced through the use of instant feedback from the teacher and students.

Two apps, Socrative (Showbie Incorporated, 2016) and Padlet (Wallwisher Incorporated, 2016), were used to design the reading tasks. They were chosen for two main reasons: first, they can be downloaded for free on any device (i.e., Apple, Samsung, Sony); second, they are user-friendly and simple for the teacher and students to use; third, they are safe to use and do not require prior registration that requires students' information. This last step was considered for cultural reasons and because the research scope did not extend to social media. The Socrative app was used to create comprehension questions for students; the Padlet app was used to allow students to write an ending for a story and share it with the class. Table 3.5 gives an overview of the apps and tasks that were used by the MTBLT group.

Table 3.5 Overview of MTBLT tasks and smartphone apps and a description of the mobile tasks

Task	App	Goal	Sample task types	Individual/ group work
Pre-task	Socrative	Introduce vocabulary and topics	- Students choose the correct answer to guess meanings of words from pictures	Individual work
Main Task	Socrative	Engage in the reading passage from the textbook	- Students read the passage from their textbook and answer comprehension questions in the app	Individual work
Post-task	Padlet	Engage in real-life activities (online reading)	- Students read a story and produce an ending; they write their collaborative answers in Padlet	Group work
	Socrative		- Online scavenger hunt: students navigate through provided websites to scan for information; they race other groups to find answers and write them in Socrative	

The first app, Socrative Teacher, allowed teachers to design short quizzes through pictures and videos. Instructors could design and carry out quizzes and monitor students

using a version of the app called Socrative Teacher. After designing the quiz, the teachers created a room with the name of the class and asked the students to open their Socrative Student app, enter the name of the room, and start answering the questions. Figure 3.2 shows a screenshot that was taken from the Socrative Teacher version.

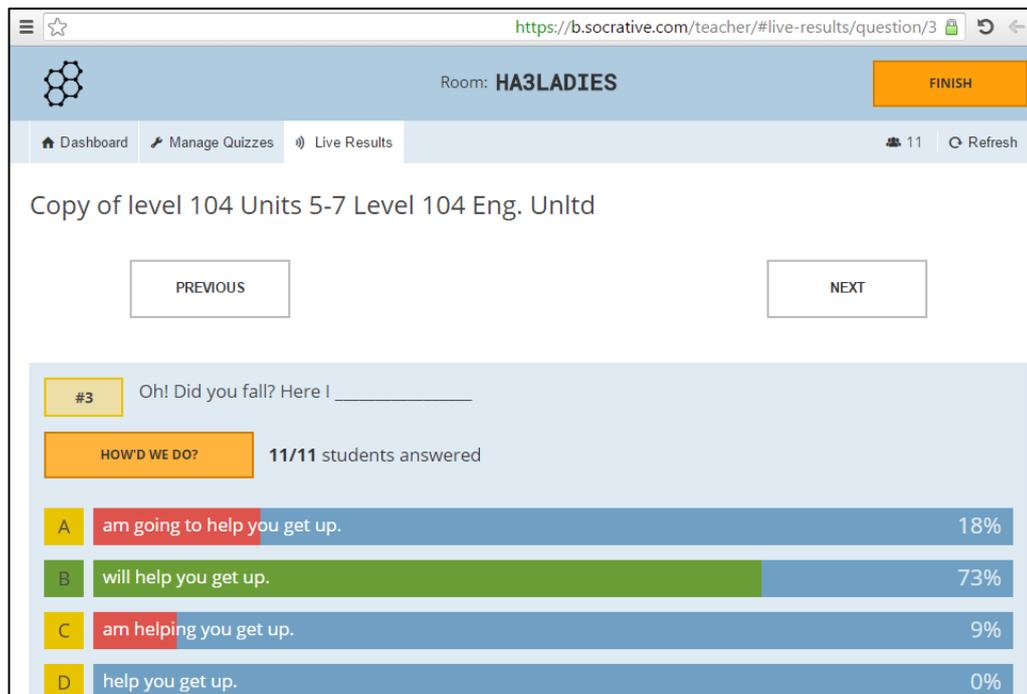


Figure 3.2 Screenshot of Socrative student app during the main task

Figure 3.2 shows the name of the room at the top centre (HA3LADIES) and the number of students in the room on the top right (11 students). The question in Figure 3.2 used multiple choices, and it showed how many students answered the question and the percentage of learners who got the correct answer. An important feature in the Socrative app is that students got instant feedback on their answers, as shown in Figure 3.3.

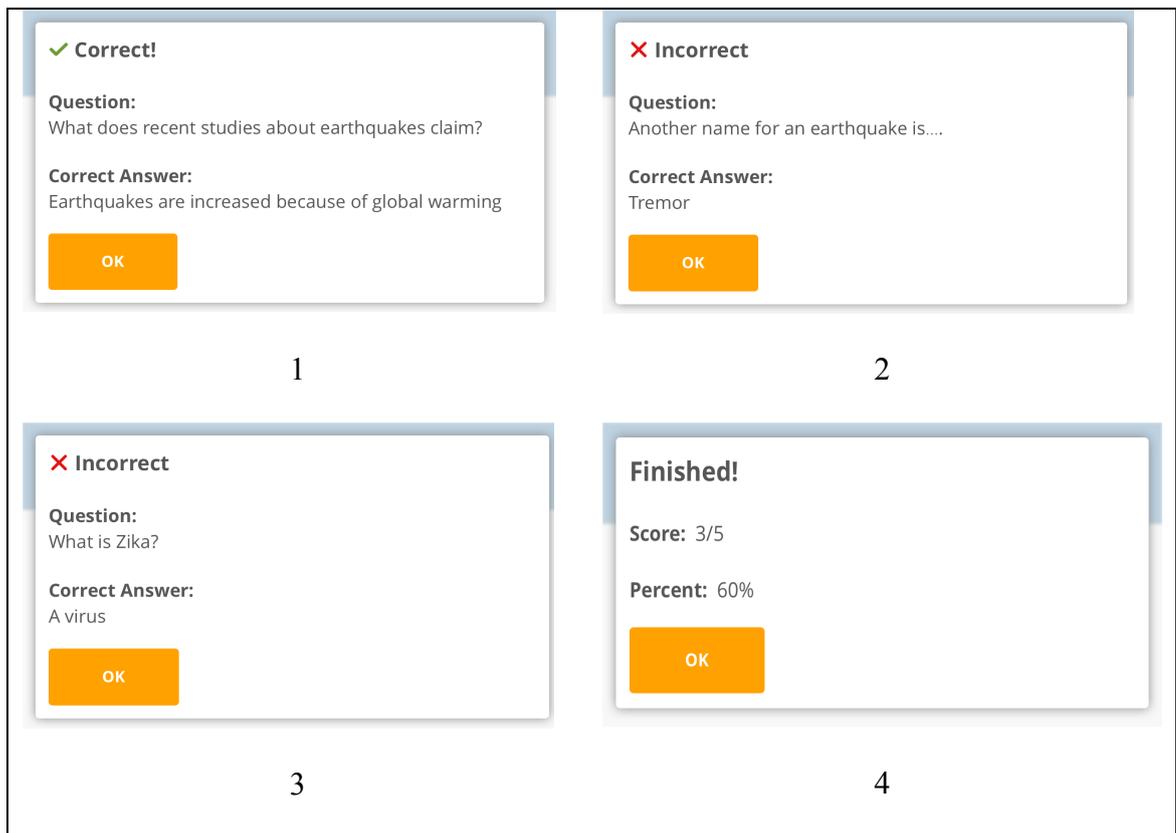


Figure 3.3 Screenshot of the feedback feature in the Socrative app

The Socrative app informs the students if they got the answer right or wrong, and it provides them with corrections to wrong answers. The quiz's final score can be made available to students, as shown in the fourth screenshot of Figure 3.3. Another feature of the app is the race mode, in which students can work in groups and race each other to answer the questions, as seen in Figure 3.4.

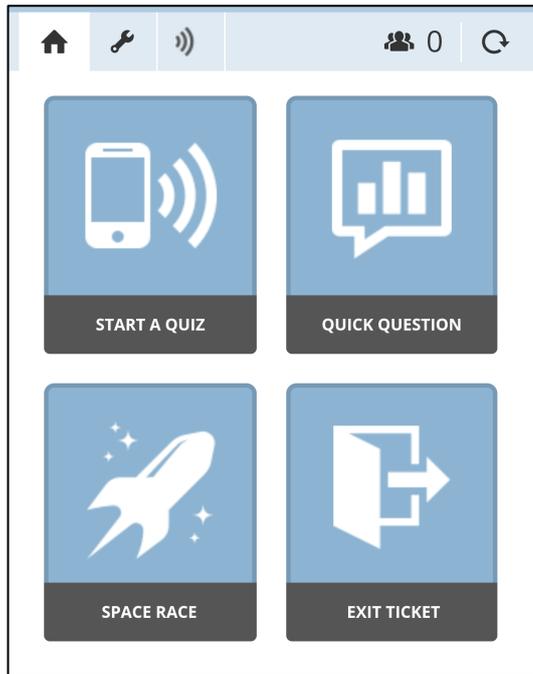


Figure 3.4 Screenshot of the interface of Socratic Teacher app

Padlet was this study's second app, and was used to carry out the lesson's post-task. Padlet is a free website that can be downloaded as an app on most smartphone devices. It works as a bulletin board that can display text, pictures, web links and more. This app was mainly used for collaborative work among students during the post-task. After forming groups, students entered the Padlet board and read a story that was missing the last paragraph. They were asked to write an ending to the story and read and comment on the other groups' work. Figure 3.5 shows a screenshot of one of the story completion tasks on Padlet.

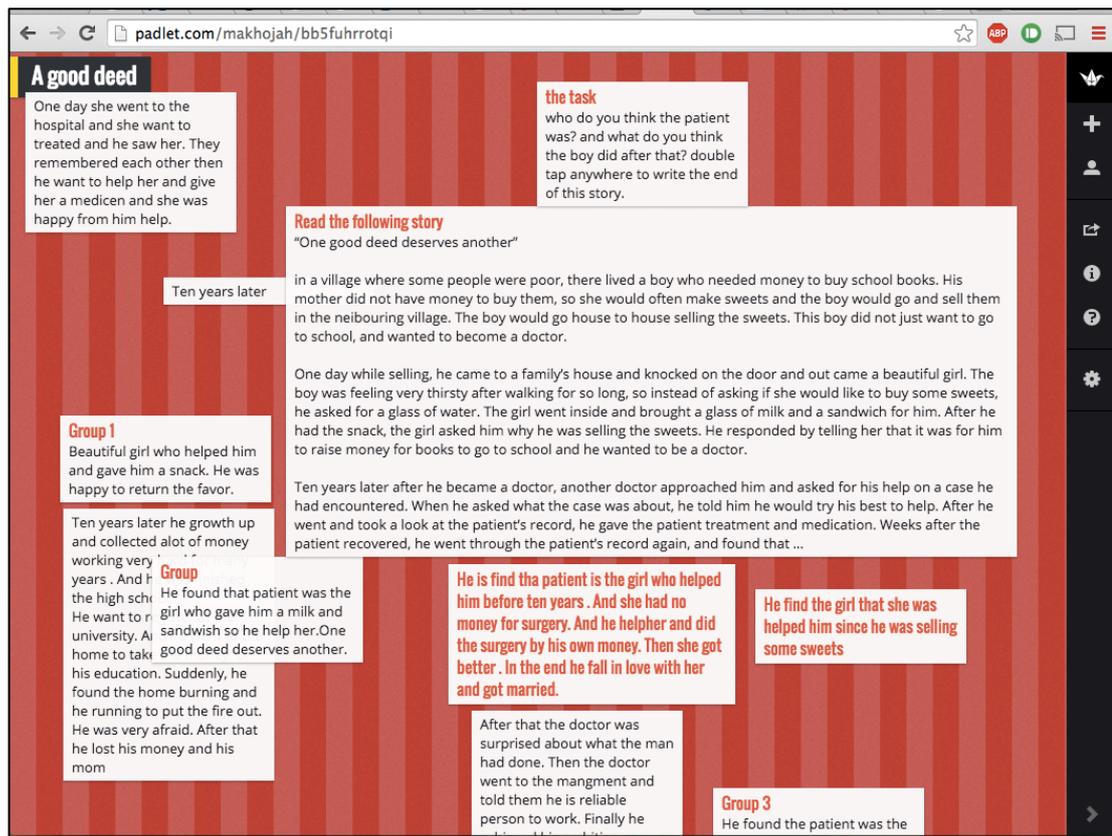


Figure 3.5 Screenshot from Padlet showing a reading activity to write an ending to a story

The teacher and the other participants in the classroom could view whatever was posted on the Padlet board. The stories provided in this type of task were chosen from the Internet and had similar topics to the units in the textbooks. Another activity in Padlet was the online scavenger hunt, where students can choose to click on any of the provided web links to scan the website for information in order to answer some questions, as seen in Figure 3.6.

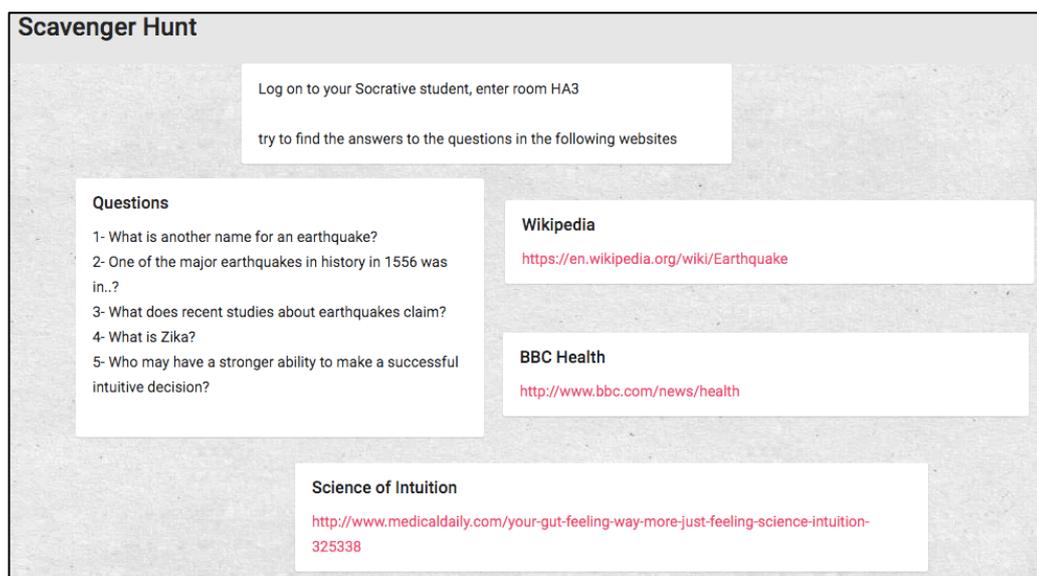


Figure 3.6 Screenshot of Padlet app showing an online scavenger hunt task

The screenshot in Figure 3.6 shows one of the online scavenger hunt tasks. There are five questions that the students need to answer. In order to do so, they must choose the appropriate link that takes them to a website where they can scan for information. The answers can be submitted either by writing on the Padlet wall, or in the case of this particular activity, they have to log in to the Socrative app and provide the answers.

To conclude, the PPP group was taught out of the textbook without the researcher's interference. The English Unlimited book provided one or two reading passages in each unit, requiring students to answer open-ended comprehension questions and then practise what they learned with speaking or writing activities. The MTBLT group engaged in a pre-task to introduce new vocabulary and a main task with one of the reading passages from the book and questions on the Socrative app. Finally, they completed a post-task, using either a second reading passage for which they wrote an appropriate ending on the Padlet app or an online scavenger hunt for which they scanned selected websites to answer questions on Socrative. The TBLT group used a printed version of the MTBLT group's tasks where applicable. The mobile tasks provided students with feedback, collaborative work and excitement through the race

mode. For the complete lesson plans for the TBLT and MTBLT groups, see Appendix K.

3.6 Data collection tools

This experimental study used a mix of qualitative and quantitative data collection tools to capture the nature of students' motivation in the classroom. Their motivation was measured according to four main aspects. The first was their language progress from the pre-test to the post-test (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2013). The other three were types of motivational behaviour observed during classroom tasks according to Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008): levels of attention, participation, and volunteering. The following section describes each tool and gives a justification for its use and role in the research.

3.6.1 Test scores

All participants were level B1 according to their placement tests. Since it was difficult to acquire their scores in the reading skills part of the test, however, the researcher conducted similar tests before the start of the classes and at the end of the module to compare their achievement before and after the treatment. The tests consisted of two short reading passages and ten comprehension and vocabulary questions about the passage. The tests were taken from previous ELI modules and were revised by a colleague of the researcher and expert in examination and testing. All the groups took the same pre- and post-test, and were given twenty minutes to complete them (see appendix E for a sample pre-test). Before the start of the experiment, the researcher attended each class and asked teachers to send the electronic test via a link to their students. The same was done for the post-test at end of the experiment. A delayed test would have been valuable to this study, but it was impossible to carry out because

students were no longer required to attend classes after the final examination. The researcher could not gather all 72 participants in one place at the same time, and only five participants responded to the delayed test via email.

3.6.2 Questionnaire

The questionnaire was essential to gathering students' attitudes towards their experience and understanding their perceived motivation. Questionnaires are used to provide quantitative results and gather more information in a briefer amount of time (Dörnyei, 2007). All students were asked to take part in this questionnaire after the end of the course in the seventh week. The questionnaire was administered through Google forms and was sent to them through a link to their mobile phones after the final class. Teachers sent links via email to students who missed this class. The students answered the questionnaire online to save time and effort. The questionnaire consisted of 28 questions in three parts: motivation, reading tasks and mobile tasks. Questions followed a five-point Likert scale, except for one open-ended question that asked about further insights on mobile tasks (see appendix F for the questionnaire questions).

The questionnaire items were tested in the pilot study and were added or amended accordingly. For example, the pilot questionnaire did not have items about students' volunteering, and hence the item 'I often volunteer to answer in reading activities' was added. Furthermore, the questionnaire was written in English first and then was translated into Arabic to ensure that all students could understand it. To ensure reliability, a colleague of the researcher read the Arabic translation and translated it back to English following the work of Makni (2013). The discrepancies were then amended in the Arabic version to make it more comprehensible for the students. For example, the word 'feedback' does not have a clear Arabic equivalent and was

explained in parentheses. For example, the word ‘feedback’ was explained like this: (providing the result of your performance as a base for your improvement).

3.6.3 Observation

Marshall and Rossman (1989) define observation as ‘the systematic description of events, behaviours, and artefacts in the social setting chosen for study’ (p.79).

Observation is a useful data collection tool in second language research, because it provides in-depth understanding of a phenomenon occurring in a natural setting (Dörnyei, 2007). It can allow researchers to see what people do instead of getting self-reported information. However, one of its weaknesses is that recording a phenomenon as it happens does not guarantee reasoning for why it happened. Another issue is that the observer’s presence may affect the participants’ behaviour. That is why it is recommended that observation not be implemented in the research alone, but rather with the aid of other data collection means (Dörnyei, 2007).

This experimental study took advantage of the Motivation Orientation of Language Teaching (MOLT) observation scheme (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008), with some modifications to suit the research goals. This modified observation sheet used the same categories and definitions of the motivational variables used in the MOLT design by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei. However, this sheet included categories related to the type of tasks used and a place for general comments by the observers. The adapted variables from MOLT measured the frequency of observed behaviour, and the columns usually were filled in accordance with the variable definitions as seen in 3.6 (see Appendix G for the observation sheet). Figure 3.7 shows a screenshot of the observation sheet that was used in class as a Word document.

Unit and page: 6 pages 46/48		Goals: give advice/talk about how you manage money/give instruction																			
Task #	duration	Task design					Learners' motivated behavior														
		Task goals		Task level		Task structure	Attention		Participation	Volunteering											
		Few goals achieved	Most goals achieved	All goals achieved	easy	medium	difficult	Pair work	Group work	Creative/interesting	Individual competition	Team competition	1/3 to 1/2	2/3 or more	Ss called on by teacher	Ss called on by teacher	2/3 or more	1/3 to 1/2	Few	Ss need encouragement	Ss volunteer readily
pre	15		x			x				x					x					x	
main	30		x				x			x					x					x	
main	20		x			x				x					x					x	
post	10		x			x				x					x					x	
Pre new topic p.48	10		x			x				x				x							x
main			x			x				x				x							x

Notes:
The same students participate in each task. Other students are not paying attention and the teacher does not encourage them.
Teacher uses Google to explain new vocabulary.
Students answer tasks on their textbooks. 4 to 5 students volunteered. (out of 15).

Figure 3.7 Sample observation sheet adapted from (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008)

Furthermore, the observation sheet was divided into three parts: general information about the class, like the time and number of students; a detailed table with categories for tasks and motivational behaviour; and general notes taken by the observer, like the use of certain teaching aids or phrases used by students to describe their feelings on the task. Observation was not logistically possible for each student, because there were at least 17 students in the classroom. The three variables used to measure motivational behaviour were taken from Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008), which can be seen in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 Learners' motivational behavior description as variables for observation

Variables	Description
Attention	Students look like they are paying attention; they are looking at the teacher and following her movement, looking at other students contributing to the task, or making physical responses.
Participation	Learners are actively interacting with the task and working on the assignment.
Volunteering for teacher-fronted activity	At least one-third of the students are willingly volunteering without being coaxed by the teacher.

All data registered in the observation sheet was taken in real time, as the observer observed the action in the classroom. The researcher/observer aimed to be as precise as possible and shared the entries with the teacher after each class to agree on what was recorded. Video recordings would have been helpful, but they are prohibited in girls' campuses throughout Saudi Arabia for cultural reasons. Since the observation was mainly on physical behaviour (attention, volunteering with show of hands, participation), the audio recordings were not of much help and so were not used.

Half an hour before the start of each class, the researcher/observer discussed the topics and tasks to be used with the teachers, especially with the MTBLT group's teacher, who was going to use mobile tasks. The researcher/observer sat at the front of the classroom to get a better view of students' faces; she used a laptop to write notes, monitor the time, and help with technical issues in the mobile tasks. After class, the researcher/observer discussed the observation sheet with the teacher to note her opinions on what was observed.

In addition to quantitative data from the observation sheet, the researcher/observer also acquired information describing certain expressions from the students during the targeted lesson. These notes supported what the focus groups' students said in an attempt to answer the third research question.

3.6.4 Focus groups

Focus group interviews are considered a sub category of interviews because they share similar characteristics (Dörnyei, 2007; Mackey & Gass, 2013). While similar, focus group interviews conveniently gather more qualitative data in various fields in education, especially in mixed methods research (Dörnyei, 2007). The strength of using focus groups is that the researcher can elicit more personal data from the participants

and more topics may emerge from the discussions. Some weaknesses of this data collection tool are that some participants with similar outlooks may take the lead in the interview and guide the discussion in their favour. Another downside is the difficulty of transcribing the interview because of the number of speakers. To overcome this, some researchers video record the focus group interview so they can follow who is speaking at which moment.

After all the classes had finished, the researcher asked students from each class to volunteer in focus groups. Three focus groups were formed separately to ask students about their motivation during the teaching weeks. There were initially five questions covering motivation and the use of smartphones (see appendix H for focus groups' questions). The researcher steered the discussion to cover all areas and encourage all participants to share their opinions. The interviews were audio recorded because video recording is against the rules on the KAU Saudi female campus for cultural reasons.

3.6.4.1 PPP group

The control group experienced the 'traditional' teaching method, widely referred to as PPP in second and foreign language teaching. Students listen to the teacher explaining or presenting the lesson, are asked to practise the topics through a series of drills, and finally produce oral or written content. In the context of a reading class, the teacher starts by presenting new vocabulary and the topic of a passage from the students' textbook. Then she asks students to read the passage and answer the related questions in the textbook. After they discuss their answers, the teacher asks students to read another passage and practice what they learned (vocabulary, grammar, expressions) and produce a written outcome in the form of short sentences or paragraphs. Lastly, students do not

get marks for participating, volunteering or writing. The only grades they have are from the midterm and final exams.

From the field notes the researcher kept during the observation sessions with the control group, it can be concluded that the PPP method was used, sometimes with the aid of the class projector, to help students visualise words or phenomena. The teacher also asked students to use their smartphones to find word definitions and uses from the Internet. The participants of this focus group enthusiastically volunteered to take part in the discussion on the teaching methods in their English courses. They are all female students of the same age (18-19), level of English proficiency (B1), and first language (Arabic). Table 3.7 shows their English reading scores in the pre-test and post-test to ensure they have a mix of achievement levels.

Table 3.7 Control group participants' pre-test and post-test scores and smartphone usage

Participants from the control group	Pre-test score out of 20	Post-test score out of 20	Smartphone usage
PPP-1	12	11	Every day
PPP-2	10	8	Every day
PPP-3	16	16	Every day
PPP-4	12	15	Every day
PPP-5	11	9	Every day

The following section describes the second group of this study that was taught using TBLT and paper-based tasks.

3.6.4.2 TBLT group.

The task-based group was taught using TBLT, as discussed in Chapter 2. The focus of the lessons was usually on meaning rather than form. The teacher started reading lessons with an introduction task (pre-task), which introduced the topic of the reading passage for the main task to the students. For example, one teacher played a song about being a millionaire using speakers for sound and a projector for lyrics. Students were

alert and sang along. After the teacher had a discussion with students about the song's words and meanings, she proceeded to the textbook's main task. She asked students to read the passage and fill in the blanks from the tasks on their books. The students discussed their answers with each other and engaged in the other task (post-task), which involved writing about what they would do if they had a lot of money.

The main difference between this approach and PPP is that the teacher did not present the new vocabulary and topic. Instead, she presented the material (the song) and asked students to infer meanings and the task they should do. In this particular lesson, the focus was on the use of the conditional (if), and students listened to the song and extracted the rule for using it (use the past tense of the verb after 'if' to state things that are not real). Table 3.8 identifies the four TBLT focus group participants in this study.

Table 3.8 TBLT group participants' pre-test and post-test scores and smartphone usage

Participants from the task-based group	Pre-test score out of 20	Post-test score out of 20	Smart phone usage
TBLT-1	12	14	Every day
TBLT-2	14	14	Every day
TBLT-3	13	16	Every day
TBLT-4	3	6	Every day

The next section presents the third group of this study, who were taught using TBLT through smartphone tasks.

3.6.4.3 MTBLT group.

Similar to the task-based group, the mobile class students engaged in tasks that used two apps: Socrative and Padlet. The teacher used the apps to encourage students to participate. It was easier to observe students' participation when they used the app, because it monitors who is logged in and answering questions. Immediate feedback is given to students after they finish each task, and the teacher has access to their answers

to keep track of how well the class is doing on each task. Other websites did not offer these features, but the students' written outcome was visible to other students, as discussed in the previous chapter. The students enthusiastically engaged with the tasks that provided feedback or competition. For example, the teacher asked students to read the passage from their textbooks and then answer comprehension questions in the Socrative App with the race feature. The race feature allows the students to see other participants' progress and race against each other to get as many correct answers as possible. Twenty-two out of 22 students in that class took part in the race and were very excited; they talked to each other about the task and worked in teams to divide the work. After the task, the teacher asked volunteers to discuss answers with the class, and most students raised their hand to take part. The students were smiling, laughing, and pointing to the textbook while discussing the various tasks, indicating involvement and eagerness to learn. One issue that was noticed several times during the lessons was failure to log into or suddenly logging out of the application. However, it was easy for students who could not log into the app to restart the software and try again in only a few seconds. Table 3.9 shows the participants' interviews and grades in the pre-test and post-test, demonstrating the variety of students.

Table 3.9 Mobile TBLT group participants' pre-test and post-test scores and smartphone use

Participants from the control group	Pre-test score out of 20	Post-test score out of 20	Smartphone usage
MTBLT-1	15	15	Every day
MTBLT-2	16	13	Every day
MTBLT-3	16	12	Every day
MTBLT-4	13	13	Every day

The following section describes how the study was carried out and the data collection tools used to answer the research questions. A pilot study was first conducted to test the instruments and sharpen the research questions.

3.7 Data collection procedures

Four data collection tools were used to answer the research questions. The first was a pre-test at the start of the semester and a post-test after the experiment. After the pre-test, the teacher taught students in three classes according to the approaches discussed in Section 3.6.4; the lessons were observed by the researcher. Then, students were offered a questionnaire and participated in a focus group at the end of the module. Data collection for the main study started from 23/1/2016 to 6/3/2016. A pilot study was conducted first to test the instruments, and changes were made before starting the main study.

3.7.1 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted for four weeks between April and May of 2015 to test the design and instruments among three classrooms. The pilot was carried out towards the end of the academic year, which was a huge disadvantage to the research because most students were busy preparing for their final exams and were not attending classes. This was considered when conducting the main study at the beginning of the academic semester, causing higher student attendance.

The pilot started at the beginning of the fourth module towards the end of the second academic semester. As a reminder, the academic system in Saudi Arabia has two semesters, the first starts in September, and the second starts in January. Each semester is divided into two modules, but only in the ELI (see Section 3.4.2). After gaining ELI approval, the researcher was assigned to teach three different groups for two hours a week. The pilot was carried out for four weeks instead of seven (the total length of the module). The researcher was the teacher in the pilot phase, making it difficult for her to be the observer. The researcher taught the three groups separately, with one control

group and two intervention groups. All groups were given a pre-test in the first class and a post-test at the end of the course. The students participated in a questionnaire and focus group towards the end of the study.

The pilot's results showed no significant difference in students' grade achievements. However, the qualitative findings provided some valuable insights into students' perceptions towards the use of smartphones in the classroom. The following section explores the implications of the pilot on the main study, which resulted in changes in research questions, data collection tools, and research scope.

3.7.2 Changes in research questions

The first question in the pilot study explored student's perceptions about using smartphones in English classrooms. The findings showed that most students had positive attitudes towards the use of this technology. The answer to that question prompted another question to be investigated in the actual study. The researcher changed the first question to better understand the relationship between what students believe and actually do in the language classroom. The second question in the pilot study determined the extent of students' motivation to learn English using smartphones. This question did not clearly define motivation or how to determine its level among students. As a result, the motivational variables were coined to be specific in three aspects of motivation (attention, participation, and volunteering).

The third question in the pilot focused on the challenges faced by students and teachers when using smartphones in the classroom. For the main study, the researcher focused more on the positive side and explored the benefits of smartphones from different points of view. A comparison of all questions from the pilot and main study can be found in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10 A comparison between the pilot study and modified main study questions

RQs	Pilot phase	Main study phase
1	What are female Saudi EFL students' perceptions of using a mobile task-based approach to enhance their reading skills in the classroom?	What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching method in the reading classroom?
2	To what extent are female Saudi EFL learners motivated to read in English by using a mobile task-based approach in the classroom?	In what ways does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation?
3	What are the cultural and pedagogical challenges facing female Saudi EFL learners when using a mobile task-based approach?	How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?

3.7.3 Changes in research instruments

A number of modifications were made to the survey questions as a result of the pilot study, but the main change was in the observation sheet. Since the pilot study did not clearly define students' motivation, the observation was not of much value to the research. Furthermore, the researcher in the pilot study was both the teacher and observer, so the findings were based heavily on test scores, questionnaires and focus groups.

In the main study, motivation variables were defined and the researcher was only an observer in the classroom. This allowed the researcher/observer to focus more on students' attention, participation and volunteering. Therefore, the main study relied on observation as a primary tool to answer the research questions following the chart in the observation sheet and observer's notes in each class.

3.7.4 Changes to the scope of the research

In the pilot phase, there was an attempt to gather data from both students and teachers regarding the use of smartphones in the classroom. A focus group was held among

teachers to discover how they responded to the idea of implementing smartphones in the classroom. Although this gave some insight in the pilot study, the researcher believed it was no longer needed for the main research design and that the focus should be mainly on students.

In addition, the researcher tried to gain perspective on motivational behaviour inside and outside the classroom. This resulted in too much data, and the focus of the research was compromised. In order to make the research more focused and precise, the researcher chose to investigate only students and activities in the classroom.

3.7.5 Main study

Before the data collection, the researcher gained ethical approval from ELI and was assigned three intact classrooms. The researcher explained the purpose of the research and received signed consent forms from both teachers and students in each classroom. The researcher checked the availability of Wi-Fi and adequate power sockets for students to charge their mobile devices. Data collection started in late January 2016, at the beginning of the first academic semester.

The researcher began by conducting the pre-test approved by ELI; it was sent to students as Google forms through WhatsApp Messenger (WhatsApp Incorporated, 2016). The students completed the test and then engaged in the course with their teacher. The test was taken from the ELI's department of examination, which was written by experts according to students' levels.

The researcher assumed the role of observer after explaining all the tasks to the teachers prior to attending the reading classes. The observer took notes while students engaged in reading activities for three hours a week. The sessions were audio recorded because video recordings are not allowed in female campuses throughout the university.

The observer carefully noted the aspects listed in the observation sheet and took descriptive notes of what happened during the targeted tasks. Each classroom was observed for two consecutive hours and one hour on another day each week. Although all the skills were integrated in the students' textbooks, the researcher (with the aid of the group's teacher) was able to attend 3 hours of reading classes every week (See appendix K for the full lesson plan and all the tasks used through smartphones)

After the module came to an end after seven weeks, the researcher conducted the post-test during the revision week before the mid final exams. The test was sent as a Google form through a link in WhatsApp Messenger (WhatsApp Incorporated, 2016). The questionnaire was sent afterwards using the same method of delivery. The electronic questionnaire helped the researcher reach all the students, including those who were not present in class, by sending them the link so they could participate at their convenience. Questionnaires were used to provide quantitative results and gather more information in a briefer amount of time (Dörnyei, 2007).

During the last day of the module, the researcher asked for volunteers to participate in a focus group. Initially, Five students from each group volunteered to take part in discussing their beliefs and attitudes towards the course and tasks. However, two students (one from TBLT and one from MTBLT) asked to leave before the session started. In total, there were five participants from the PPP group, four participants from the TBLT group, and four participants from the MTBLT group. Focus groups were used to gather more qualitative data that was not possible to acquire from the questionnaire. Table 3.11 summarises the research tools and how they were carried out in the timeline.

Table 3.11 A summary of the data collection tools and participants and more context for this study

Date	Tool	Participants	More context
January	Pre-test	72 students	pp in Google forms
January to March	Classroom observation	72 students	PPP group TBLT group MTBLT group
March	Post-test	72 students	Sent via WhatsApp in Google forms
March	Questionnaire	72 students	Sent via WhatsApp in Google forms.
March	Focus groups	13 students	5 students from PPP group 4 students from TBLT group 4 students from MTBLT group

The next section gives an overview of the process of analysing the quantitative and qualitative data of this study.

3.8 Data analysis

This research followed Creswell and Clark's (2011) convergent parallel design of mixed methods approach. This design deals with both quantitative and qualitative data equally, and the two databases usually merge in the analysis phase. This design was chosen because the study intends to use the same participants in both quantitative and qualitative tasks. The size of each group was similar, making the databases easier to converge for a meaningful comparison (Creswell & Clark, 2011). The purpose of this design is to gain more information on the same topic using different methods to complement the data gathered (Morse, 1991). Creswell and Clark (2011) recommend this design for researchers who have limited time to collect qualitative and quantitative data in one visit. Furthermore, they suggest using the convergent design if the researcher feels that both quantitative and qualitative data are equally important to understand the issue under investigation. Finally, this type of design usually falls under the umbrella of the pragmatic worldview, as discussed in section 3.3.1.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were analysed separately before merging the results to answer the research questions according to Creswell’s convergent parallel design. Finally, Table 3.12 summarises each instrument’s analysis method and how it was used to answer each of this study’s research questions.

Table 3.12 Summary of research questions and analysis procedures

Research question	Data source	Method of analysis
1- What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching method in the reading classroom?	Focus groups Closed-ended questionnaire items	Descriptive statistics and thematic coding derived from students’ comments
2- In what ways does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners’ motivation?	Pre-test Post-test Observation Questionnaire	Mixed ANOVA with LSD multiple comparison Kruskall-Wallis test Chi-square test
3- How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?	Focus groups Open-ended and closed-ended questionnaire items	Descriptive statistics and thematic coding derived from students’ comments

3.8.1 Analysis of quantitative data

In this part of the analysis, the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) program (version 23 for Mac) was used to code and analyse the data collected from the reading pre-tests and post-tests, questionnaires and observation sheets for the three participating groups. Numerous statistical procedures were employed to analyse the quantitative data:

- 1- Descriptive statistics: used mean and standard deviation to determine students’ motivation and their experience of using task-based mobile learning.
- 2- Simple and multiple regression analysis: determined how the variables were used to predict students’ motivation and attitudes towards task-based language learning.

- 3- T-tests, including paired sample t-tests and correlation and multivariate correlation analysis, within and between analysis of variances (ANOVA): analysed pre-tests and post-tests among the three groups of learners.
- 4- Correlation and cross-tabulation (Pearson Correlation Coefficient): explored the relationships between the variables used in this study.
- 5- Non-parametric Chi Square: compared the motivational behaviour among the groups.

The following section presents the methods of analysis for the quantitative data.

3.8.2 Preparing quantitative data for analysis

The raw data from the questionnaires and the tests were gathered using Google forms and were sent to students online. After collection, Google produced the results in Excel sheets, making it easy to export the files into SPSS. However, since the questionnaire was written in Arabic, the researcher coded the five-point Likert Scale answers and translated the questions back into English. Furthermore, the observation data was recorded in a Word document and subsequently manually entered into an Excel sheet before exporting to SPSS. The researcher followed Dörnyei's (2007) steps for preparing quantitative data for analysis:

- 1- Coding: SPSS deals with numerical data, so all the values containing words were replaced by numbers. Coding for the five-point Likert scale was as follows: 'Strongly agree' =1; 'Agree' =2; 'Disagree' =3; 'Strongly disagree'=4; and 'I don't know'=5. Furthermore, motivation variables had a scale of three: 1= low; 2= medium; and 3= high. According to this, if the observation noted that more than half the students were paying attention, it had a value of 3. All the details and descriptions of variables and values were added after exporting the Excel sheet to

SPSS, and a separate file for the codes was kept for future reference. Moreover, students' names and contact details were removed from the documents and kept separate in another file for confidentiality purposes. Each student was given a number according to her group, which was kept separately in a safe place.

2- Data cleaning: A quick way to clean data was carried out using frequency listing in SPSS to ensure there were no missing or incorrect values. Each variable was tested to ensure that maximum and minimum numbers corresponded with related scales. A frequency test for the questionnaire questions had values from 1 to 5, and observation variables had values from 1 to 3. The researcher corrected errors by going back to the original data source and assigning correct values. Unnecessary information, like contact details and open-ended questions, was also removed from imported files to SPSS. Additionally, data were screened for possible outliers, linearity, and normality.

After all the data were prepared and tested the researcher chose the appropriate statistical tests to analyse the quantitative data accordingly. The following section explains the process of qualitative data analysis and the steps used to answer the research question.

3.8.3 Analysis of qualitative data

The data gathered from the focus groups and open-ended questionnaire item were analysed using NVivo software. Thematic analysis was chosen over content analysis because the former does not use predetermined categories based on existing theories (Ezzy, 2002). This choice led to inferring new themes that emerged from the data and were of value to this research. Braun and Clarke (2006) state that less frequently repeated words or themes are not less significant than are more frequently uttered

themes. The themes themselves were far more valuable than their frequency in this research area. Therefore, NVivo was not used in this research to quantify the qualitative data because the focus was on the themes that emerged from the discussion, not the frequency of occurrences. This was mainly because there were few focus group participants and the length of the sessions was not long (20 minutes). Furthermore, the use of this application's powerful tools made the process of transcribing the audio files and coding more convenient. Some of the application's distinctive features include the ability to manage data and ideas, make datasets, visualise data, and report from data (Bazeley & Jackson, 2013). This study used NVivo's transcription tools, which made pausing and playing audio files easier and assigned themes to each line of the transcription for later retrieval.

3.8.4 Transcribing

After the focus groups interviews, the researcher listened to the audio files and transcribed the discussions using NVivo software for Mac (Version 11.3.0). The discussions were translated from Arabic into English as the transcription went along. Since it was impossible to video record the meetings for cultural and religious reasons, it was difficult to know who was speaking at some points during the dialogue. However, when the speaker could not be identified, the letter (U) was assigned. Everything was noted verbatim. Transcription of the focus groups did not record every utterance because the study focused on the content rather than the language features that are usually associated with second language acquisition (Mackey & Gass, 2013). After the transcription and translation were completed, the researcher asked a colleague who is fluent in both Arabic and English to check the results for accuracy. For a sample of the PPP focus group transcript, see Appendix I.

3.8.5 Coding

After transcribing all the three interviews on NVivo, the researcher read through the transcripts several times to identify themes or concepts, which are called ‘codes’ in qualitative research. Coding in thematic analysis requires the researcher to find themes and then group and rearrange them into categories (Ezzy, 2002). Strauss and Corbin (1990) suggest three steps in the coding process: open coding, axial coding, and selective coding. Ezzy’s (2002) summaries of each step guided the researcher. In the open coding phase, the researcher explored the transcripts on NVivo and identified meaningful units in the students’ responses. Those units formed sentences that shared one idea or theme. Using Nodes in the software, the researcher assigned keywords (nodes) to each unit. The same keyword was used among different units that shared similar concepts or ideas. Coding was more general during this open coding stage, as the researcher was identifying and assigning units to emerging themes. This step created many themes that the researcher had not anticipated, some of which seemed unrelated to the research questions. Nonetheless, the researcher kept those themes to later merge into categories.

The next step was axial coding, which required exploring the created codes and examining their relationships. Some codes fell under one broader category while others worked better as subcategories. The categorisation made it easy to access what a student said in any node with a click of a button, as shown in Figure 3.8.

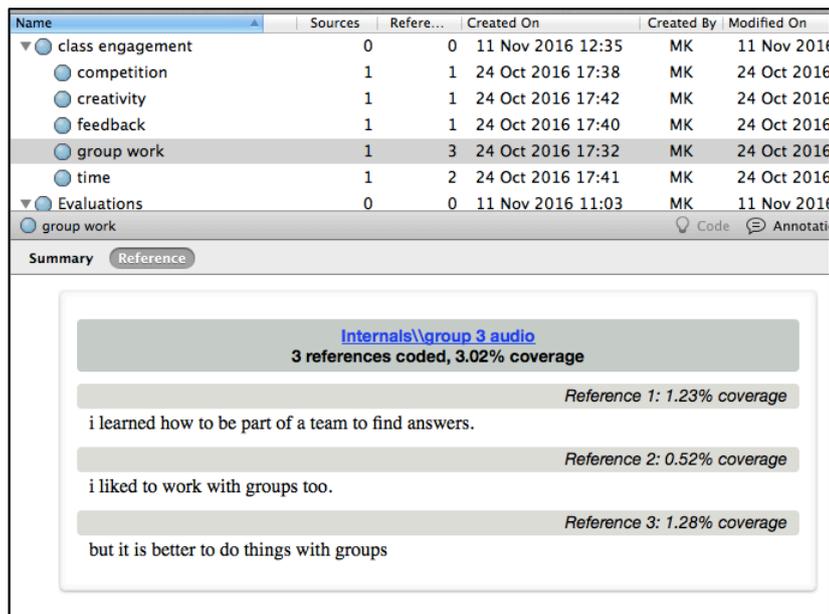


Figure 3.8 Screenshot of the node (group work) and its related references in NVivo

The next phase involved assigning conditions to each code. This was done in the description box of each node used, as illustrated in Figure 3.9. Describing each node was crucial for justifying why each unit was coded in its node and not another.

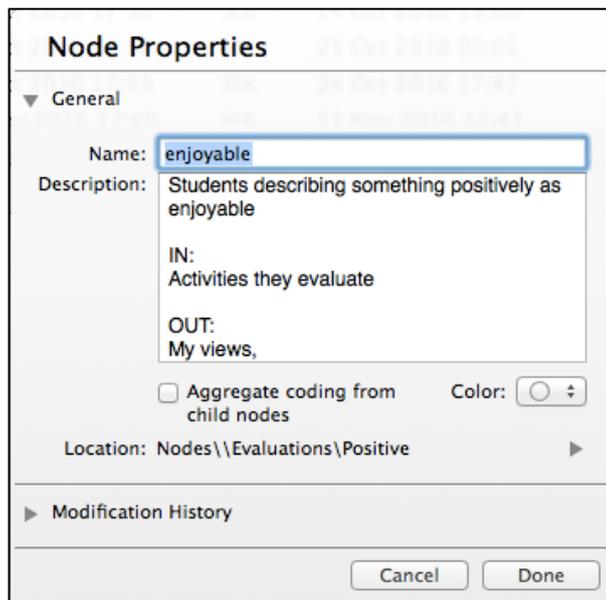


Figure 3.9 A screenshot of the node description box in NVivo

For the final phase, the researcher chose themes that related to the research question to answer the third research question about the benefits and limitations of using MTBLT to teach English. Figure 3.9 shows a thematic mind map of the general nodes before it was broken down into fewer themes to present the findings.

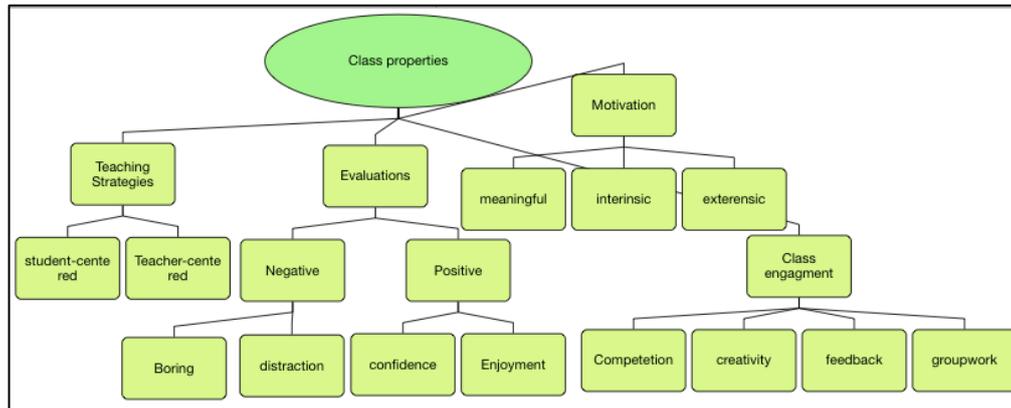


Figure 3.10 A thematic mind map of the themes used in NVivo

Figure 3.11 presents the themes related to MTBLT for all the three groups. Most were found in the MTBLT group, with only a few (new approach, translation) being in the PPP and TBLT groups.

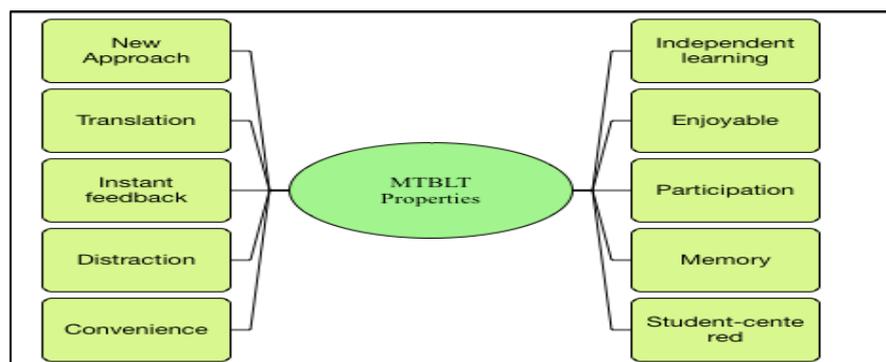


Figure 3.11 Thematic mind map of themes related to MTBLT properties identified by all three groups

Figure 3.12 shows six identified themes related to the strategies in the three groups' teaching methods. A more in-depth discussion of these themes is presented in the following chapters.

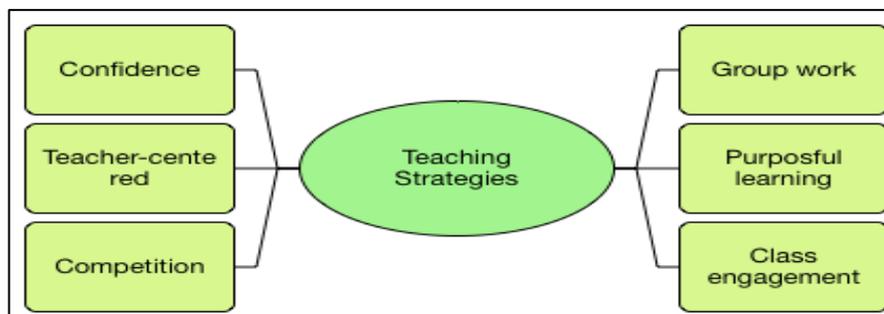


Figure 3.12 Thematic map of the classroom teaching strategies themes of all groups

After preparing and analysing all the data, issues related to the reliability and validity will be discussed in the following section.

3.9 Validity, reliability, and trustworthiness

To ensure the trustworthiness and rigor of the qualitative data, Lincoln and Guba (1985) identify essential criteria for research's credibility:

1- Prolonged engagement: establishing an intensive inquiry about the researched phenomenon requires adequate time for investigation.

2- Triangulation: the use of multiple data sources to assess the credibility of the data. Different methods and perspectives are employed to answer the research questions and ensure consistency across the data.

3- Peer debriefing: to keep the investigation impartial, a colleague of the researcher can ensure that valid data is obtained.

4- Member checks: receiving feedback from respondents to validate the data gathered in order to improve accuracy and resolve misunderstandings.

The researcher used triangulation to merge the data using multiple tools (open-ended questions, focus groups, observation, field notes). This process uses multiple methods to describe themes and draw conclusions in order to gather evidence from different people (Creswell 2013). Moreover, this study's participants had the opportunity to look at the collected data to ensure accuracy. The researcher sent participants emails with the transcripts and questionnaire results after the data collection. Member checking (Creswell, 2013; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was also used with the observation data, in which each class's teacher reviewed the total scores to ensure accuracy. The participants made no changes to this study's findings. Finally, thematic data analysis was applied to form themes from observation notes, surveys and focus groups.

The construction of the questionnaire and focus group questions were based on, and improved by, testing in the pilot phase. Two English language instructors revised the questions prior to the study to ensure clarity and precision. The reliability of qualitative data was determined by consistency in coding, which represented the participants' attitudes.

3.10 Summary

This chapter examined the research design and the methods used to explore the effects of using mobile tasks on students' motivation. It started by restating this study's research problems and proposed research questions. Then it justified the use of a mixed methods approach to investigate the complex nature of classroom motivation and described the data collection instruments used to answer the research questions.

This research was influenced by a similar study by Solares (2014), as mentioned in Chapter 2. Her EFL study was based in Mexico, a context similar to that of Saudi Arabia and ELI in terms of textbooks and methodologies used. However, her study was

based on a writing module and focused on the educational value of blending technology into task-based instruction modules. Another difference is that her study focused more on the linguistic gain of narrative past tense, whereas this thesis focused on classroom motivation. A study by Guilloteaux and Dörnyei (2008) also influenced this study's motivation variables.

To summarise, this research experimented on three intact EFL classrooms at KAU in Saudi Arabia. One class was taught using the PPP method, the second TBLT, and the third TBLT through smartphone apps. Data were gathered using pre- and post-tests for achievement and observation for attention, participation, and volunteering. Questionnaires and focus groups were also administered to explain and support the findings from the tests and observation. The quantitative data were analysed using SPSS, the qualitative data used thematic analysis, and the findings were triangulated to validate the results. The next chapter will be the first of three to present and discuss this study's findings according to research questions.

Chapter 4: Motivation and current classroom teaching methods

4.1 Introduction

This chapter is the first of three chapters that present and discuss the findings of this study according to the research questions. Since this study investigates the effects of using task-based mobile learning on EFL students' motivation in reading classrooms, it is important to first examine the learners' motivational issues. Previous research on students' motivation in Saudi Arabia has revealed that EFL learners lack intrinsic motivation, classroom participation, and language proficiency in all four skills even after years of learning English in school (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009; Al-Khairi, 2013; Alqurashi, 2014; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Alqahtani, 2016; Alrabai, 2016). This chapter explores specific aspects of motivation in terms of attention, participation, and volunteering in the classroom reading tasks. It also explores how students perceive their current teaching method to understand the barriers that could be lifted by using different language learning approaches. Chapter 4 answers this study's first research question: *What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching methods in the reading classroom?* The data were gathered from three groups taught using different methods. The data gave the findings more depth and helped the researcher explore demotivation from the viewpoint of learners who experienced PPP (Present, Practice, Produce), TBLT (Task-Based Language Teaching), and mobile tasks.

Section 4.2 presents the quantitative data gathered from the students' closed-ended questionnaires, which aimed to measure the students' overall self-reported motivation. Section 4.3 deals with the PPP group's data gathered from observation and the students' questionnaires; this section represents how a 'traditional' reading

classroom behaved in the university settings. Section 4.4 presents the qualitative data collected from all three groups and the themes identified by those groups in respective subsections. Section 4.5 discusses the results in light of the research literature reviewed in Chapters 1 and 2 and in light of Self-Determination Theory, which informed the study. Finally, Section 4.6 summarises the key findings and answers the first research question. The final section gives a general overview of students' perceptions of their motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

4.2 General attitudes towards language learning

Three datasets were gathered and analysed to answer this research question. The first dataset refers to the questionnaire responses from all three groups (n=72 students) about their general attitudes towards their course, learning experience, perceived motivation, and reading classes. The questionnaire was conducted separately at the end of each group's course. The full questionnaire can be found in Appendix F. The second source of data was the observation of the control group (PPP group). The third source was the focus group data, which further expanded on students' questionnaire choices. As discussed in Chapter 3, the triangulation used in this mixed methods approach combined both qualitative and quantitative results to triangulate the findings according to the principles of parallel mixed methods data analysis (Creswell & Clark, 2011).

This section focuses on two main themes: The first is students' perceived motivation. The second is motivational issues identified by students and observed by the researcher. Findings on the motivational problems led to four themes that emerged from the focus group data: 1) teacher-centred teaching; 2) lack of interest in the reading tasks; 3) lack of confidence to participate; and 4) grade-driven instruction.

To understand what demotivated students in the classroom, it is essential to understand what motivated them to learn English in the first place. As noted in Chapters 1 and 3, English courses at King Abdulaziz University were mandatory for students who wanted to be accepted by their preferred academic school. They did not voluntarily enrol in English classes, so their first motivating factor for language learning was grades. Figure 4.1 shows students' responses to four questionnaire items (2,4,5,8), illustrating that earning good grades in the course motivated them most to learn the language. These percentages measured students' responses in all groups, showing overall perceptions of their motivation.

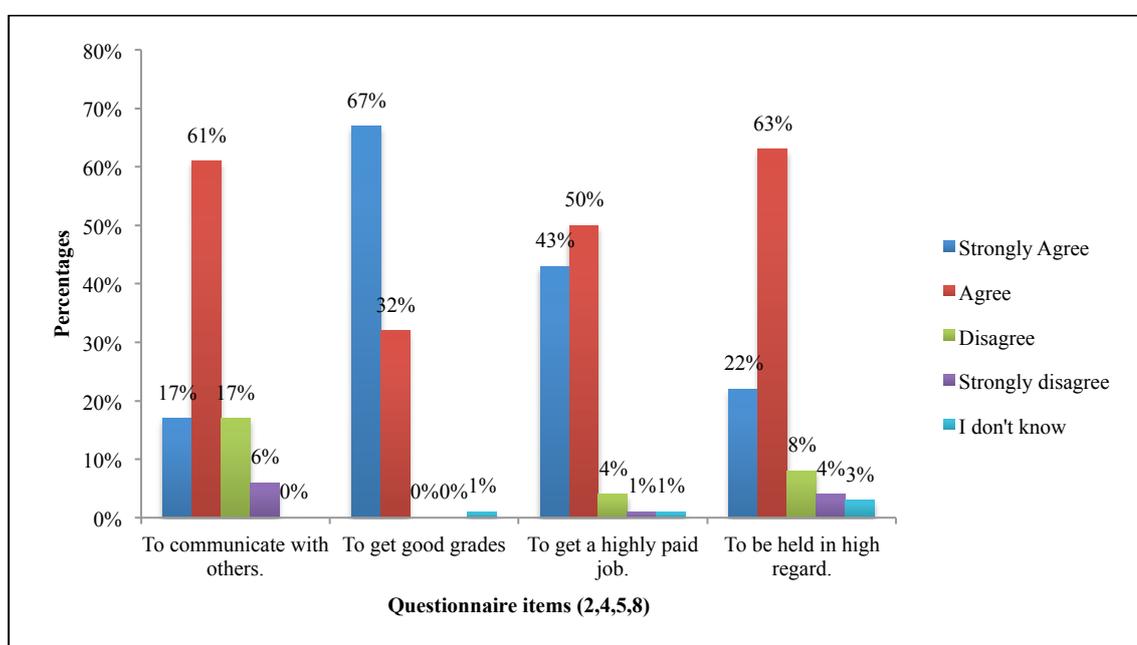


Figure 4.1 Perceived motivation, questionnaire items 2,4,5, and 8; responses of all groups (%)

The results in Figure 4.1 show that 61% of the students agreed and 17% strongly agreed that the ability to use English to communicate outside the classroom motivated them to learn English, while 17% disagreed, and only 6% strongly disagreed. Another reason for extrinsic motivation to learn English was earning high grades in the course's examinations: *Getting good grades in English motivates me to learn the language.*

Furthermore, 67% of students strongly agreed that getting good grades motivated them to learn, 32% agreed, and only 1% did not know. The third motivational reason was getting a good job after graduation: ‘I am learning English because knowledge of English will enable me to get a highly paid job’. 50% of the participants agreed, whereas 43% strongly agreed. The fourth survey statement was: ‘I am learning English because in my country, people with good competence in English are held in very high regard’. 63% agreed, 22% strongly agreed, and only 8% did not agree.

The questionnaire also asked if students enjoyed learning English in general and if they thought reading classes were boring. Figure 4.2 illustrates their attitudes towards their course, showing satisfactory levels (questionnaire items 1 and 3).

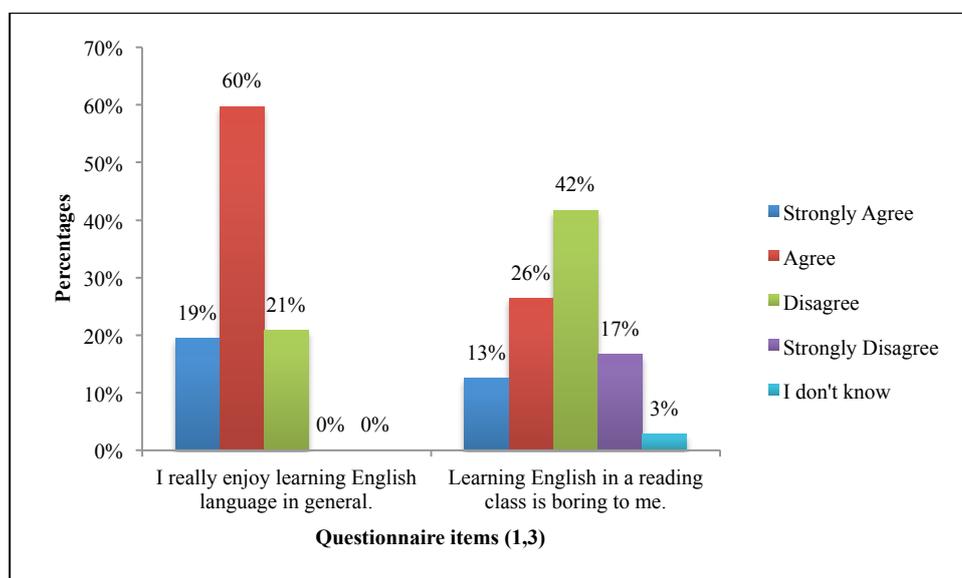


Figure 4.2 Attitudes towards reading class, questionnaire items 1 and 3: responses of all groups (%)

Figure 4.2 shows that 60% of all students agreed they enjoyed learning English, while 42% disagreed, evidencing the view that reading was a boring class for them. On the other hand, 21% did not enjoy learning the language, and 26% saw reading classes as boring. Next, questionnaire items 6, 7, and 15 asked the participants about their

attitudes towards three learning preferences: group work, making choices, and collaboration.

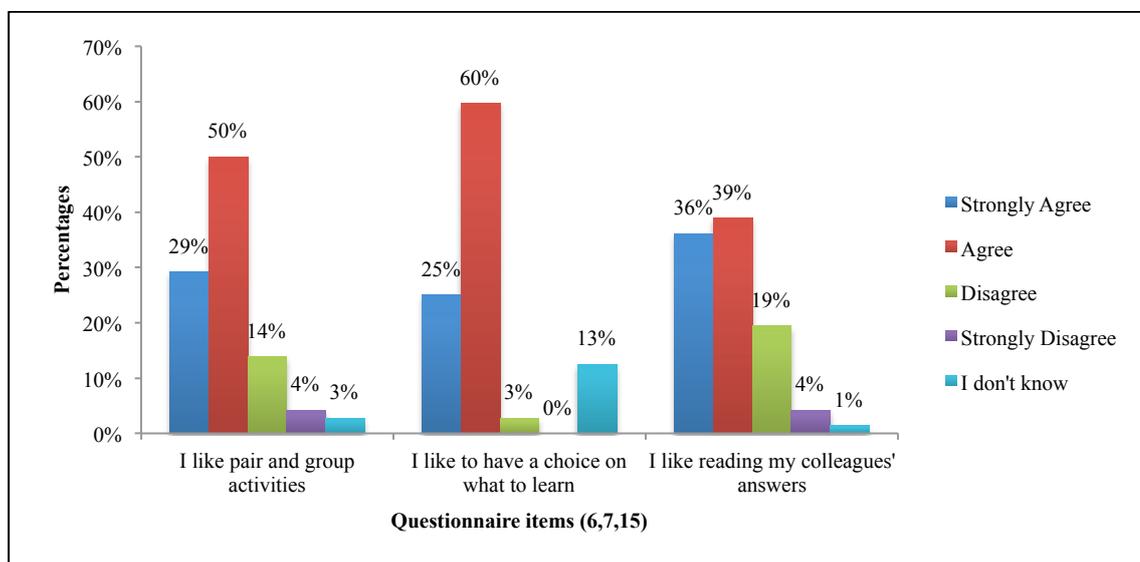


Figure 4.3 Attitudes towards learning preferences, questionnaire items 6,7 and 15; responses of all groups (%)

According to Figure 4.3, 79% of students were in favour of using pairs and group work in their language activities. Furthermore, 85% preferred choosing what they learned in the classroom. Finally, 75% thought it was fun reading their colleagues' work after the activities. Another questionnaire item (12) asked if embarrassment caused students to avoid participation. Figure 4.4 presents the percentages of their responses to this question.

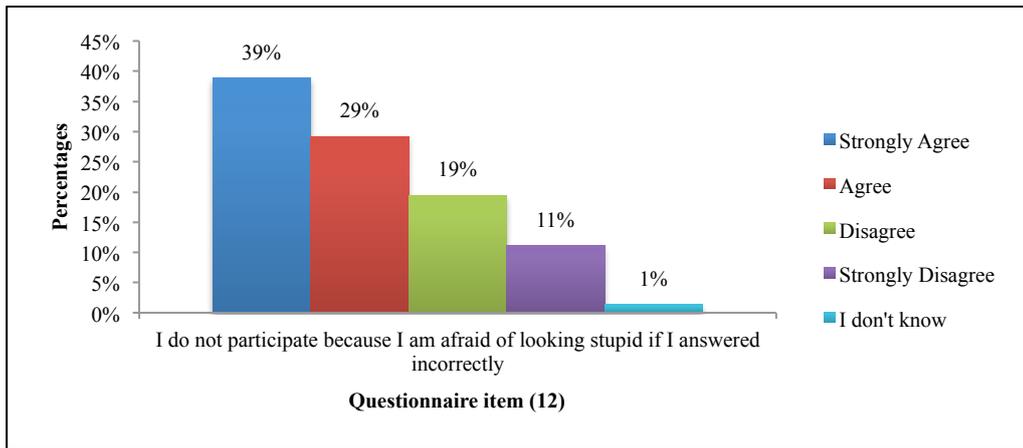


Figure 4.4 Reason for not participating, questionnaire item 12; response of all groups (%)

As shown in Figure 4.4, a majority (68%) of participants agreed that they did not engage in classroom activities due to lack of confidence and fear of making mistakes in front of their teachers and peers. In summary, the data from the questionnaire showed that earning good grades extrinsically motivated students to learn a language. Furthermore, students had positive attitudes towards learning English but negative attitudes toward reading activities.

The following section presents data only from the PPP group, as it was the control group of this study. The PPP participants did not receive any treatment, and their responses demonstrated their perceptions of their current teaching method (PPP).

4.3 The PPP group's motivation

The PPP group was taught reading in the same way as the other classes, including listening and speaking classes, so the students' perception and attitudes were not influenced by other teaching methods; therefore, in this section, the group represents the majority of foundation year EFL learners. Chapter 5 will compare and present the other groups' findings. The 24 participants from the PPP group responded to some

questionnaire items regarding their perceived motivation. The first part of the questionnaire examined the students' perceptions of classroom attention and participation, their willingness to volunteer to answer their teachers' questions, and their achievement in examinations. Figure 4.3 shows the questionnaire responses (16,13, and 10) for the perceived motivational behaviour of the PPP group.

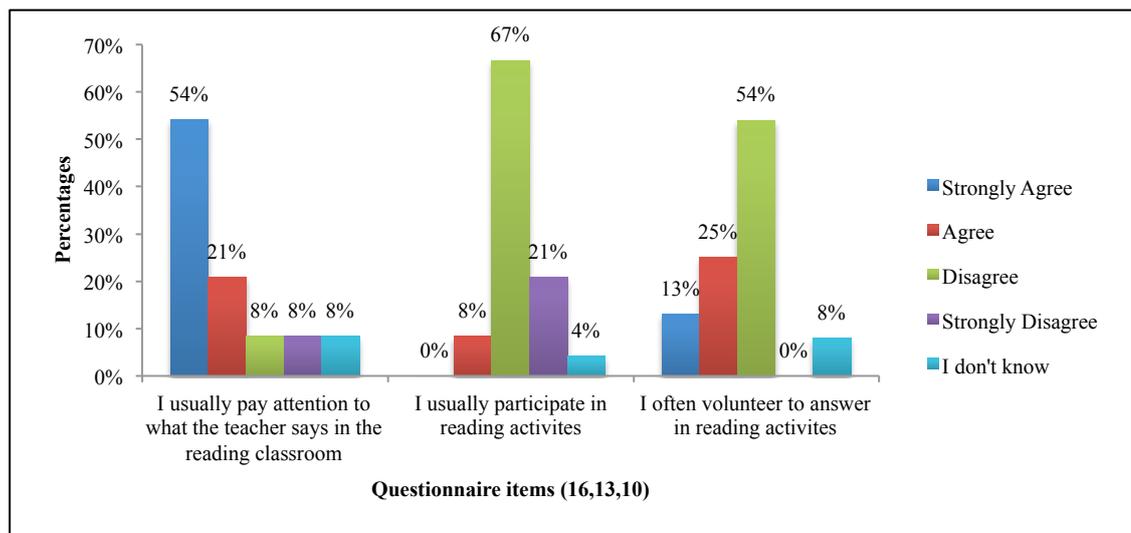


Figure 4.5 PPP group perceived attention, participation, and volunteering, questionnaire items 16,13 and 10 responses (%)

As seen in Figure 4.5, a majority (54%) of the PPP group strongly agreed that they paid attention to classroom activities, while 67% said they did not participate in the activities. Similarly, 54% said that they did not volunteer in classroom tasks. The second part of the questionnaire asked the students if they thought they had progressed in English that semester, and if they thought they would get better grades in their final examination. Figure 4.6 presents the responses for the questionnaire items (9 and 18) about perceived achievement for the PPP group.

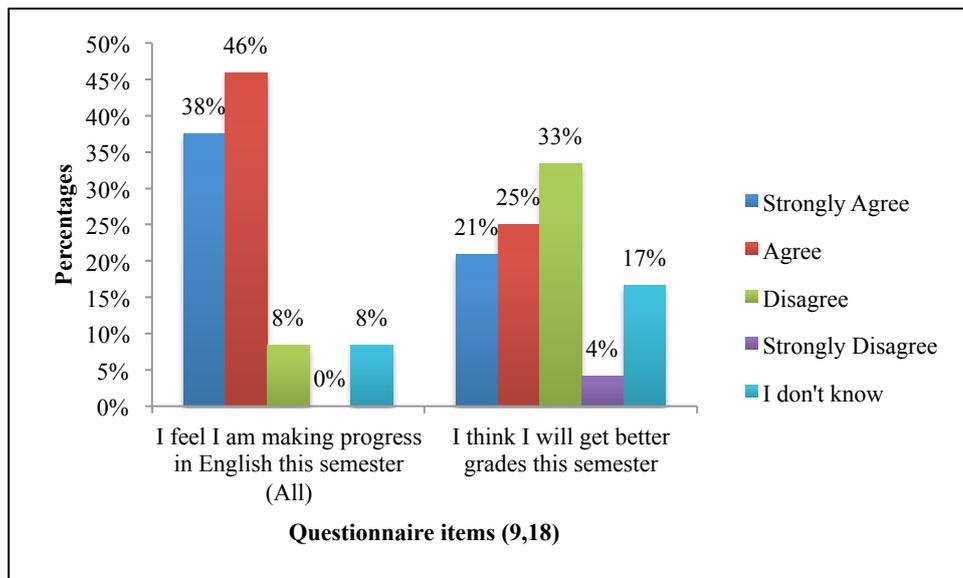


Figure 4.6 PPP group perceived achievement responses from questionnaire items 9 and 18 (%)

In Figure 4.6, nearly half (46%) of the PPP group agreed and 38% strongly agreed that they were making progress with learning English that semester. When asked if they would achieve better grades in the final examination, 33% disagreed, while the majority agreed (25%) and strongly agreed (21%). The following section presents the qualitative data to shed light on the factors that affected students' engagement in classroom activities.

To summarise the quantitative section of this chapter, data from the closed-ended questionnaire revealed how participants were extrinsically motivated to learn English for various reasons. 78% wanted to communicate with others (61% strongly agree + 17% agree), 93% wanted highly paid jobs, 85% want to be highly regarded in society, and 99% wanted to get high grades in their final examinations. Furthermore, 79% of the students thought that learning English was enjoyable, and 39% thought that reading was boring. When students were asked about their learning preferences, 79% said they liked group work activities, 85% wanted to control what they learned, and 75% liked to read their peers' work after group activities. Finally, 68% of the

participants agreed that they did not participate in classroom activities because they were afraid of making mistakes and feeling embarrassed. The data from the PPP group showed that although 75% of students paid attention to the class and teacher, 88% did not participate in classroom activities, and 54% did not often volunteer when asked.

The following section presents the qualitative findings that support the study's first research question. Thirteen students from the three groups were engaged in focus group discussions and subsequently asked about their current teaching method and how it affected their motivational behaviour in the classroom. Four themes emerged from the discussions. These themes are presented in Section 4.4.

4.4 Challenges affecting students' motivation

As discussed earlier in Section 4.2.1, the majority of students in all groups were motivated to learn English for various reasons (e.g., pleasure, travel, work). However, qualitative findings revealed that some students struggled with demotivational factors that prevented them from participating in tasks and paying attention in the classroom. The focus groups gained more insight into these issues by prompting students to discuss motivational obstacles, reasons for demotivation, and what would help increase their level of classroom participation. The researcher asked for volunteers to participate in the focus groups, and 13 students agreed to join after the course module was finished.

Before presenting the qualitative findings of this chapter, it is important to remind the reader that the participants' names were coded according to their group, followed by a number. Each participant's quotation has a number according to when the participant appeared in the chapter. For example, (PPP-4/402) means that the excerpt belongs to participant 4 from the PPP group, and (402) refers to the chapter number, in this case Chapter 4, and to the order of appearance in the respective chapter's

subsections on the qualitative findings of that chapter. It is also important to present a brief overview of the context of the study.

The participants were female EFL learners studying at the English Language Institute (ELI) at King Abdulaziz University in Saudi Arabia. ELI divides the academic year into four modules, during which students pass four levels of English in order to complete the foundation year and progress to their preferred college. In each module, they attend six or seven weeks of language courses, with three or four hours of study each day. The teacher follows a pacing guide provided by the ELI and must present the textbook's materials before students undergo each module's final examinations. This overview clarified the issue of long teaching hours, which was evident from the focus group data. Taking four hours of English lessons every day was not treated as a motivational challenge, but the factor does relate to other themes that will be discussed in Section 4.5.

Two students from the focus groups gave generic answers to the question "Why do you want to learn English?" by stating things like: "*Because all social media use English, and for travelling*" (TBLT-3/401) and "*You benefit from it for your general life, travel, knowledge*" (PPP-4/402). One student elaborated on why she thought learning English was important and how reading books and conversing with English speakers could open a world of knowledge:

As for myself, I like to learn languages because English is now considered a source for knowledge. The Arabic content of knowledge is not like the English content, so whoever learns English is opening a door for knowledge. Also, most people nowadays communicate in English, and can be communicated with using English. (MTBLT-2/403)

She was not the only student who thought that 18 hours a week of English classes was not long; she liked her classes, despite what some other students reported. She said:

I feel the amount of time for English classes is better than studying alone. It is better than other private language institutions I have been to. I think it is better because I am practising the language more. (MTBLT-2/404)

MTBLT-1 thought that the long hours were beneficial, but only if the teaching method was motivating. She suggested that students take responsibility for their learning and not rely completely on their teacher:

I do not strongly hate the number of hours; it has its positive side. You are trained to memorise the words and sentences. I think it is better if they would let us read and prepare the lesson at home or before the start of the class. Before a grammar lesson we should go and find out about it and then listen in the class when the teacher asks us to read about something and there is a quiz about it, when we answer the questions the answers will stay in our minds. (MTBLT-1/405)

The third student disagreed, stating that she lost focus because of the long hours, even if the activities were stimulating:

I disagree with that. I want to have breaks between the classes. I don't like the classes to be connected in time. Students get bored even if it had lots of activities. Whenever it happens I will feel bored. I lose focus. (MTBLT-4/406)

The most common complaint about English classes in KAU was the long hours: “*The number of hours we study every week is too long and boring*” (MTBLT-5/407); “*Yes, but not 4 hours a day*” (PPP-4/408); and “*They are boring because they are too long*” (TBLT-2/409). Other factors that students thought affected their motivation are discussed in the following sections.

Some students expressed dislike of the long hours of English classes because the longer the lesson, the more they felt demotivated and distracted. The researcher discussed other aspects of language learning with the participants and gained more

information about their lack of motivation. Table 4.1 gives an overview of the themes that emerged from the focus groups about the challenges with students' current teaching methods.

Table 4.1 Overview and sample excerpts of the motivational challenges emerged from all focus groups

Theme	Sample excerpt	Number of excerpts
Teacher-centred teaching	"We became like 'machines', just memorising. We get from the teacher, and that is all we do." (PPP/410)	10
Lack of interest in the activities	"It is the most boring class. The choice of topics, I think, not really engaging. Things that are not in our daily lives."(TBLT-1/420)	7
Lack of confidence to participate	"I feel afraid that I might embarrass myself if I did not get the answer right." (PPP-1/427)	4
Grade-driven instruction	"Yes, we will do it because we need the marks." (TBLT-1/434)	7

As can be seen in Table 4.1, four themes emerged from the focus groups regarding students' motivation related to the current ELI teaching approach. The first theme, the teacher-centred teaching theme, included students' attitudes towards their teacher. The second theme was related to activities that students perceived as boring and unrelated to their interests and everyday life. The third theme was lack of confidence, which students felt affected their motivational behaviour. The last theme was grades as an extrinsic motivational factor stimulating them to engage in classroom activities. The following sections present these four themes, each of which may account at least in part for the motivational issues that the majority of Saudi female students in the study faced in English reading classrooms.

4.4.1 Teacher-centred learning

One of the strong themes that emerged from the qualitative data was how learning depended heavily on the teacher. This theme was found in all groups when students were asked about their engagement in the reading classroom and what caused their lack of participation. Two students in the control group thought that being passive receivers in the class made them focus on memorising what they were told; they did not retain this information because they did not practise the language often or well enough, as this conversation between PPP-4 and PPP- 5 indicates:

PPP-4: *When we practise we make mistakes, and those mistakes we learn from. But when the teacher just tells you the grammar, and you have to memorise it, you will not benefit from it. We will forget about it before the examination.*

PPP-5: *We became like 'machines', just memorising. We get from the teacher, and that is all we do. (PPP/410)*

PPP-3 added to the conversation by agreeing that focusing on what the teacher said in the class made her forget about it afterwards: *"I agree. We only memorise the grammar rules just to forget it when we get out of the final examination"* (PPP-3/411). PPP-1 also commented on how passive she and her peers were while listening to the teacher: *"We in the classroom are just receiving information. I feel my mind hurts just listening to the teacher"* (PPP1/412).

One student from the TBLT group used the word "machine" to describe how she felt, as her role was often to follow exactly what the teacher said without interpretation: *"Reading long texts. It is like we are machines. The teacher says, 'ok, read and give me the general idea'. She gives us a short time to read a chunk of texts"* (TBLT-3/413).

This student's friend agreed that reading tasks were not engaging enough and are solely

dependent on the students' course books: *"The teacher just talks and talks and reads from the textbook. That is not fun at all. The activities are not fun"* (TBLT-1/414).

Furthermore, students were asked about what would motivate them to participate in class, to which PPP-5 replied, *"Instead of just explaining a grammar rule, she can use games to make us more excited and motivated, and we will participate"* (PPP-5/415). PPP-3 then gave an example of how one of her previous teachers engaged the students in a task that made them eager to participate:

One time we were going to sleep in the classroom, and then the teacher gave us some scraps of paper and asked us to make a story. We all awoke from our snooze and got excited to be the first to finish making the story. (PPP-3/416)

PPP-5 provided a similar story, in which her teacher made them compete to make a list:

Yes, I remember one time the teacher put us into groups and we challenged each other to make a list of all the vocabulary we learned that week. It was very interesting and made us all enjoy the class and remember some of the words when they came in the exam. (PPP-5/417)

One student in the MTBLT group referred to the teacher-centred topic when she described what she liked about the MTBLT method of teaching: *"I did not feel like I was forced to do things. I did not have to just listen to the teacher. I was concentrating on the tasks and what was written there. I was doing, not just listening"* (MTBLT-2/418). PPP-5 commented on why she felt bored in her English class: *"We do not want just to sit in front of the teacher and be silent. We want to make things with her and with the class"* (PPP-5/419).

In summary, participants from the PPP group felt passive in the classroom when the teacher only provided content while the students had to listen and follow her instructions as though they were "machines". The students felt that the tasks were not

stimulating enough and wanted to be more active in the classroom. The next theme includes what students described as ‘not interesting’ about their current classroom activities.

4.4.2 Lack of interest in activities

Seven students in this study stated that in order to be motivated in the classroom, the activity topics needed to be familiar, so they could participate and learn. Furthermore, the students thought that engaging with meaningful and relatable tasks might aid in enhancing their overall motivation during English reading lessons. When students in the focus groups were asked about their reading classes, some agreed that it was the most boring of all their classes (e.g., listening, speaking, writing). One student thought this was because of the choice of topics:

It is the most boring class. The choice of topics, I think, is not really engaging.

Things that are not in our daily lives. The teacher just talks and talks and reads from the textbook. That is not fun at all. The activities are not fun. (TBLT-1/420)

PPP-4 agreed: “*You read boring things just to answer a few questions. Things we don’t care about*” (PPP-4/421). MTBLT-3 commented on how teachers wanted them to practise speaking by reading aloud: “*Reading aloud gets your tongue used to words, but it is boring*” (MTBLT-3/422). One student felt that English classes were boring because she could not relate to the topics in her textbooks: “*We want to learn things that are important in our life. The things we learn do not relate to us.*” (TBLT-3/423).

Another student said that learning vocabulary words that they do not use in their daily lives is useless and not beneficial: “*We are studying words we do not usually use in everyday life. I wish they could teach us informal language that we can use to chat*

with each other” (PPP-5/424). Her friend agreed, saying that, “We learn new vocabulary and then forget about it because we do not use it in our lives” (PPP-3/425). TBLT-1 agreed that she sometimes does not participate in class: “It depends on the topic; if I have background knowledge of the topic and I can say it then I will participate. But I do not know the topic mostly, so I don't” (TBLT-1/426).

In summary, focus group participants were not motivated by the textbook exercises because they were learning words that they do not use in everyday life and the exercises were not stimulating. Familiarity with the topics and related vocabulary was linked to another factor that demotivated students: lack of confidence.

4.4.3 Lack of confidence to participate

Another noteworthy reason students provided for lack of classroom participation was lack of confidence and fear of embarrassment. Students were afraid of making mistakes while speaking, even though it was a reading class, because they had to speak to answer questions and participate in the tasks. One student stated that she did not like to participate, especially when the teacher did not understand Arabic: *“I feel afraid that I might embarrass myself if I did not get the answer right. And if the teacher does not understand Arabic, and I do not know how to say the word in English” (PPP-1/427).* MTBLT-5 admitted that she felt embarrassed even when speaking her first language in front of a group. Fear of public speaking led her to refrain from participating and volunteering in the classroom activities:

For me, I prefer to speak in short sentences, and I have to know the meaning of words I am using. If I try to speak difficult words it will make me confused. I like to practise with someone I am comfortable with, someone I know. Even if her English was not good, I will learn from her. But when I speak in front of a group

of people, even if I speak in Arabic, I will be embarrassed because someone is going to be better than me. (MTBLT-5/428)

MTBLT-3 was also afraid of speaking in English; she liked using smartphones for tasks, because she could write her answers instead of saying them aloud: *“For me, I know I have a problem in speaking. I am not very good. So, I liked writing and choosing answers. It is better for me. I do not like speaking in front of the class”* (MTBLT-3/429). TBLT-3 did not participate because she did not know what to say or how to say it in English: *“Vocabulary is a limitation to me because I can't find the words to say”* (TBLT-3/430).

Although only four participants identified lack of confidence as a barrier to their participation, their responses contributed to understanding the nature of it, as presented in the quantitative data from the questionnaire in Section 4.2 (see Figure 4.4). The next theme presents another challenge that participants faced: their main goal was to pass their English course, so they did not engage in ungraded learning activities.

4.4.4 Grade-driven instruction

Earning good grades extrinsically motivated the majority of EFL learners because English language is a mandatory subject in most schools and universities in Saudi Arabia. Studying hard for the sole purpose of passing English courses is an obstacle that might affect students' classroom participation and engagement (Shah, Hussain, & Naseef, 2013). The majority of students said that they wanted to learn English for intrinsic reasons, but according to the findings from the focus group data, they did most classwork work for grades. Five students in the PPP group agreed that they would only definitely engage in a task if it was graded: *“Yes, if it had marks”* (PPP/431). When asked what they would do in an ungraded task, PPP-3 said, *“If it is difficult I will not do*

it” (PPP-5/432). Another student said, *“If it is going to take a long time to do, I will not”* (PPP-3/433).

Another participant from the TBLT group clearly expressed her agreement regarding the importance of grades as an external reward: *“Yes, we will do it because we need the marks”* (TBLT-1/434). Two of her friends also agreed with this statement. However, when asked about ungraded tasks, one said that she might take it home with her as she does with other assignments, but only if it was convenient for her: *“I will take it but I don't have to do it and bring it back to the teacher. I might benefit from it later. I will not put myself in pressure to do it”* (TBLT-2/435). The other two participants from the group replied:

TBLT-2: *When I am free to do it I will and then ask the teacher if I did it correctly or not. Because we are busy, you know.*

TBLT-1: *Grades come first, then learning the language!* (TBLT/436)

One participant from the MTBLT group said that *“If there was grading in those tasks it would be nice, but it would be good without it too”* (MTBLT-1/437). Another student admitted that she did most tasks for grades, but she completed the smartphone tasks because they were appealing: *“We got used to doing things for grades. Now it feels different doing it for fun, for myself in the class”* (MTBLT-4/438).

Student responses showed that their main motive was to earn grades, and if the classroom activities or assignments did not contribute to their grade, they would not engage. This fact is crucial to this study because none of the ELI classroom exercises have marks; students' midterm and final examinations determine if they pass the course. According to participants from the MTBLT group, if the ungraded tasks appealed to them, there was a chance that they would engage.

To conclude, the qualitative data on the participants revealed that students were not satisfied with how they were taught English in the university. They believed that

teachers should present them with tasks in an engaging way to encourage class competition and group work. They also thought that topics in reading classes should be relevant to their daily lives and interests. Furthermore, some students struggled with confidence in speaking in the classroom, and lack of confidence hindered participation. This finding was valuable to this study because the use of smartphone tasks may help combat these obstacles and enhance the level of students' motivation, as will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6. As for this chapter, the next section will discuss the previously presented findings in light of the research literature.

4.5 Discussion and answer to RQ1

The results of the questionnaire showed that the majority of students were both intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to learn English as a second language. The majority of students (78%) wanted to use English to communicate with others in the future, 93% wanted to get better jobs, and 85% wanted to be highly regarded in their community. However, 67% strongly agreed and 32% agreed that getting better grades motivated them to learn the language. This result means that 99% of the participants studied to pass the course and elevate their overall scores in university examinations. Regardless of motives, even students who wanted to learn for the sake of passing their English course admitted they did not invest much effort into classroom practice. Although 75% paid attention to what their teacher was saying, 88% did not usually participate in the activities, and 54% did not often volunteer in front of the class.

Getting good grades was an example of extrinsic motivation, with students investing learning effort for external rewards. As discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.4, intrinsic and extrinsic motivations run in a continuum and should not be separated or favoured over one another (Schunk, Pintrich, & Meece, 2008). Students did not

voluntarily choose to enrol in their English course, and may have expected some external rewards. However, there is a conflict between what students wanted and what they were willing to do. Students in this study revealed high values for intrinsic motivation and low values for the commitment to learn. An example of this result is some students' responses when asked if they would participate in a task. The students said that they would not participate if the task was difficult (PPP-5/432), time consuming (PPP-3/433), or inconvenient (TBLT-2/435). Truly motivated learners are ready to make an effort and pay high costs to achieve their goals. This finding has been evident in other studies in the Arabian context in general, and the Saudi context more specifically (AL-Qahtani, 2016; AL-Seghayer, 2014; Maherzi, 2011; Mustafa, 2002; O'Sullivan, 2004; Shah, Hussain & Naseef, 2013).

Furthermore, this finding aligns with the work of Al-Otaibi (2002) and Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009), who found that an instrumental motive was most prominent in the Saudi context. Al-Seghayer (2014) revealed that intrinsic motivation is almost non-existent in Saudi EFL learners because they are fuelled by the need for academic achievement, not linguistic gains. Even if students' motive was to get better grades, students showed little effort to learn. This lack of effort regardless of motive could be attributed to test-driven outlooks and a focus on knowledge instruction in the Saudi classroom, which is designed to prepare students for their final examinations (Mustafa, 2002). Students are required to memorize, practise, and undertake weekly quizzes and midterms and final examinations, which directly impact their university studies. In that sense, students are eager to prepare for the tests; teachers sympathise with them and offer to, for example, help them memorise passages for reading and writing. The textbooks also contribute to this content focus by presenting content instead of providing sufficient practice materials (Al-Seghayer, 2014).

Shah et al. (2013) conducted interviews with five language instructors at a Saudi university about the factors affecting language teaching. The researchers found that the majority of EFL learners were grade-driven, in that their primary learning objective was to achieve high grades. This finding was attributed to the fact that students did not require knowledge or use of English outside the classroom; therefore, their primary goal was studying to pass their courses. Another factor that led Arabic students to be test-driven, especially in reading, was that they viewed English as a subject like mathematics and geography that they needed to pass (O'Sullivan, 2004). Alqahtani (2016) revealed that EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia were pressured by the curriculum to focus on delivering content rather than on investing in stimulating activities to promote their students' motivation.

The findings from this study's first research question were similar to those of previous studies on students' L2 motivation (Fareh, 2010; Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009; Song & Kim, 2017) in that students attributed their motivational issues mostly to the learning contexts, such as textbooks and teaching methods. Several problems seemed to render students inactive in the classroom, even though the students wanted to learn English for the reasons mentioned above. Before discussing those issues, it is vital to acknowledge students' complaints about the number of hours they attended English classes per week.

Another issue presented by the students were the duration of the English classes. Participants from the three groups first complained about the 20 hours a week spent in their English courses; they felt that 20 hours was too much time, causing them to become bored with the class. The ELI introduced 4 hours of work a day to give students a chance to practise English, because of the lack of opportunities to do so in everyday life. However, the ELI favoured quantity over quality when it came to the curriculum, so rather than providing stimulating activities and authentic opportunities to use the

language, they instituted additional content (Tanveer, 2007). Al-Nasser (2015) has previously raised this issue, stating that the EFL curriculum in most Saudi universities is overloaded with goals. This situation affected the teachers, who struggled to deliver the content, and the students, who struggled to absorb it.

All motivation issues are connected, and one is not necessarily the cause of the other. Thus, long course time will not be considered an issue on its own, but will fall under teacher-centred classroom instruction. Moreover, with more content to deliver, teachers felt pressured into following the ELI's pacing guide; they tried to explain everything to the students, from grammar to vocabulary, resulting in a teacher who talked and students who listened (Shah et al., 2013). Aided by PPP teaching, teacher-centred classes also have a cultural side to them. As in most Asian cultures like Japan and China, respecting the teacher is highly valued, and being polite and silent in class is considered a virtue (Kikuchi, 2009). Being passive and not doing anything is boring, and students were less likely to participate if they felt they were being ordered around with no choice or control over their own learning outcome. Participants in the PPP and the TBLT groups approved of engaging in the classroom tasks if the tasks offered academic grades, even if those tasks were not stimulating or meaningful,

It is vital to acknowledge that two students from two different groups, one from the PPP group and the other from TBLT group, described themselves as "machines" in the teacher-centred classroom (PPP/410, TBLT-3/413). Furthermore, 85% stated that having choices in their learning would motivate them. The teacher plays an important role in increasing and decreasing student motivation (Song & Kim, 2017). Al-Qahtani (2016), for instance, examined 90 Saudi EFL learners' motivation and found that 77% of them believed teachers, family members, and peers to be the most significant influence on their motivation to read.

Having control over one's learning is linked to meaningful learning as well. Students felt that reading classes were boring because the reading topics were not stimulating and had no value or meaning. Some teachers also used the reading aloud technique, having students read passages in front of the class to practise (Al-Qahtani, 2016). Students needed familiar, relatable topics such as a hospital visit scenario that would teach them useful vocabulary or enable them to participate in a discussion about an emerging story that they could read about and discuss on social media. Students expressed fears about forgetting vocabulary that they would not have the chance to use outside the classroom. Furthermore, the students would not participate if the activities were about unfamiliar topics or if they lacked the necessary language to discuss the topics. This finding aligns with what Alsubaie (2014) refers to as cultural isolation. The materials students learned had no connection to their real world, so the students read those materials only to pass examinations.

Although this study focused on reading, most of what happens in a regular classroom involves speaking. If the teacher asks students to answer comprehension questions, she then asks students to read their answers aloud for discussion. The nature of "traditional" Saudi reading classroom participation is that after students finish reading the material from their textbook, the teacher asks comprehension questions; students must raise their hands to answer in front of the class (AL-Qahtani, 2016). Writing the answer in their textbooks is another method, but it is rarely used because it requires teachers to go around the room and read the answers, which is time-consuming.

One student in the MTBLT focus group favoured writing the answers in her notebook over speaking them aloud (MTBLT-3/429). Another student was afraid of speaking in public and in a different language MTBLT-5 (450). Anxiety in reading classrooms is well documented in the literature, and Saudi students are prone to anxiety for various reasons (Alsubaie, 2014; Al-Qahtani, 2016). Dörnyei and Csizer (1998)

stated that students' confidence was affected not only by their actual linguistic abilities but also by what the students believed they could achieve. Furthermore, Dörnyei and Csizer stated that learners' anxiety and fear of public speaking greatly impacts their behaviour and motivation in the language classroom.

The lack of linguistic proficiency, required vocabulary, and fear of embarrassment restrained some students from participating (PPP-1/427). Other students who felt confident about their language skills or who did not mind making mistakes still refrained from participating because they did not like speaking in front of the class (MTBLT-5/428). The amount of vocabulary needed for reading comprehension may cause a lack of confidence, affecting students' participation and willingness to volunteer. Nezami (2012) reported that Saudi students were demotivated from engaging in classroom activities because they lacked basic communicative skills and sufficient relevant vocabulary. Alrabai (2016) reported that anxiety plays a crucial role in students' motivation, making them refrain from participating and engaging in classroom activities. Hamouda (2012) investigated Saudi learners' anxiety about speaking and found that it was related to their fear of speaking in front of others, shyness, and lack of confidence. All in all, it seems that students' confidence in the Saudi context prevents them from participating in the language classroom. Three reasons seem to be behind this lack of confidence: 1) fear of negative evaluation or of being judged by others (Alrabai, 2016); 2) lack of learners' involvement in the choice of activities (Tanveer, 2007); and 3) lack of confidence and low self-esteem. The next section will discuss how the findings of the motivational issues can be linked to the self-determination theory and its conditions.

4.5.1 Links to Self-Determination Theory

This chapter has found a connection between the conditions that enhance motivation in the Self-Determination theory: autonomy, competence, and relatedness. For this study, autonomy is best described as what students need to restore balance in a teacher-centred classroom. To be intrinsically motivated, students need a degree of choice over the tasks in which they are asked to take part and in how and when they complete those tasks. Due to the nature of the physical classroom, students do not currently have a choice of when to engage with activities, but teachers could offer them options that vary in difficulty and give students opportunities to interact with the tasks in their own ways. This freedom could give the students a sense of volition and responsibility, promoting personal growth and independence.

Studies on EFL learners' autonomy in the Saudi context are rare, according to Alrabai (2016), and acknowledgement of autonomy amongst teachers and decision-makers is almost non-existent. Alrabai stated that "EFL instruction in Saudi Arabia is often based on the misconception that there is a fixed world of knowledge that students must know. Teacher-centred approaches and 'spoon-feeding' methods are extremely prevalent" (2016, p.30).

Giving students choices could establish the second SDT condition. Competence is enhanced when students feel they are mastering the language through meaningful interaction with the world in which they live. Offering students opportunities to practise the language in meaningful situations and reading stories that are of interest to them motivates students to be more involved in the language. Researchers have found that Saudi students lack the basic skills to interact in a different language, and they cannot learn the language without this interaction; hence, they are trapped in a vicious circle that renders them demotivated (Al-Nasser, 2015; Alrabai, 2017a; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Shah et al., 2013).

SDT's third condition is relatedness, which is a sense of belonging to a certain group of people; this feeling gives students opportunities to share and collaborate. In this study, students felt that their teachers should employ more competitive tasks to stimulate engagement in the reading classroom. This sense of relatedness could help lessen the anxiety that leads to insufficient confidence to participate in the classroom, according to the participants' responses in this study. If SDT's three conditions were fulfilled, intrinsic motivation could be enhanced, and students would feel motivated to take an active role in the reading classroom.

In summarising this chapter's findings, it is evident that the quantitative data revealed that 99% of participants were motivated to learn English to earn good grades. However, 88% did not engage in their learning by participating in classroom activities. This lack of classroom participation clearly showed that a conflict existed between what students wanted and what they were willing to do to achieve their goals. The qualitative data reflected the factors affecting motivation and the causes of this conflict. Students struggled with teacher-centred activities that they described as boring and unrelated to their interests and everyday life. Teacher-dominant instruction, grade-driven motivation, and a lack of confidence and motivation for students were all connected. English is not widely used outside the classroom in Saudi Arabia, so students had few opportunities to use the language. The higher education system forces them to pass English courses in order to progress academically. This pressure led the students in the study to be grade-driven, as they had to pass their courses, and the teachers who were burdened with delivering content felt pressured to abide by the curriculum and aid their students in preparing for formal examinations. Furthermore, the language instructors had little time, and sometimes no authority, to accommodate students' needs or employ motivating tasks that were not focused on form. The next section discusses possible methods in reducing students' demotivation.

4.5.2 Suggested solutions for motivational issues

Most of the literature that has investigated Saudi EFL motivation recommended several approaches to intrinsically motivate students. The first approach relates to employing a more communicative approach to language learning (CLT) to provide students with opportunities to practise English that they lack outside the classroom. However, Al Asmari (2015) conducted a study on 100 EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia to understand the issues related to the CLT approach. He revealed that 62% of the students refrained from participating in communicative activities, and 68% lacked confidence to engage. He also found that teachers had misconceptions about CLT, in that they needed to focus more on speaking and less on grammar. His findings are similar to this study, in which students revealed they do not usually participate in classroom activities because they lack the confidence (see section 4.4.3).

However, gradually introducing elements of CLT to the students proved to be more effective, especially among students who were used to depending on the teacher. Hakim (2015) used a task-based approach with Saudi undergraduate female students by implementing the three stages of the task cycle (Willis, 1996). Participants reported their experience by using diaries after each class and a questionnaire after the experiment. The findings revealed that students felt more autonomous and motivated to participate in collaborative activities. The researcher also observed a shift away from the teacher-centred approach by using activities to stimulate students' interests and to encourage students to be more self-initiated.

Adopting other approaches to language teaching that are not centred on the teacher or the content (e.g., PPP, grammar and translation methods) can also promote student-centredness and autonomy (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). The findings of this study revealed that students disliked the teacher-centred classrooms and the lack of interest in most classroom activities, both of which were recorded in the literature and

scholars have proposed several solutions. Hazaea and Alzubi (2016) called for a gradual shift away from the teacher-dominant approach that would help with students' anxiety, especially in reading classrooms. Alrabai (2017a) also emphasized the role of autonomy in increasing motivation by employing authentic activities that are relevant to student interests and needs. Activities that are challenging and offer choices to learners could give them independence from their teachers and control over their learning (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009).

Besides implementing other teaching pedagogies to enhance students' motivation, research called for integrating technology into the language classrooms for several reasons. Al-Khairy (2013) found that the majority of students blamed their teacher for not using modern teaching aids to spark their interest in activities. Al-Nasser (2015) concluded his study on EFL learning problems in Saudi by advising teachers to use audio and visual aids to create opportunities for students to use the language, not just study it. Alrabai (2016) suggested using modern technology to provide authentic opportunities for students to practise the language and develop autonomous skills.

Research on technology use in the Saudi classrooms has been encouraging. Taj, Ali, Spira, and Ahmad (2017) found that the use of mobile tasks positively impacts students' vocabulary acquisition and overall engagement. Elfeky and Masadeh (2016) investigated the use of mobile learning on students' conversational skills and found positive results indicating that mobile learning was more effective than traditional teaching methods using generic paper-based curriculum and teacher-centred approaches. Another study by Hazaea and Alzubi (2016) examined undergraduate EFL learners using mobile phone applications to promote language learning outside the classroom. The researchers found that the students felt more independent by taking control over how they approached the reading tasks and collaborating with each other online.

However, most of the research has studied the perceptions of EFL learners and instructors towards mobile language learning, and not enough research has carried out actual experiments on its effects on classroom motivation. A careful integration of communicative learning approaches, stimulating tasks, and motivational strategies could enhance learners' motivation and linguistic skills (Alqahtani, 2016), but more research is needed.

4.6 Summary

This chapter answered the following research question: *What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching method in the reading classroom?* The results showed that many issues affected students' motivation, which in turn promoted less engagement in classroom activities. Students' self-reported questionnaires revealed that although the students paid attention to reading lessons, they did not usually participate or volunteer in the classroom activities. The 13 participants in the focus groups reported similar themes when discussing the cause of their demotivation in language courses. The first problem identified was the teacher-centred pedagogical method, which caused students to feel passive and disinterested in reading tasks. Although the textbooks typically used in the Saudi reading classroom claim to offer a communicative approach to language learning, the teaching methods are heavily dependent on the PPP approach. This explains why students in the study felt like "machines" that were trapped in a teacher-centred classroom. The second problem was the lack of interest in the reading materials, which have no relevance to students' daily lives. The third issue was the low self-confidence they faced because of anxiety towards public speaking and low language proficiency

levels. Finally, tedious tasks did not stimulate students' motivation and sense of competition, which in turn made them rely on graded tasks.

This chapter's findings correspond with those of previous research on student motivation in language classrooms in Saudi Arabia (Al-Qahtani, 2016; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Alsubaie, 2014; Fareh, 2010; Maherzi, 2011; Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009; Mustafa, 2003; Nezami 2012; O'Sullivan, 2004; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013; Shah et al., 2013; Song & Kim, 2017). Although students thought they wanted to learn and master the language, they were not motivated to take an active role in the learning process. They blamed both the teacher for not implementing stimulating teaching techniques, and they blamed the textbooks for not offering stimulating tasks. The students also admitted they lacked the confidence to participate in the classroom activities. Research often suggests that teachers are the most influential factor in motivating students in language classrooms (Alrabai, 2016). Saudi classrooms, like those of many other Asian cultures, are dominated by the teacher, who commands the students and expects respect and hard work (Shah et al., 2013). To summarise the motivational issues that Saudi female students encountered in reading classroom in this study, the findings revealed the following:

- 1- Students did not engage in activities that had no benefit for them outside the classroom.
- 2- Students were heavily extrinsically motivated and grade-driven, with little evidence of intrinsic motivation.
- 3- Students lacked the necessary language competence to take part in activities.
- 4- Students felt passive in the reading classroom and had little or no control over what and how they learned.
- 5- Students did not have the confidence to speak or participate in front of the class.

- 6- Students thought that classroom activities were not motivating, and they would only participate in activities if they had an external reward (in this case, grades).

After analysing the difficulties that students encountered in their language learning environments, previous research has suggested overcoming those challenges through different teaching approaches and using technology (Al-Kahiry, 2013; Alrabai, 2016; Al-Seghayer, 2014). Some of the suggestions include the following:

- 1- Use stimulating tasks guided by motivational theories to cater to the needs of students and promote their autonomy inside and outside the classroom (Alqahtani, 2016)).
- 2- Encourage collaborative learning and provide authentic reading materials to suit learners' interests and connect them with native communities (Alshumaimeri & Alzyadi, 2015).
- 3- Cater to differences in learning styles among students, especially shy students who struggle with low self-confidence (Alqahtani, 2016).
- 4- Provide opportunities for students to have some control or choice over what they want to learn to promote their independence and autonomy (Al Asmari, 2013; Alrabai, 2017a).

The findings related to this research question supported the main aspects of the Self-Determination theory and its three basic needs. In this theory, if the autonomy, competence, and relatedness are fulfilled, students can achieve optimum development and motivation that otherwise they would not achieve on their own. The motivational issues suffered by the learners in this study stemmed from lack of autonomy, or the need to have a sense of control over their own learning. The nature of the classroom heavily depended on the teacher, so students had no sense of causality or volition regarding what they were learning in the reading class. Lack of competence was also present in the reading activities, in which reading had no meaningful connection to the

students' lives. Lastly, relatedness was rarely present in Saudi classrooms. An example of this need was using group feedback and collaborative tasks to help students connect with their peers and teacher. Although the students in this study did not articulate this need specifically, they conveyed it in their examples of "interesting" and motivating tasks by using the word "competition" from the focus groups.

The next chapter presents findings to answer the second research question about the effects of using TBLT with smartphones to motivate students in reading classes. Evidence from this chapter connects motivational issues with how MTBLT could tackle them, comparing the three groups taught with different teaching methods. Guiding questions are as follows: In what ways does the use of MTBLT affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation? A discussion of these questions is presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5: Mobile tasks' effects on students' motivation

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the findings showed that the participants in this study struggled with motivation due to the teaching method used in their language classrooms, particularly with respect to reading. Previous research in Saudi Arabia has suggested that using different approaches to language learning with the aid of technology could positively impact motivation and achievement (Al Asmari, 2015; Alrabai, 2016; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Hakim, 2015; Sarhandi et al., 2017).

As this is an under-researched area, this study aims to investigate the effects of mobile-supported tasks on Saudi students' motivational behaviour. According to the research design established by the researcher, three groups were taught using three different approaches in reading classes. The first group used the traditional Present, Practice, Produce (PPP) method following the assigned textbook. The second group used the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) approach, also following the textbook, but with paper-based activities. The third group used app-supported tasks (MTBLT) that presented the textbook activities via smartphones. Over the course of six weeks, the researcher attended the reading classes for all three groups and observed students' behaviour for a total of 20 hours. Data were collected through the use of pre- and post-tests, questionnaires, focus groups, and observation.

This chapter presents findings that address the second research question: *How does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation?* Section 5.2 compares the quantitative findings arising from the three groups' reading achievements, as measured by their pre-test and post-test scores. Mixed ANOVA was used to test the significant difference between the three groups and identified the difference between

pre-test and post-test (Colin, 2012). This was followed by LSD multiple comparison tests, which were used for pairwise comparison between each two groups. Furthermore, two-matched t-tests tested differences in pre- and post-tests within each group, namely analysing the difference between students' progress before and after treatment. For the ANOVA, effect size was computed to assess how much the three groups affected the post-test and how much post-test variance was a result of the groups. For two groups, Cohen (1998) suggested that a "small" effect size = 0.2, a "medium" effect size = 0.50, and a "large" effect size = 0.80. Following this, the questionnaire items analysed students' perceived achievement and compared both the actual and perceived achievement scores.

Next, in Section 5.3, findings from the observation sheets offered insights into students' motivational behaviour during the reading class. A Kruskal-Wallis test was used to examine the difference in scores of the observation ranking between the three groups to determine the difference in task attention, participation, and volunteering. Then, pairwise comparison using adjusted p-values was used to test two groups. The Chi-square test used cross-tabulation to examine the relationship between motivational behaviour and groups. Finally, students' perceived behaviour was compared to their observed behaviour to show the effects of different teaching methods on their self-perception. Discussions of these findings in Section 5.4 relate this study's current findings to the existing literature in order to understand their meaning and cause. SPSS was used to conduct all the statistical tests of interest.

5.2 Mobile tasks' effects on students' achievement

Pre- and post-tests were conducted to determine if there was an improvement in students' academic achievement with respect to reading. Furthermore, one item from the questionnaire asked the students to predict the results of their final examinations for

all groups. The analysis of the pre-test and post-test determined achievement improvement, and the questionnaire item determined perceived achievement. This section starts by presenting students' actual achievement, followed by their perceived achievement, and ends by comparing the two.

The scores were computed in SPSS, and since this research involved three groups, Mixed ANOVA variance compared difference in two or more groups for two or more dependent variables (pre-test and post-test). It was also used to determine if any significant difference existed in achievement between the three groups. Firstly, as Field (2009, p. 144) suggested, a Kolmogorov–Smirnov test was used to check if the data were normally distributed between the three groups and not the overall distribution. The result showed that the control group was not statistically significant in pre-test and post-test in which $p = .134$ and $p = .111$ respectively. Thus, the results found that the majority of the data were normally distributed.

Assumptions of homogeneity of variance were met with Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variance, since p -value=.45 and .49, for pre-test and post-tests respectively. Table 5.1 shows the means and standard deviation of the three groups in the pre-test and post-test and Mixed ANOVA results.

Table 5.1 Statistics and Mixed ANOVA for pre- and post-test of all groups

Test	PPP Group N= 24	TBLT Group N= 25	MTBLT Group N= 23	p-value (repeated measures)	p-value (interaction groups*tests)	P-value (ANOVA)
Pre- test	<i>M</i> = 10.71 <i>SD</i> = 2.99	<i>M</i> = 11.68 <i>SD</i> = 3.17	<i>M</i> = 11.87 <i>SD</i> = 2.40	.003	.261	<i>P</i> = .334
Post- test	<i>M</i> = 10.96 <i>SD</i> = 2.48	<i>M</i> = 12.60 <i>SD</i> = 3.08	<i>M</i> = 13.22 <i>SD</i> = 2.32			<i>P</i> = .014

Table 5.1 used Mixed ANOVA for repeated measures, showing a highly significant difference between pre-test and post-test (p -value=.003) and effect size = .112, indicating that an 11.2% variation change in scores was due to the post-tests. There was significant interaction between time (pre-test and post-test) and the control group, task-based groups, and the mobile group (p -value=.261), effect size = .038. However, the mobile group showed a slight increase in achievement, and the TBLT started higher than PPP, lower than MTBLT, but then increased in the post-test. In the pre-test, using one way ANOVA, the three groups (PPP, TBLT, MTBLT) had the same mean score (p =.334). In contrast, the ANOVA test showed that students' post-test performance was statistically different between the three groups (p -value=.028), with an effect size=.12.

Table 5.2 LSD comparison tests between the three groups

Groups	Pre-test		Post-test	
	p -value	Effect size	p -value	Effect size
PPP vs. TBLT	p =.242	.31	p =.034	.59
PPP vs. MTBLT	p =.172	.28	p =.005	.94
MTBLT vs. TBLT	p =.821	.51	p =.424	.22

To gain more insight into the differences between individual groups, LSD comparison tests between all the possible two groups were performed, one for the pre-test and the other for the post-test, as shown in Table 5.2. For the pre-tests, the data identified no significant difference between the PPP and the TBLT groups (p -value= .32), PPP vs. MTBLT (p -value=.172), and MTBLT vs. TBLT (p -value=.821). For the post-test, there was a significant difference between the PPP and the MTBLT groups for the pre-test (p -value = .034), low effect size (= .59) and PPP vs. MTBLT (p -value=.005), and high effect size (= .91). There was no significant difference between the TBLT and the MTBLT groups for the pre-test (p = .424) and effect size=.22, which was low.

Figure 5.1 presents the means of the pre-test and post-test for the control group (PPP), task-based group (TBLT), and mobile group (MTBLT). It shows improvement in the mobile group's achievement, but also shows how each group had different average levels.

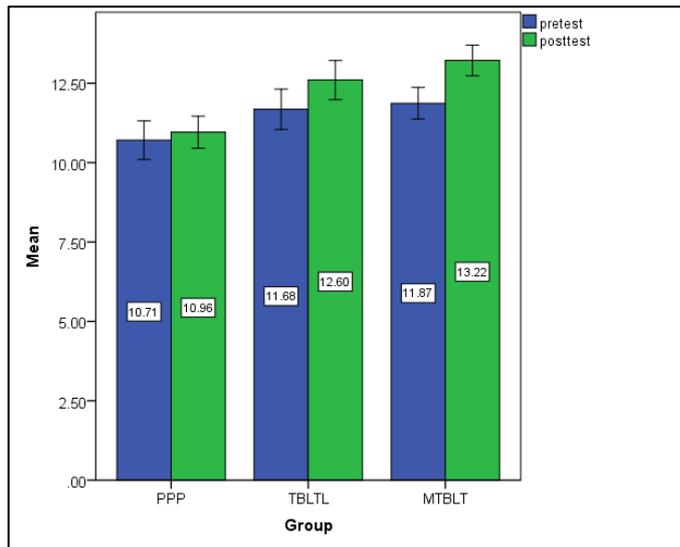


Figure 5.1 Means bar chart of the three groups in the pre-test and post-test

In order to investigate this further, a paired samples t-test was computed for each group to measure the difference in each pre- and post-test performance (see Table 5.3).

Table 5.3 Paired-test between the three groups

Test	PPP	TBLT	MTBLT
pre vs. post	<i>p-value</i> =.65	<i>p-value</i> =.02	<i>p-value</i> =.009

The adjusted p-value was .017 (.05/3). The results for the PPP group were not significant (*p-value*=.65) for the pre-test ($M = 10.7$, $SD = 2.9$) and the post-test ($M = 10.9$, $SD = 2.4$) conditions. In contrast, the results for the TBLT group shows significance (*p-value*=.02) and post-test achievements ($M = 12.6$, $SD = 3.08$) compared to the pre-test ($M = 11.68$, $SD = 3.17$) conditions. Also, MTBLT group results revealed

a significant difference ($p\text{-value}=.009$) in achievement for the post-test ($M = 13.21$, $SD = 2.35$) compared to pre-test conditions ($M = 11.86$ $SD = 2.39$). Generally, although both TBLT and MTBLT showed significant post-test achievement, the MTBLT resulted in more significant achievement.

5.3 Students' perceived and actual achievement

Item 18 in the questionnaire asked students to rate the following statement: "I think I will get better grades this semester". Student responses followed the five-point Likert Scale (strongly agree, agree, disagree, strongly disagree, I do not know). Figure 5.2 gives a visual of their responses in percentages.

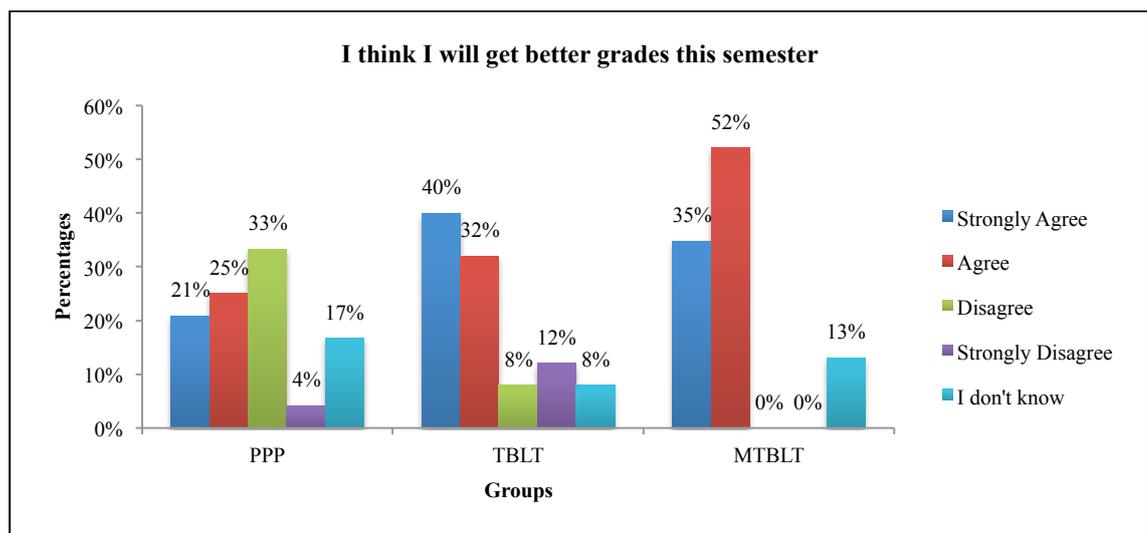


Figure 5.2 Percentages of students' responses to questionnaire item (18) on perceived achievement

Figure 5.2 shows that the MTBLT group was the most confident in their reading examination improvement, with 52% agreeing and 35% strongly agreeing with the statement. There were no disagreeing opinions in the MTBLT group. The TBLT group was second in confidence, with 40% agreeing and 32% strongly agreeing. The least

confident was the PPP group, with 33% disagreeing that they would get better grades, and 17% who did not know.

To investigate the relationship between students' perceived and actual achievement, this study related students' actual achievement (pre-test and post-test) and the questionnaire item taken at the end of the study ("I think I will get better grades this semester"). To get actual student achievement, SPSS computed the variables by measuring differences between all participants' pre-test and post-test results. Pearson's correlation coefficient determined if there was a relationship between students' perceived and actual achievement. Based on the results, there was a small, but not significant, correlation between the perceived and actual achievement for the PPP group, with $r=.271$ and $p\text{-value}=.200$. It also showed no relationship for the MTBLT group, with $r=.169$ and $p\text{-value}=.440$. However, there was a negative relationship between the TBLT group's perceived and actual achievement ($r= .094$), but it was not significant ($p\text{-value} = .665$). Table 5.5 shows the means and standard deviation of all the groups' perceived and actual achievements.

Table 5.4 Descriptive statistics of the three groups' perceived and actual achievement

Group		Mean	SD	Correlation (p-value)
Control	Perceived	2.70	1.30	.271 (.200)
	Actual	.25	2.70	
Task-based	Perceived	2.28	1.33	.038 (.857)
	Actual	.92	1.84	
Mobile	Perceived	1.61	.723	.169 (.440)
	Actual	.833	2.30	

To conclude, the post-test data showed that the MTBLT group scored significantly higher than the PPP and the TBLT in the post-tests, regardless of low achievement. The PPP group scored the lowest amongst the three groups in both tests. The data showed significant results in the TBLT group's achievement, but insignificant

results for the PPP group. The MTBLT group improved between post-test and pre-test achievement. On perceived achievement, the MTBLT group were the most confident regarding progress in the reading examination (35% strongly agree, 52% agree), the TBLT group was second (40% strongly agree, 32% agree), and the PPP group the least confident. There was no significant correlation between actual and perceived achievement. The next section deals with the effects of the teaching methods on students' motivational behaviour as they were observed in actual reading classrooms.

5.4 MTBLT effects on students' motivational behaviour

In order to determine the impact of using different teaching methods on students' behaviour, data were collected during classroom observations for each group.

Furthermore, students' responses in the questionnaire and focus groups gave insights into the effects on their attention, participation, and volunteering. The observational data were collected based on how much students paid attention in the classroom, the extent of their participation, their involvement in the appointed tasks, and the extent to which they volunteered to complete assigned tasks. The scores were given based on the observational behaviour discussed in Chapter 3. For example, a high score (3) was recorded when at least two-thirds of students paid attention and participated in the tasks and at least one-third were eager to volunteer to read in front of the classroom.

The data collected from the observation did not measure individual students in each group. The overall motivational aspects (e.g., attention, participation, volunteering) of every hour of teaching were measured by summarising three tasks for each motivational aspect for each hour, divided by the number of tasks (3) and using SPSS (Guilloteaux & Dörnyei, 2008). Table 5.4 shows the overall mean and median for each group, which gives a basic understanding of the differences in motivational behaviour

related to different approaches of language teaching. The Kruskal-Wallis test, or non-parametric test, tested the significant difference in motivational aspects between the three groups. Also, the pairwise comparisons detected which two groups were significantly different using adjusted p-value.

The results showed that the students in MTBLT and TBLT groups paid more attention (mean=2.63, 2.90, median=3, 3) compared to the PPP group (mean=1.97, median=2), as shown in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.3. The Kruskal-Wallis test showed a very highly significant difference (p-value<.001) in attention. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was detected between PPP-TBLT (p-value <.001) and PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001), while there was no significant difference between TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.357).

Table 5.5 Overall attention, participation, and volunteering for the three groups over 20 hours

	Group			Kruskall Wallis (p-value)	Pairwise comparisons (p-value)	
	PPP	TBLT	MTBLT			
Attention	Mean	1.97	2.63	2.90	<.001	PPP-TBLT (<.001)
	Median	2.00	3.00	3.00		PPP-MTBLT (<.001)
						TBLT-MTBLT (.357)
Participation	Mean	1.50	2.35	2.92	<.001	PPP-TBLT (.001)
	Median	1.50	2.00	3.00		PPP-MTBLT (<.001)
						TBLT-MTBLT (.025)
Volunteering	Mean	1.37	2.47	2.77	<.001	PPP-TBLT (<.001)
	Median	1.33	2.33	2.67		PPP-MTBLT (<.001)
						TBLT-MTBLT (.446)

In terms of participation, the data show that the MTBLT groups scored higher (mean=2.92, median=3) compared to TBLT (mean=2.35, median=2) and PPP

(mean=1.50, median=1.5) groups, as seen in Table 5.4 and Figure 5.3. The Kruskal-Wallis test showed a very highly significant difference (p-value<.001) in participation. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT (p-value <.001), PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001), and TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.025). Therefore, MTBLT had the highest rate of attention, followed by TBLT and PPP groups, respectively.

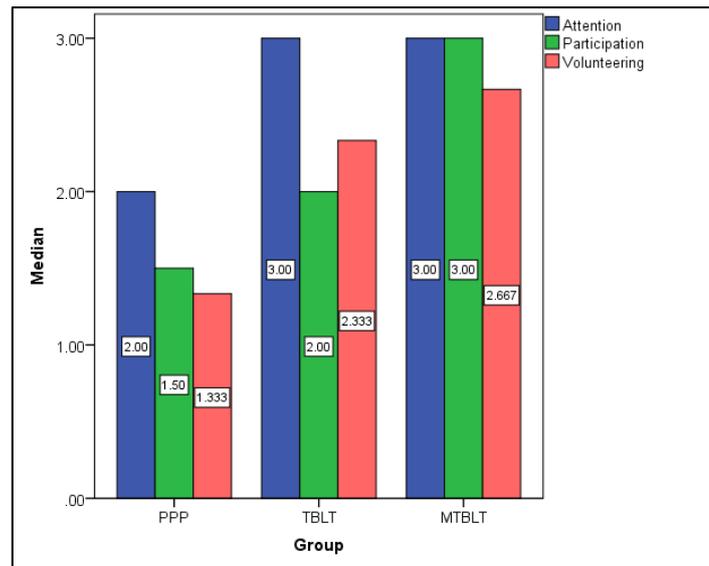


Figure 5.3 Median scores for the three motivational aspects between the three groups

Regarding the rates of volunteering, there was not much difference between MTBLT (mean=2.77, median=2.67) and TBLT (mean=2.47, median=2.33) groups, although the PPP group had a low volunteering score (mean=1.37, median=1.33), as seen in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.3. The Kruskal-Wallis test showed a very highly significant difference (p-value<.001) in volunteering. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT (p-value <.001) and PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001), although there was no difference between TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.446). Therefore, MTBLT and TBLT groups showed a greater volunteering attitude than did the PPP groups.

5.5 Time effect on motivational behaviour

This section examines whether time played a role in motivation. The researcher divided time into two categories: ≤ 10 hours and > 10 hours. For each time category, the difference in motivational aspects was examined between the three learning groups. As data were not normally distributed, the Kruskal-Wallis test was used, followed by pairwise comparison using adjusted p-values. The results are presented in Table 5.6 and Figure 5.4.

For attention and time ≤ 10 hours, MTBLT (mean=2.93, median=3.00) and TBLT (mean=2.83, median=3.00) were high, greater than PPP (mean=2.87, median=2.13). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed that the three groups were significantly different (p-value $<.001$) for time ≤ 10 hours. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT (p-value =.005) and PPP-MTBLT (p-value $<.001$), with no difference between TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.100). For time > 10 hours, the attention for MTBLT (mean=2.87, median=3.00) was high, greater than TBLT (mean=2.43, median=2.33) and PPP (mean=1.83, median=1.83). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed the three groups to be significantly different (p-value $<.001$) for time > 10 hours. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-MTBLT (p-value $<.001$), with no difference between PPP-TBLT (p-value =.07) and TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.326).

Table 5.6 Overall motivational aspects in two time groups (≤ 10 hours and > 10 hours)

	Time in hours		PPP	TBLT	MTBLT	Kruskall-Wallis p-value	Pairwise comparison
Attention	≤ 10	Mean	2.13	2.83	2.93	16.63 <.001	PPP-TBLT p-value=.005 PPP-MTBLT p-value<.001 TBLT-MTBLT p-value=1.00 PPP-TBLT p-value=.07 PPP-MTBLT p-value<.001 TBLT-MTBLT p-value=.326
		Median	2.00	3.00	3.00		
	> 10	Mean	1.80	2.43	2.87	15.13 <.001	
		Median	1.83	2.33	3.00		
Participation	≤ 10	Mean	1.43	2.63	2.93	21.06 <.001	
		Median	1.33	2.83	3.00		
	> 10	Mean	1.57	2.07	2.90	21.63 <.001	
		Median	1.67	2.00	3.00		
Volunteering	≤ 10	Mean	1.40	2.57	2.70	18.96 <.001	
		Median	1.33	2.67	2.67		
	> 10	Mean	1.33	2.37	2.83	21.77 <.11	
		Median	1.17	2.33	3.00		

In terms of participation and time ≤ 10 hours, MTBLT (mean=2.93, median=3.00) and TBLT (mean=2.63, median=2.83) were high and greater than PPP (mean=1.43, median=1.33). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed the three groups were significantly different (p-value<.001) for time ≤ 10 hours. Using the pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT (p-value =.02) and PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001), with no difference between TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.90). For time > 10 hours, MTBLT (mean=2.90, median=3.00) was high and greater than TBLT (mean=2.43, median=2.33) and PPP (mean=1.57, median=1.67). The Kruskal-Wallis test showed the three groups were significantly different (p-value<.001) for time > 10

hours. Using the pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001) and TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.018), with no difference between PPP-TBLT (p-value =.181).

With respect to volunteering and time ≤ 10 hours, MTBLT (mean=2.70, median=2.67) and TBLT (mean=2.57, median=2.67) were high and greater than PPP (mean=1.40, median=1.33), which showed low volunteering levels. The Kruskal-Wallis test showed the three groups were significantly different (p-value<.001) for time ≤ 10 hours. Using the pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-TBLT (p-value =.02) and PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001), with no difference between TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.90). For time > 10 hours, MTBLT (mean=2.83, median=3.00) was high and higher than TBLT (mean=2.37, median=2.33) and PPP (mean=1.33, median=1.17), which showed low volunteering levels. The Kruskal-Wallis test showed the three groups were significantly different (p-value<.001) for > 10 hours. Using pairwise comparisons, the significant difference was between PPP-MTBLT (p-value <.001) and TBLT-MTBLT (p-value=.011), with no difference between PPP-TBLT (p-value =.295). Figure 5.4 shows visuals of the median scores for the motivational aspects between the groups.

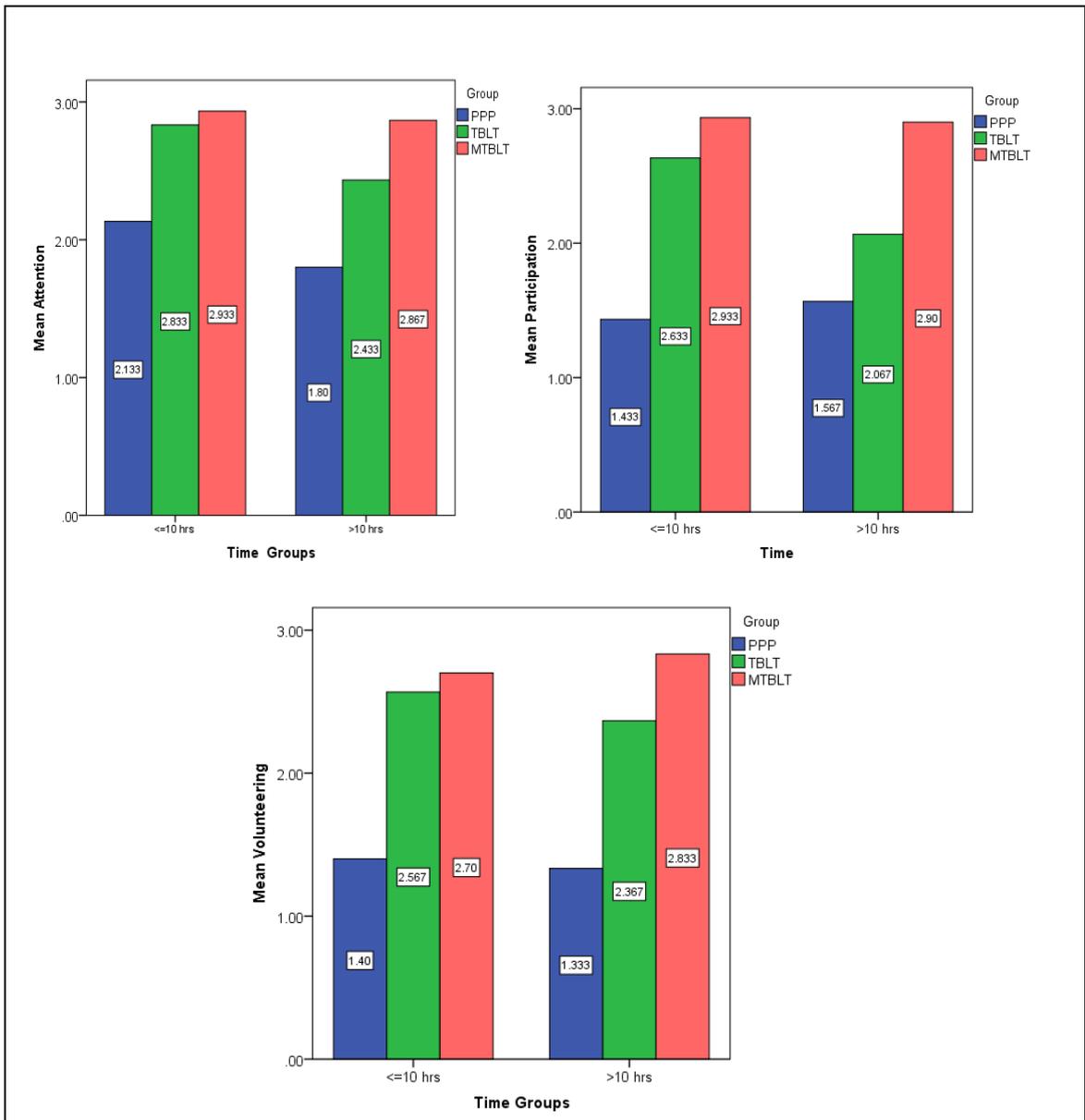


Figure 5.4 Median scores for the motivational aspects between groups (≤ 10 hours and > 10 hours)

As seen in Figure 5.4, the attention rates for PPP and TBLT groups were higher when time ≤ 10 hours compared to time > 10 hours, with little change for MTBLT,. Only TBLT showed change in participation, which was lower for time ≤ 10 hours. MTBLT was somewhat high for time > 10 hours compared to time ≤ 10 hours.

The next section presents the data from the observation that were analysed using Chi Square tests according to the three variables of observed motivation (attention, participation, volunteering).

5.5.1 Association between behaviour and the three groups

A Chi Square Test of association was used to further investigate the observational data by comparing the observed behaviour among the three groups, with the hours as the independent variable and task motivation as categorical variables. Data from this test did not have to be normally distributed, but assumptions of the independence and expected frequencies were met with the categorical data (Field, 2009). The test was performed nine times because there were three tasks in each hour (pre-task, main task, post-task) and three observed motivation aspects (attention for task 1, attention for task 2, attention for task 3, participation for task 1, participation for task 2, participation for task 3, volunteering for task 1, volunteering for task 2, volunteering for task 3). Each motivation aspect was recorded with numbers that indicate low (1), medium (2), and high levels (3) for each variable (attention, participation, volunteering). Examining motivation for each task determined how students behaved in every task and whether there was any difference in performance related to those tasks. According to Field (2009), in contingency tables larger than 2x2, the rule is that all expected counts must be larger than one, and no more than 20% of the expected count is less than five. In this case, Field (2009) suggested using a Fisher's exact test instead of the Pearson Chi Square when the sample is small and there are more than two contingency tables.

The following subsections present separate data for each of the observed and perceived motivational behaviours, starting with the observed effects of different teaching methods on students' attention levels.

5.5.2 Effects on students' attention

The variable "attention" is defined in this study as students watching and following the teacher's movement, making physical responses to the teacher or other students, and

watching what is being said and done in the class (for detailed description, see Section 3.6.3 in Chapter 3). On the observation sheet, low attention levels scored one when the teacher called on students for not following her. Medium attention levels were assigned to the task when one-third or half the students seemed to be paying attention, and high attention levels were scored three if more than half the students appeared attentive.

The results of attention levels for task 1 show that the medium attention was the highest in the PPP group (60%), while high attention was highest in the MTBLT group (85%), followed by the TBLT group (55%), as shown in Figure 5.5 and Table 5.7. As a result, the relationship between task 1 and learning groups was significant, as the Fisher's exact was $\chi^2(4) = 21.33$, $p\text{-value} < .001$.

Table 5.7 Crosstabulation statistics of attention levels for the tasks between groups

Attention		Group			χ^2 p-value	
		PPP	TBLT	MTBLT		
Task 1	low	Count	5	1	0	$\chi^2(4) = 21.33$, p-value < .001
		% within Group	25.0%	5.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	12	8	3	
		% within Group	60.0%	40.0%	15.0%	
	high	Count	3	11	17	
		% within Group	15.0%	55.0%	85.0%	
Task 2	low	Count	3	0	0	$\chi^2(4) = 28.76$, p-value < .001
		% within Group	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	14	7	1	
		% within Group	70.0%	35.0%	5.0%	
	high	Count	3	13	19	
		% within Group	15.0%	65.0%	95.0%	
Task 3	low	Count	3	0	0	$\chi^2(4) = 26.53$, p-value < .001
		% within Group	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	14	5	2	
		% within Group	70.0%	25.0%	10.0%	
	high	Count	3	15	18	
		% within Group	15.0%	75.0%	90.0%	
Overall attention	low	Count	3	0	0	$\chi^2(4) = 32.79$, p-value < .001
		% within Group	15.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	15	7	1	
		% within Group	75.0%	35.0%	5.0%	
	high	Count	2	13	19	
		% within Group	10.0%	65.0%	95.0%	

The same test was applied for the main task, task 2, to rate attention for all groups during the 20 hours of teaching. Similar to task 1, the medium attention was

highest for the PPP group (70%), while high attention was highest for the MTBLT group (95%), followed by the TBLT group (65%), as seen in Figure 5.3 and Table 5.5. The results were also significant using Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 28.76, p\text{-value} < .001$. Also, the test for the post-task's (task 3) attention level across time between the PPP, TBLT and MTBLT groups also showed that the medium attention was highest for the PPP group (70%) and high attention was highest for the MTBLT group (90%), followed by the TBLT group (75%), as seen in Figure 5.5 and Table 5.5. The result of the relationship using Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 26.53, p < .001$ was highly significant and similar to the main task's attention levels in the previous results.

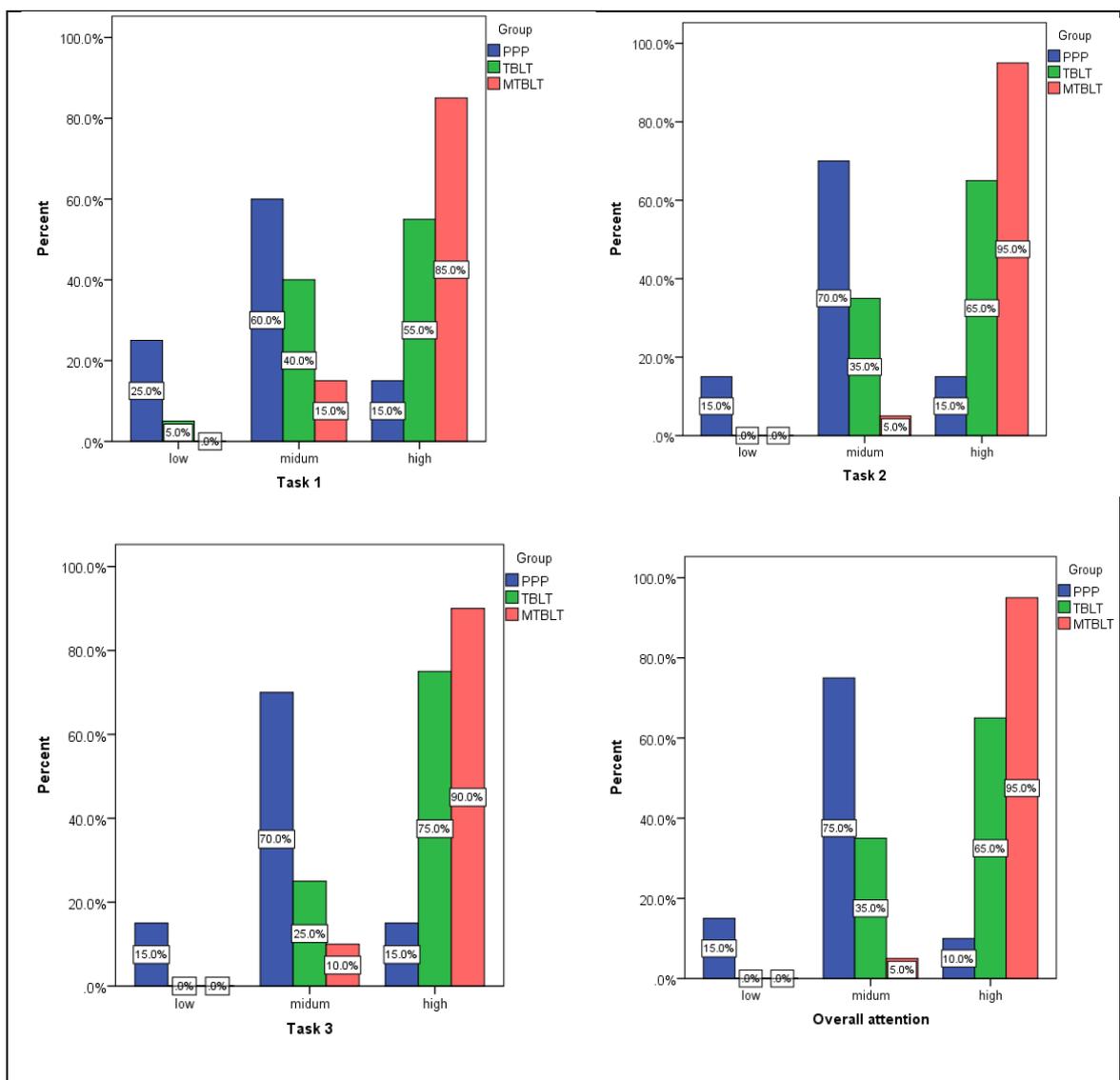


Figure 5.5 Distribution of students' observed attention for all groups

For overall attention, the highest percentage of medium attention (75%) was seen for the PPP group, while the high attention was very high in the MTBLT group (95%), as shown in Figure 5.5 and Table 5.7. The majority of the TBLT group (65%) showed high attention. Since Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 26.53, p < .001$, there was a very highly significant relationship between the attention levels and learning groups.

Generally, for all three tasks, the low and medium percentage of the PPP group was higher than the other groups. In contrast, for high attention, the MTBLT group was higher than the TBLT group and much higher than the PPP group.

As for students' perceived attention, one item in the questionnaire (item 16) asked if students agreed with the following statement: "I usually pay attention to what the teacher is saying in the reading classroom". Figure 5.6 compares the responses of all groups.

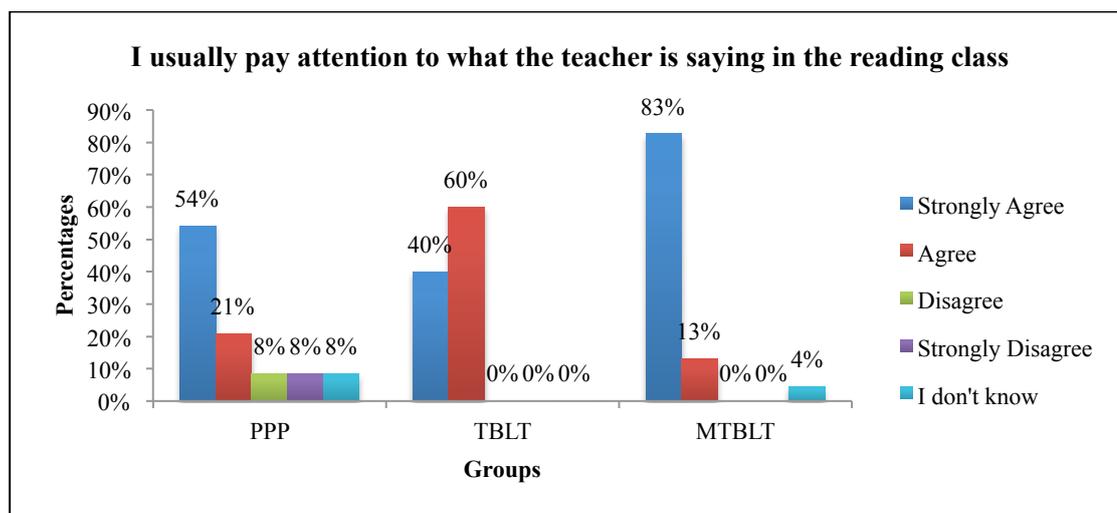


Figure 5.6 Percentages of all groups' responses to questionnaire item 16 on perceived attention

Figure 5.6 shows that the majority of students in the PPP group (54%) strongly agreed that they pay attention to the reading class. The TBLT students also agreed with that statement, with 60% agreeing and 40% strongly agreeing. Notably, the MTBLT group strongly agreed the most (83%) and the TBLT group all either agreed or strongly

agreed, but the PPP group disagreed (8%) and strongly disagreed (8%), with 8% who did not know.

To conclude, students in the MTBLT group had the highest levels of perceived attention (83%). The TBLT group had medium levels of observed attention, with lower percentages than the MTBLT group (40%). Finally, the PPP group scored the lowest amongst the three groups, with low levels of observed attention and perceived attention (54%). The next subsection will present data from the second motivational behaviour, examining findings from the observed and perceived participation in the reading classroom for all three groups.

5.5.3 Effects on students' participation

The variable of participation in this study measured how students interacted with the tasks and actively worked on assignments. Low levels of participation were scored with one on the observation sheet, meaning that few students were participating. Medium levels were assigned a two on the observation sheet, meaning that one-third or half the students were engaging in the task. High levels with a score of three meant that more than half the students participated in the activity.

For the results of participation levels for task 1, medium participation was highest for the TBLT group (70%) followed by the PPP group (65%), as seen in Table 5.8 and Figure 5.5. In contrast, high participation was highest for the MTBLT group (90%). As a result, the relationship between participation level (task 1) and learning groups was significant, as the Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 44.24$, $p\text{-value} < .001$.

Table 5.8 Crosstabulation statistics of participation levels for the tasks between groups

Participation		Group			χ^2 p-value	
		PPP	TBLT	MTBLT		
Task 1	low	Count	7	0	0	44.24 <.001
		% within Group	35.0%	0.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	13	14	2	
		% within Group	65.0%	70.0%	10.0%	
	high	Count	0	6	18	
		% within Group	0.0%	30.0%	90.0%	
Task 2	low	Count	9	1	0	46.16 <.001
		% within Group	45.0%	5.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	11	11	1	
		% within Group	55.0%	55.0%	5.0%	
	high	Count	0	8	19	
		% within Group	0.0%	40.0%	95.0%	
Task 3	Low	Count	15	1	0	46.56 <.001
		% within Group	75.0%	5.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	4	10	2	
		% within Group	20.0%	50.0%	10.0%	
	high	Count	1	9	18	
		% within Group	5.0%	45.0%	90.0%	
Overall	low	Count	10	1	0	47.35 <.001
		% within Group	50.0%	5.0%	0.0%	
	medium	Count	10	11	1	
		% within Group	50.0%	55.0%	5.0%	
	high	Count	0	8	19	
		% within Group	0.0%	40.0%	95.0%	

Similar to task 1, task 2 (medium participation) was the highest for PPP (55%) and MTBLT (55%) groups compared to the TBLT group (10%), as seen in Figure 5.7 and Table 5.8. High participation was the greatest for the MTBLT group (90%), followed by the TBLT group (65%). Low participation was much higher for the PPP group (45%) compared to the MTBLT (5%) and TBLT (0%) groups. The relationship between the groups and the medium participation (task 2) level using Fisher's exact χ^2 (4) =46.16, p-value<.001 was very highly significant.

Also, the test for the post-task (task 3) participation level across time between the PPP, TBLT, and MTBLT groups showed that low participation was the highest for

the PPP group (75%), while high attention was the highest for the MTBLT group (90%), followed by the TBLT group (40%), as seen in Figure 5.7 and Table 5.8. The relationship between the groups and the post-task (task 3) participation level using Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 46.56, p < .001$ was very highly significant.

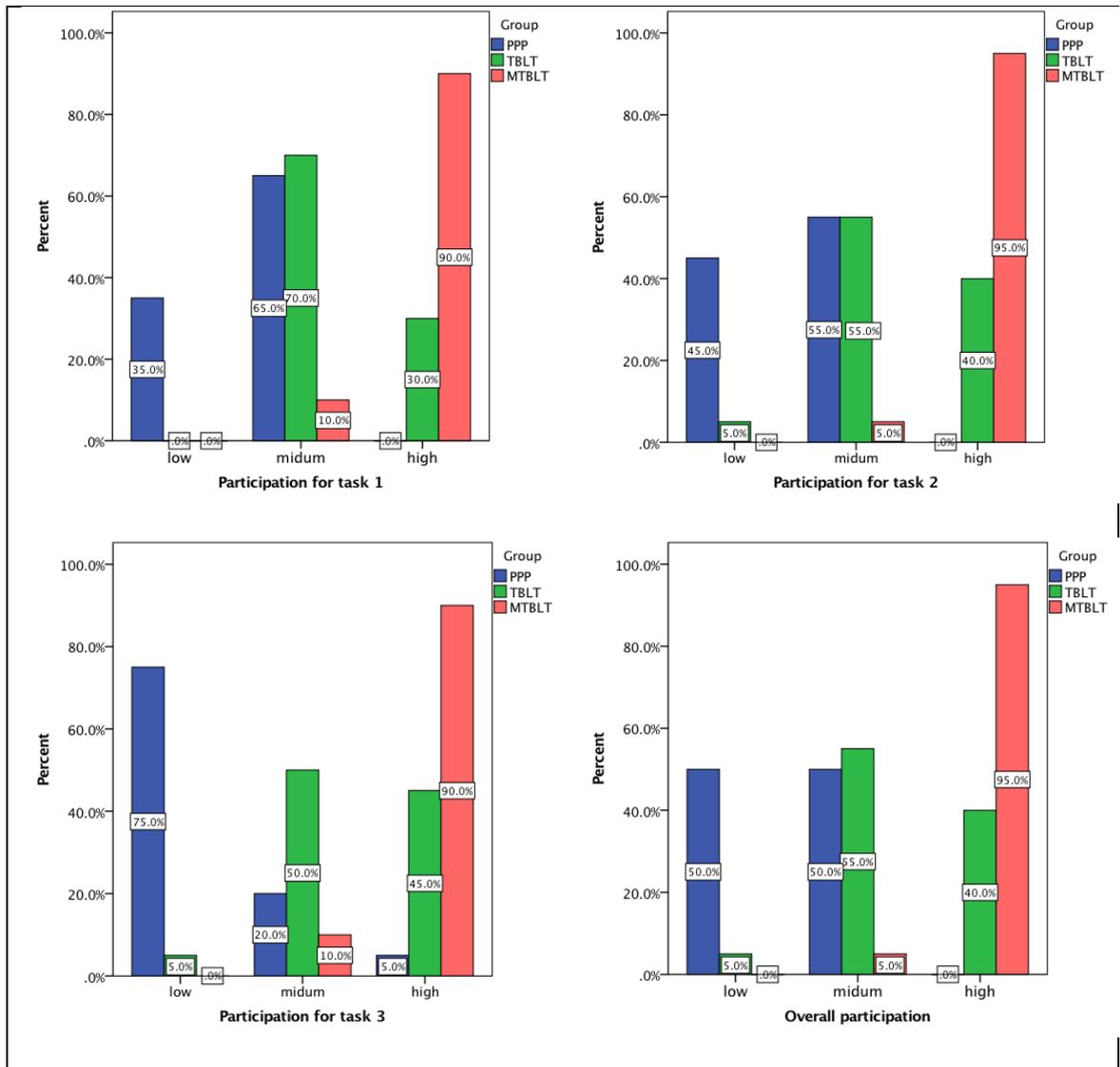


Figure 5.7 Distribution of students' observed participation for all groups

The highest percentage of overall medium participation (55%) was in the TBLT group, while high participation was very high in the MTBLT group (95%), as seen in Figure 5.7 and Table 5.8. Half of the TBLT group showed low participation (50%) and the other half showed (50%) medium participation. Since Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 4.35,$

$p < .001$, there was a very highly significant relationship between participation levels and the three learning groups.

Generally, with respect to low and medium participation among the three tasks, the PPP group's percentage was higher than the other groups. In contrast, the MTBLT group was much higher than the TBLT and PPP group.

For students' perceived participation, item 13 in the questionnaire asked if students agreed with the following statement: "I usually participate in reading activities".

Students' responses in all three groups are shown in Figure 5.8.

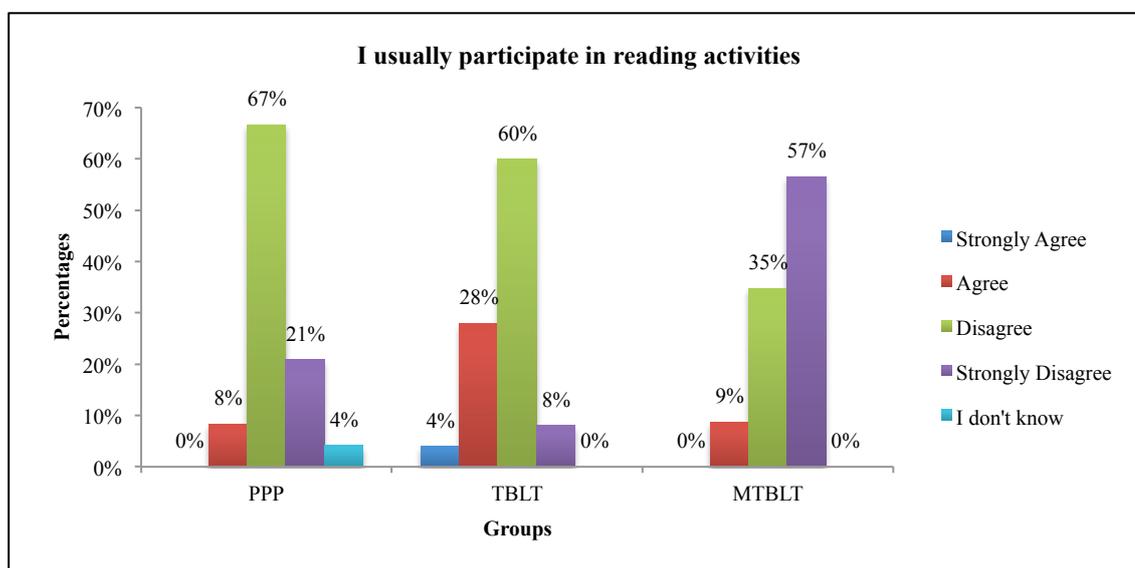


Figure 5.8 Percentages of all groups' responses to questionnaire item (13) on perceived participation

Figure 5.8 shows that the MTBLT group had strong opinions about classroom participation, with 57% of students not usually taking part in classroom activities. Sixty-seven per cent of the PPP group and 60% of the MTBLT group also disagreed with the statement, but their attitude was not as confident as that of the MTBLT students.

Another questionnaire item (12) asked students if they agreed with the following statement: "I do not like to participate because I am afraid that I will look stupid if I

answer incorrectly”. Figure 5.9 gives insight into one possible cause of poor participation among the three groups.

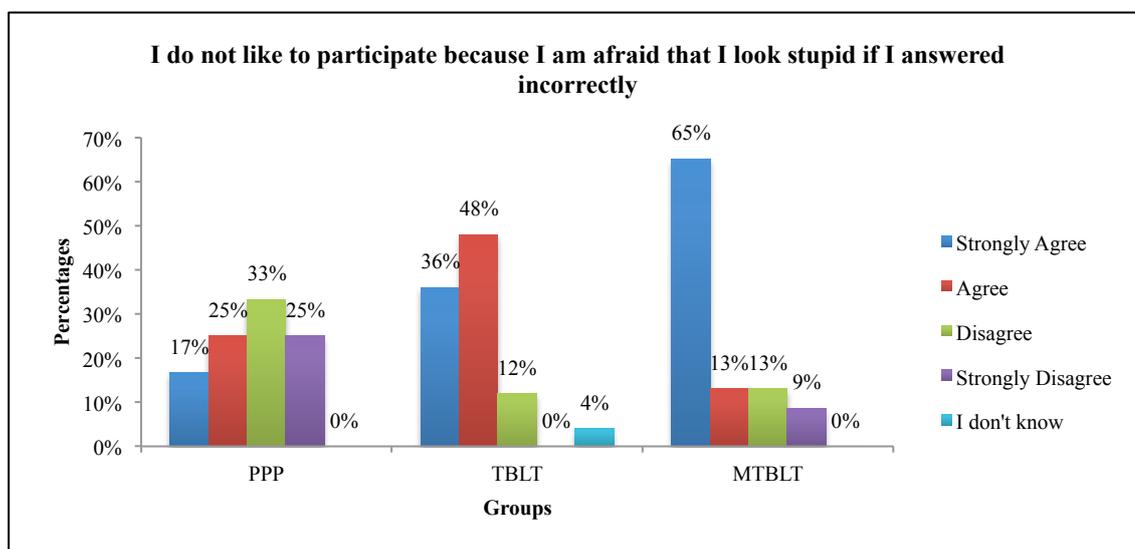


Figure 5.9 All groups’ responses to questionnaire item (12) on perceived participation

According to Figure 5.9, 65% of the MTBLT group strongly agreed that they do not like participating in reading tasks because they are afraid of embarrassment, with only 13% disagreeing with the statement. The TBLT group strongly agreed, but only 36% and the majority (48%) agreed. The majority of the PPP group, however, disagreed (33%) and strongly disagreed (25%). The PPP group had equal and opposite responses to this statement, with 25% agreeing and 25% disagreeing.

The questionnaire items asked the students about their ‘usual’ behaviour in the classroom, meaning that this kind of behaviour might not be the case for every task. When students experience different, “unusual” styles of teaching, they might produce different responses. The MTBLT students strongly agreed that they did not participate in the classroom (57%), but provided different results in response to use of mobile tasks, as shown in Figure 5.10.

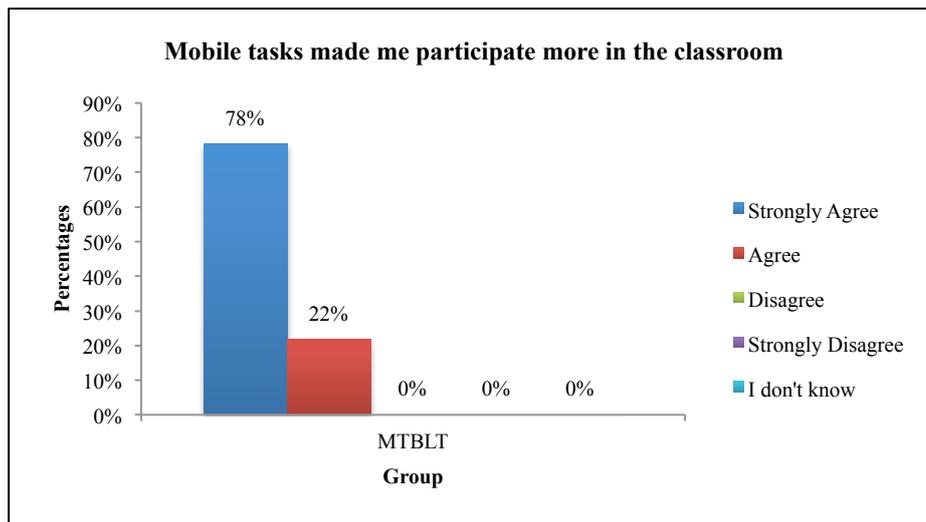


Figure 5.10 Percentages of MTBLT group responses to questionnaire item (19) on perceived participation

According to Figure 5.10, 78% of the MTBLT group strongly agreed that mobile tasks positively affected classroom participation, and the other 22% only agreed with the statement. No student from this group disagreed with the statement.

To conclude this subsection, the MTBLT group had the highest levels of observed participation in the three tasks compared to the other groups ($p < .001$). Data also showed low levels of participation in the PPP group for the post-task (25%). For perceived participation, all groups agreed that they did not usually take part in classroom activities, and another questionnaire item revealed that students were afraid of embarrassment, preventing them from participating. Finally, the MTBLT group agreed (78%) that mobile tasks made them participate more in the reading classroom. The final subsection presents the findings of observed and perceived volunteering levels for all the three groups.

5.5.4 Effects on students' volunteering

Volunteering as a variable in this study relates to the extent to which students willingly answered questions or joined in a task without being coaxed by the teacher. Low

volunteering scored a one on the observation sheet when the teacher called on students. Medium levels were scored a two when students needed some encouragement to take part in an activity. High volunteering levels scored a three when students readily raised their hands or asked to perform a task.

Table 5.9 Crosstabulation statistics of volunteering levels for the tasks between groups

Volunteering		Group			χ^2 p-value	
		PPP	TBLT	MTBLT		
Task 1	low	.1 Count	15	0	0	52.07
		% within Group	75.0%	0.0%	0.0%	<.001
	medium	.2 Count	5	13	4	
		% within Group	25.0%	65.0%	20.0%	
	high	Count	0	7	16	
		% within Group	0.0%	35.0%	80.0%	
Task 2	low	Count	20	0	0	35.23
		% within Group	50.0%	0.0%	0.0%	<.001
	medium	Count	10	11	6	
		% within Group	50.0%	55.0%	30.0%	
	high	Count	0	9	14	
		% within Group	0.0%	45.0%	70.0%	
Task 3	low	Count	20	20	20	41.20
		% within Group	65.0%	5.0%	0.0%	<.001
	medium	Count	7	6	4	
		% within Group	35.0%	30.0%	20.0%	
	high	Count	0	13	16	
		% within Group	0.0%	65.0%	80.0%	
Overall	low	Count	13	0	0	47.90
		% within Group	65.0%	0.0%	0.0%	<.001
	medium	Count	7	11	3	
		% within Group	35.0%	55.0%	15.0%	
	high	Count	0	9	17	
		% within Group	0.0%	45.0%	85.0%	

Low volunteering levels for task 1 were highest for the PPP group (75%), with 0% for the MTBLT and TBLT groups, as shown in Table 5.7 and Figure 5.11. In contrast, medium (65%) and high (80%) volunteering was highest in the MTBLT group.

As a result, the relationship between volunteering levels in task 1 and learning groups was significant as the Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 52.07$, $p\text{-value} < .001$.

Similar to task 1, task 2 (low and medium volunteering 2) levels were higher for PPP (50%) and TBLT (55%) groups compared to the MTBLT group (30%), as seen in Figure 5.11 and Table 5.9. High volunteering was the highest for the MTBLT group (70%), followed by TBLT group (65%). Low volunteering was much higher for the PPP group (50%), with 0% for the MTBLT and TBLT groups. The relationship between the groups and the medium volunteering (task 2) level using Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 35.23$, $p\text{-value} < .001$ was very highly significant.

The post-task's (Task 3) volunteering level across time among the PPP, TBLT and MTBLT groups showed that low volunteering was highest for the PPP group (65%), while high attention was the highest for the MTBLT group (80%), followed by the TBLT group (65%), as seen in Figure 5.11 and Table 5.9. The relationship between the groups and the post-task (Task 3) volunteering levels using Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 41.20$, $p < .001$ was very highly significant.

For overall volunteering, the highest percentage of low volunteering (65%) was seen for the PPP group, while high volunteering was very high in the MTBLT group (85%), as shown in Figure 5.11 and Table 5.9. About a half of the TBLT group showed medium volunteering (55%), and the other half showed (45%) low volunteering. Since Fisher's exact $\chi^2(4) = 47.90$, $p < .001$, there was a very highly significant relationship between the volunteering levels and the three learning groups.

It was noted for the three tasks that the PPP group percentage was higher than the other groups' in low volunteering. In contrast, for high volunteering, the MBLT group percentage was higher than the TBLT group and much higher than the PPP group.

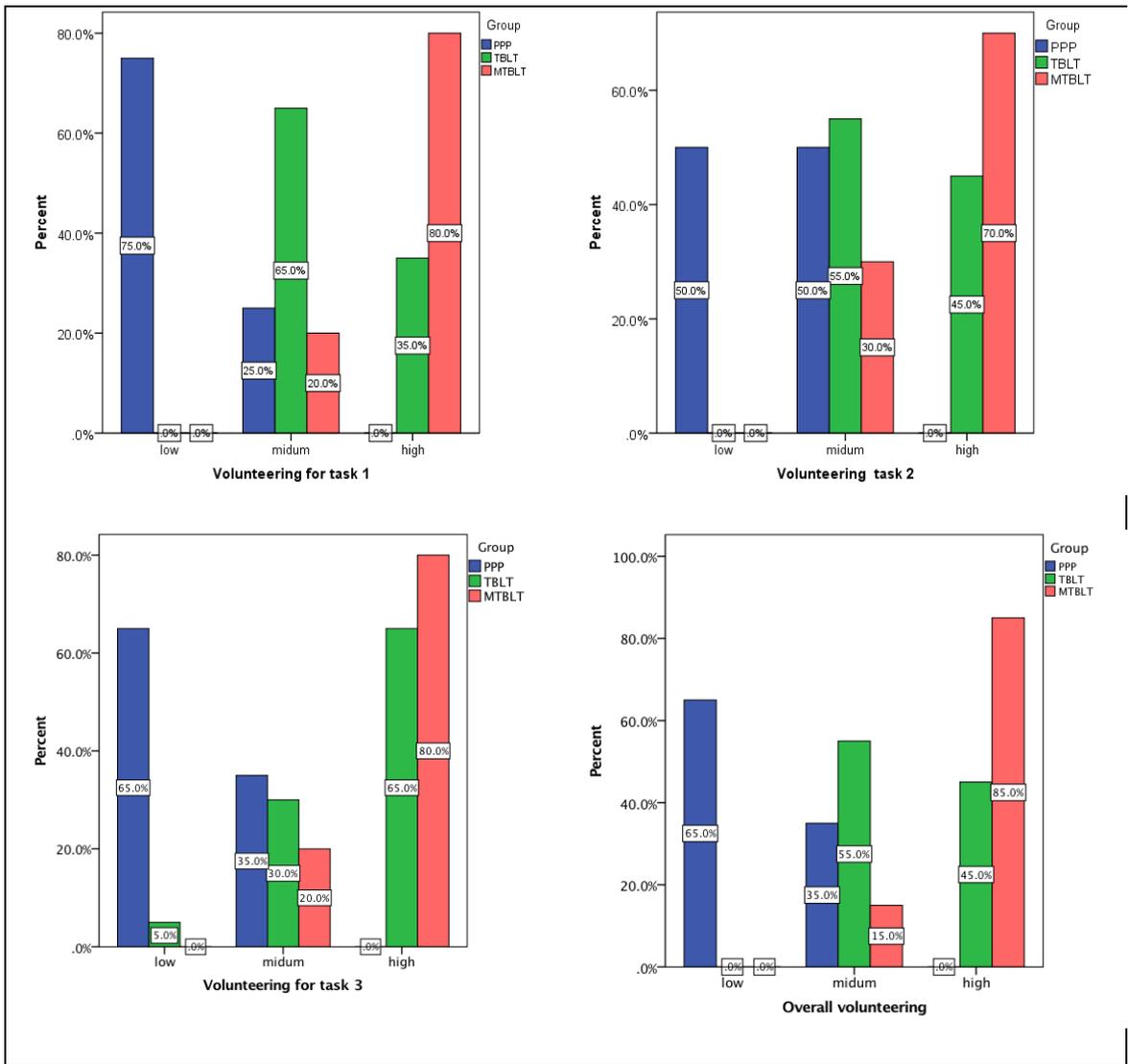


Figure 5.11 Distribution of volunteering levels for the three groups

This study rated perceived volunteering by asking the students if they agreed with the following questionnaire item (10): “I often volunteer to answer in reading activities”. Students’ responses are shown in Figure 5.12.

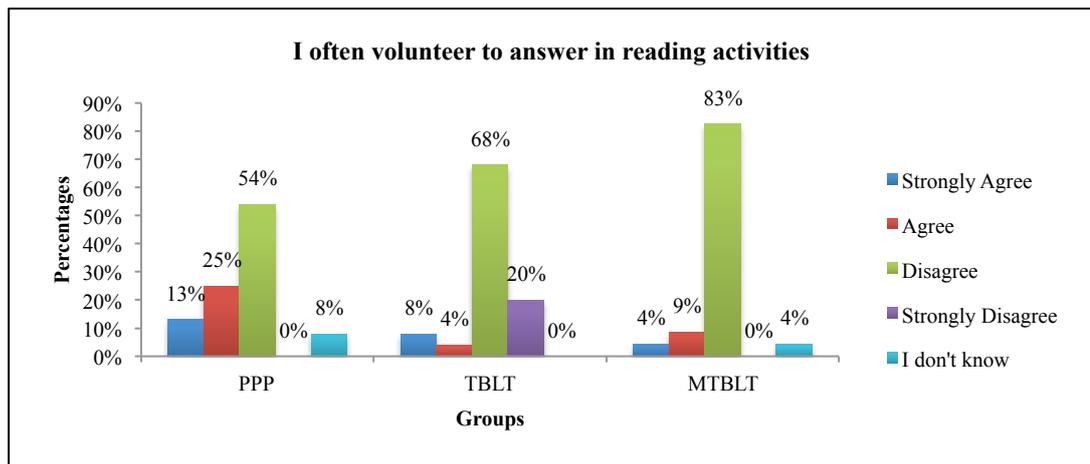


Figure 5.12 Percentages of all groups' responses to questionnaire item (10) on perceived volunteering

As seen in Figure 5.12, the majority of students in all groups reported that they did not often volunteer in reading activities. The MTBLT group reported the highest disagreement (83%), the TBLT was second (68%), and the PPP was the lowest (54%). However, 25% of the PPP group participants volunteered in the classroom, and only 9% of the MTBLT group participants thought the same. As with perceived participation from the previous subsection, perceived volunteering was measured using “often” to indicate frequency in all previous reading classes. Since every group was taught differently, the MTBLT group participants were asked to respond to the following statement: “I think I volunteer more when we are using mobile tasks”. Figure 5.13 shows their responses to item 27 in percentages.

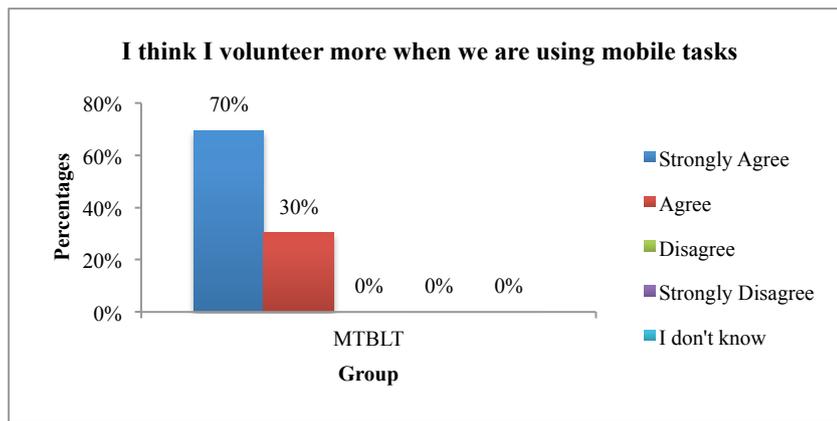


Figure 5.13 MTBLT group's perceived volunteering questionnaire item (27) responses (%)

Figure 5.13 shows that all students (70% strongly agree, 30% agree) in the MTBLT group reported that mobile tasks encouraged them to volunteer for reading activities. In conclusion, the data on observed volunteering showed that the MTBLT group had significantly higher levels of volunteering ($p < .001$) and the PPP group had low levels, with medium levels in the main task. Perceived volunteering results showed that no groups reported volunteering often in the classroom, but the MTBLT group agreed that mobile tasks positively impacted their willingness to volunteer.

5.6 Discussion and answer to RQ2

For this study's first research question, the findings from Chapter 4 revealed that students struggled with motivation in reading classrooms for several reasons, one of which was the teaching method. The second research question focused on the effects of mobile tasks on MTBLT students' motivation when compared to PPP and TBLT students. This chapter's findings showed that the MTBLT group outperformed the other two groups in terms of post-test progress, attentions levels, participation levels, and rates of volunteering. This study's mobile tasks were designed using two free applications that were available to download on most smartphones. The first app was

Socrative, a tool that creates different kinds of quizzes using multimedia and offers instant feedback for students and monitoring features for teachers. This app allowed the teacher and researcher to monitor how many students were logged on and how many were engaging in tasks. This helped determine a roughly accurate number of the students who paid attention to and participated in reading activities.

The second app was Padlet, a virtual whiteboard on which students could write, add pictures, and provide links to various Internet reading materials. Unlike Socrative, this app does not show the number of students engaging in the activities, but it was easier to monitor than paper-based activities. This chapter's data presented quantitative findings to address the study's second research question. However, qualitative explanations for why mobile apps impacted students' motivation will be discussed in Chapter 6 to provide a more holistic representation of why students behaved the way they did and not just what they did. The following sections discuss details of each of the previously presented research variables and are interpreted in light of the relevant research literature discussed in Chapter 2.

5.6.1 Effects on achievement

Three groups with different teaching methods undertook the same reading tests before and after the English course, which lasted for seven weeks in total. The data show that the three groups' results were not significant in the pre-test. In other words, the three groups' achievements were similar before the start of the course. However, in the post-test, the TBLT and MTBLT groups scored significantly higher than the PPP group, with medium effect size. The MTBLT group scored the highest ($M = 13.22$, $SD = 2.32$), the TBLT second highest ($M = 12.60$, $SD = 3.08$), and the PPP group the lowest ($M = 10.96$, $SD = 2.48$).

A study by Oberg and Daniels (2013) measured students' language acquisition in language courses by testing two groups of Japanese students, one using a traditional method of teaching, and one using a task-based method with iPod Touch devices. The results showed that the two groups progressed over time, with the mobile group achieving significant progress over the control group. Oberg and Daniels (2013) stated that students in the mobile group had access to the learning materials with the option of revisiting them more often, resulting in better chances of learning. In this study, students in the MTBLT group did not have access to any of the reading materials presented to them online. They only used the tasks once during the lesson and were not able to benefit from it afterwards.

A study by Wang (2017) investigated the impact of self-paced mobile activities on EFL university students from different colleges in Taiwan. The mobile group used reading tasks on iPads, while the control group used regular textbooks. The mobile group showed significant progress in the post-test ($M=143.64$) compared to the paper-based group ($M=133.67$). Reading material content was the same for both groups, but the mobile group learned better and showed higher satisfaction levels with the reading course. Wang (2017) attributed the positive effects on students' motivation to several factors related to features of mobile learning, like the use of multimedia, repeated practice, and self-paced learning that promoted autonomy.

In the Saudi context, Ahmed (2015) conducted an experiment on two university level classrooms (50 male students) in speaking, listening, reading, and writing. One group used the textbook, and the other group's students used a digital copy of the book's materials on their smartphones. However, the mobile group had the advantage of access to more articles and tasks, as well as online communication with other students. The results of the post-test showed that the mobile group ($M=15.72$) did significantly better than the control group ($M=13.48$) in all skills, and reading was also significant

($p < 001$). Another study by Alshumaimeri and Almasri (2012) showed significant improvement in reading comprehension achievement between the control group ($M = 15.21$) and the experimental group ($M = 20.14$). They used WebQuest (an educational website for students to gather information and trigger meaningful communication) to teach English to 42 students, whereas the control group (41 students) used the usual textbook. The experimental group's high significance could be attributed to the fact that the participants used WebQuest in all activities, reading and otherwise. In this study, it was not possible to deviate from the textbook entirely.

The following section links the findings of this Chapter to the findings from Chapter 6. Although the findings were arranged according to research questions of this study, the use of triangulation allows presenting the data wherever appropriate to support the research argument (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Therefore, some of the findings from the focus groups were used to understand other factors that might have influenced students' achievement.

5.6.1.1 Links to other findings

It is important that the achievement results are interpreted in light and support of this study's other findings. Although it is tempting to assume that mobile tasks alone had a direct influence on students' progress, it is important to note the following. First, each classroom had a different teacher, and the role of a teachers' motivational strategies should not be underestimated. Second, the MTBLT students' might have been influenced by the mobile tasks' stylistic similarity to their regular tasks, which might have helped the mobile tasks prepare students for the test. For example, the reading comprehension questions in the textbooks were open-ended, which required students to read the passage and write or highlight short answers. The mobile tasks (in the pre and main task) required students to read from their textbooks, then choose the answers on their phones from multiple-choice comprehension questions. ELI's standard reading

tests also used computer-based multiple-choice comprehension questions. In other words, the MTBLT group's use of Socratic might have given them the advantage of practising for the final examination using a similar type of task. However, other elements of the mobile tasks may have affected their achievement. Evidence from other findings in this study supports the positive influence of mobile tasks on students when compared to other groups, which will be discussed further in this chapter.

It is important to explain why students in the MTBLT group progressed significantly in reading by drawing evidence from the students themselves. Students from the MTBLT focus group thought that mobile tasks helped them remember vocabulary better than the textbook did. One student said, "I really benefited from mobile tasks. I remember grammar and vocabulary better" (MTBLT-3), to which her friend replied, "I agree. I remember things more when using my phone" (MTBLT-4). A third student was asked how she believed mobile tasks affected her: "It matters. The information lingers in our minds when we use phones, I think" (MTBLT-2). This finding aligns with Lai (2016), whose study showed that the mobile group had better vocabulary retention than the textbook-based group. The literature also shows that vocabulary retention is best attained when paired with a picture or additional gloss, which improves vocabulary recognition (Chun, 2006; Yanguas, 2009). This study focused on reading comprehension in general, and measuring vocabulary improvement was not possible. However, since understanding words constitutes comprehension, it can be assumed that remembering new vocabulary played a crucial part in students' reading progress. Vocabulary learning is important for reading comprehension, and it helps students understand language and build confidence in classroom participation, which will be discussed in the next section. Other qualitative insights such as collaborative work and vocabulary retention will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Another explanation for students' progress in reading could be attributed to their positive attitudes towards their learning experience. The literature shows a correlation between students' perceived motivation and their achievement in language learning (Dörnyei, 1994, Krashen, 1981; Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Furthermore, a study on the relationship between the L2 motivational self and language achievement amongst Saudi learners revealed that students who had positive attitudes of their future selves led them to put effort into their learning and gain better grades in formal examinations (Khan, 2015). In this study, the MTBLT students' perceived achievement showed confidence in achieving better grades in their reading examination, whereas the PPP group students did not think they would do well. The correlation between students' actual and perceived achievement was not significant. This finding aligns with a study by Ölmez (2015), which studied 114 EFL learners at a Turkish university to investigate the relationship between students' perceived motivational attitudes and reading achievement; the results showed no significant correlation. Other elements of motivation will be discussed in Section 5.6.2.

To conclude this section, the MTBLT and TBLT groups showed significant difference in reading grades compared to the PPP group, and the students had positive attitudes towards their achievement. The following section explores this study's other research motivational variables, through observed and perceived attention, levels of participation, and volunteering rates amongst the three groups. This study could have used more data-gathering tools (pre questionnaire, delayed test), but the nature of the research and the administrative restrictions did not allow their implementation on this occasion, as will be discussed in Chapter 7. Further research in this area could benefit greatly from a delayed test to measure students' retention. Another useful tool that could be used is a pre-questionnaire to perform statistical analysis comparing students' attitudes before and after the treatment. Finally, a satisfaction or evaluation form after

each class highlighting the aspects of mobile tasks that influenced students' performance would have been useful to gather detailed information about the task features. The next section discusses the findings of students' observed and perceived attention participation and volunteering.

5.6.2 Effects on motivational behaviour

Students' attention in the reading classroom was measured by observing the number of students who appeared to be following what was being said and done around them. Even if students appeared to be gazing at the ceiling, they may still have been thinking or reflecting. The findings suggest that more than half the students in the MTBLT group "appeared" to pay attention during the pre-task (28%), the main task (32%), and the post-task (30%), and they did significantly better than the other two groups. There is a trend among the three tasks, where attention levels in the pre-task were the lowest among all groups. This might be because this task involved preparing students for new vocabulary or topics.

Comparing the observed and perceived attention was not statistically possible, but a pattern was observed emerging from the percentages of all three groups. The MTBLT group had the highest observed and perceived attention, followed by the TBLT group, then the PPP group. Less than half of the PPP group (10%) paid attention to the activities, whereas 54% strongly agreed that they paid attention. The TBLT group observation indicated that significantly more than half of students (75%) paid attention, and 40% strongly agreed that they paid attention. Lastly, more than half of the MTBLT group (95%) paid attention when observed, and the majority (83%) strongly agreed they were alert during tasks. The MTBLT group was more confident in perceived attention

than the other groups, because the majority chose “strongly agree” and only 4% did not know.

When observing students’ participation, it was easier to monitor the MTBLT group’s activities through the Socrative app, which showed how many students were logged onto the App and answering questions on the teacher’s monitor. It was also easier when using Padlet, as students’ writing appeared on the screen. For the PPP and TBLT groups, participation was scored according to how many students were actively writing, reading, and interacting with the class. This result could have implications for language teachers who are afraid that using smartphones in their classrooms might distract them from monitoring students, according to Al-Seghayer (2014). More on implication for practice will be discussed in Chapter 7.

The majority of students in all three groups disagreed that they usually participated in reading activities, with the MTBLT group showing more confidence by choosing “strongly disagree” compared to the other groups’ “disagree”. It could be hypothesized that mobile tasks made the MTBLT students more aware of their actions when comparing themselves in two different teaching settings. This was evident in their perceptions of technology use in reading classrooms, with 78% strongly agreeing that mobile tasks made them more active. In total 67% of the PPP group reported not participating in reading tasks, making them the highest when compared to the TBLT (60%) and the MTBLT (35%) groups.

One of the reasons students did not participate in reading tasks was the fear of making mistakes in front of the class. Again, this study noted more confidence in the MTBLT responses, in which 65% responded, “strongly agree” to the statement, “I do not like to participate because I am afraid that I will look stupid if I answered incorrectly”. One student from the MTBLT focus group stated that she did not like to participate by speaking in front of the class, but preferred writing her responses in the

mobile app instead. However, since this chapter was mainly quantitative, the focus groups data will be presented in the next chapter. Chapter 6 will elaborate on the reasons for increased participation using focus group data.

Volunteering was observed by noting how many students willingly answered questions or engaged in activities. Examples included raising a hand when the teacher asked if someone could spell a certain word or explaining information from the reading passage. Volunteering can sometimes be confused with participation, but usually with volunteering in a Saudi classroom, students showed enthusiasm by raising their hands and calling the teacher's name. When there is lack of or low rates of volunteering, the teacher sometimes coaxed students or called a student by name to contribute. Students in the MTBLT group showed significantly higher volunteering levels than the other groups. In perceived volunteering, students in all groups disagreed with the statement, "I often volunteer to answer in reading classrooms", with the highest responses from the MTBLT group (83%). However, when those students were asked if they thought mobile tasks helped them volunteer more, 70% of them strongly agreed.

Although to my knowledge no relevant research has investigated attention, participation, and volunteering specifically, some studies have explored students' engagement while using mobile tasks. The study by Sarhandi et al. (2017), for example, investigated the role of smartphones on task engagement in a Saudi university. The control group was taught with their textbooks (paper-based) and the experimental group used the same tasks, but with the limited use of smartphone apps like WhatsApp Messenger and Socrative (i.e., full features of the apps had not been exploited). The results showed that the experimental group was less distracted from tasks than the control group ($p < 0.001$). The mobile group's qualitative data also showed overall positive behaviour and enthusiasm, and declined engagement from the control group. However, a study by Sarhandi et al. (2017) did not account for achievement, levels of

participation and volunteering, or the possible reasons behind students' motivated behaviour. They argued that because the tasks were exactly the same but with different delivery methods (paper-based and mobile-based), the mobile group could have influenced by the novelty of the teaching aid. This could also be the case in this study, and further longitudinal research could be carried out, as will be discussed in Chapter 7. However, this study used all the features from the Socratic app, including instant feedback, competition mode, and monitoring students. The study also used the Padlet app to create a more creative atmosphere for students to collaborate and use Internet resources. A creative atmosphere, for the purpose of this study, is the amount of control given to students to complete the task, like choosing an ending to a story or adding web links to the Padlet. These features positively affected students' motivation, as will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Another study by Solares (2014) investigated the effects of mobile tasks, overall motivation and achievement in writing classes among three groups of students. The control group used the assigned textbook, the task group used printed online tasks, and the mobile group used online tasks. Although the results did not show significance in achievement between the three groups, the mobile group appeared more motivated and positive towards the tasks. She argued that the students might have appreciated the tasks themselves, and not the technology use per se. In other words, the type of tasks that were used might have yielded the same results regardless of the technology. This could also be the case in this study, in that students were motivated to participate in the reading activities because of elements of competition, communication, or feedback. The TBLT group used similar activities to the MTBLT group, utilising paper-based means, and their motivation was better than that of the PPP group. This could be attributed to the nature of task-based teaching, as in a study by Hakim (2015), in which her

participants reported high levels of perceived motivation when using a task-based approach in their EFL classes.

As mentioned in section 5.6.1, Wang (2017) conducted a study in Taiwan to compare traditional EFL reading classes with self-paced, mobile-taught reading classes. Although the content of the reading materials was similar in both groups, Wang argues that mobile features positively affected students' achievement and attitudes. First, the reading content in the mobile tasks was supported by the use of multimedia, from pictures to online videos. Second, since it was a self-paced instruction, students from the experimental group had access to the reading materials and could view the content at their convenience. Third, the app that was used provided students with instant and corrective feedback, which is difficult to provide without technology. In other words, teachers find it challenging to accommodate and provide feedback for each student in traditional classrooms. Finally, the flexibility of the reading tasks which provided choices of reading materials could have had an influence on learners' autonomy and intrinsic motivation. All of these elements of mobile learning could arguably be done without the use of technology, but the careful utilization of mobile tools can considerably aid learning (Ushioda, 2013).

This study examines whether the effects of mobile tasks can be attributed to the features of the delivery method itself or the types of tasks that were used. In this study, elements of both were combined to motivate learners' participation, which could influence their linguistic gains and achievement. The MTBLT group performed better (although not in statistically significant ways) than the TBLT group in all aspects of perceived and observed motivation, which suggests that the mobile tasks offered more than the TBLT for the other groups. A detailed discussion of the mobile task features will be explored in-depth in the next chapter, drawing from the findings of the self-reported questionnaire and focus groups.

In summary, the quantitative data showed that the TBLT and MTBLT groups performed significantly better than the PPP group in reading comprehension achievement, levels of attention, participation, and volunteering in classroom tasks. Moreover, MTBLT and TBLT students' perceptions were highly positive in perceived motivation compared to the PPP group. Even though the difference between the TBLT and MTBLT groups was not significantly higher in observed and perceived motivation, the data showed that the MTBLT was the highest of the three groups.

5.7 Summary

Research in the field of Mobile-Assisted Language Learning has examined its potential for aiding students' motivation and linguistic progress. However, less research has been conducted on the effects of mobile tasks on students' motivational behaviour when compared to other groups of learners. Most of the research in Saudi Arabia explored students' attitudes and readiness, but not enough empirical studies have been carried out. The current research aimed to fill this gap in the literature and to extend and deepen our knowledge of the field by investigating how mobile tasks affect specific aspects of EFL learners' motivation in the reading classroom.

According to the previous research question in Chapter 4, the majority of students in all groups were not enthusiastic to participate in classroom tasks, and they did not pay attention to the reading lessons or volunteer often with their current teaching method. Furthermore, members of the PPP group were generally less confident in achieving better grades in examinations, and admitted to not engaging enough in classroom activities. On the other hand, this chapter found that students who were taught using TBLT and mobile tasks in reading classes showed a significant difference in their classroom behaviour compared to the PPP group. Additionally, the MTBLT

group's students thought their motivational behaviour and attitudes positively changed when they used mobile tasks.

This chapter addressed the study's second research question: *In what ways does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation?* The quantitative findings showed that students in the MTBLT group did better than the other groups in reading achievement, participation, attention, and volunteering. This difference could be attributed to several factors besides the use of mobile tasks. First, the teacher might have had some influence on her learners in terms of motivational strategies, which this study did not account for. Second, the novelty factor of using technology might have had a role in holding learners' attention; in future a more longitudinal research study could be designed to investigate this in a more meaningful way. Third, the design of the tasks alone without using smartphones had slightly similar effects on students' motivational behaviours, as is evident from the TBLT group.

In summary, the findings on the second research question are as follows:

1- The teaching methods that used TBLT and mobile task-based learning positively impacted students' reading comprehension achievement in the classroom.

2- The use of mobile tasks positively impacted students' perceived motivation, which could have helped them progress more than the other groups.

3- Students who used the traditional method of teaching (PPP) did not achieve higher scores in their tests, and were observed to have lower levels of attention, participation, and volunteering in reading classes.

4- Students' levels of attention, participation, and volunteering were observed to be at the maximum with the use of mobile tasks.

The next chapter addresses the third and final research question of this study, and explores the reasons why mobile tasks could have affected learners' motivation, as perceived by all group participants.

Chapter 6: Students' perceptions of mobile tasks

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings related to the third research question of this study and discusses them in light of previous results, the research literature, and through the lens of Self-Determination Theory. In Chapter 4, data revealed that students struggled with motivation in reading courses because of the nature of classroom instruction and the lack of sufficient stimulating tasks to cope with the long duration of the class (3 hours). Chapter 5 discussed the second research question and found that different teaching methods yielded significant results in terms of students' level of attention to the teacher, participation in tasks, volunteering in activities, and overall achievement in the post-test.

This chapter examines how students perceived mobile tasks from two viewpoints: participants who experienced this method of teaching (MTBLT group), and those who did not (PPP and TBLT groups). The findings presented different themes that emerged from the three groups, and then compared them to the motivational issues that were presented in Chapter 4. The third research question of this study is: *How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms??*

The quantitative findings from the closed-ended questionnaire items are presented first in Section 6.2. The qualitative findings are presented according to the groups, and each group has subsections for the main themes (translation, motivating tasks, feedback). Section 6.3 presents the findings from the PPP group that identified translation, distraction, access to educational materials, feedback, and change as the perceived effects of mobile tasks. The findings from the TBLT group in Section 6.4 only showed translation, change from traditional teaching, and distraction as perceived

effects. Section 6.5 discloses the MTBLT experience with mobile tasks, with four themes: motivating tasks, independent learning, feedback, and retention. Section 6.6 discusses students' perceptions. Section 6.7 compares the findings from Chapter 4 with some aspects of motivation from the findings in this chapter.

6.2 Overview of students' attitudes towards mobile tasks

This chapter's results were drawn from three sources: 1) a closed-ended questionnaire, which contained seven items on the use of mobile tasks in English classrooms; 2) one open-ended questionnaire item about potential uses of mobile tasks; and 3) three separate focus group interviews. The closed-ended questionnaire data are presented in percentages according to the five-point Likert scale choices. The open-ended questionnaire item and the focus group interviews were analysed using NVivo to search for common themes amongst the three groups. The quantitative data are presented first.

Initially, data on 72 students from all groups were collected using the questionnaire regarding mobile tasks and how using them in class could benefit the learning experience. From the closed-ended questionnaire, students were asked to choose from 12 items about mobile tasks using a five-point Likert scale. The first four items about general attitudes towards mobile tasks were presented for all groups combined. The responses of these four items were also combined to represent agreement, disagreement, and neutrality. The other seven aspects of mobile tasks were presented for each group separately to compare the responses of those who did not use mobile tasks (PPP and TBLT) with the responses of the group that did (MTBLT). Figure 6.1 shows the responses of all groups for four questionnaire items 20, 23, 24, and 26 in percentages.

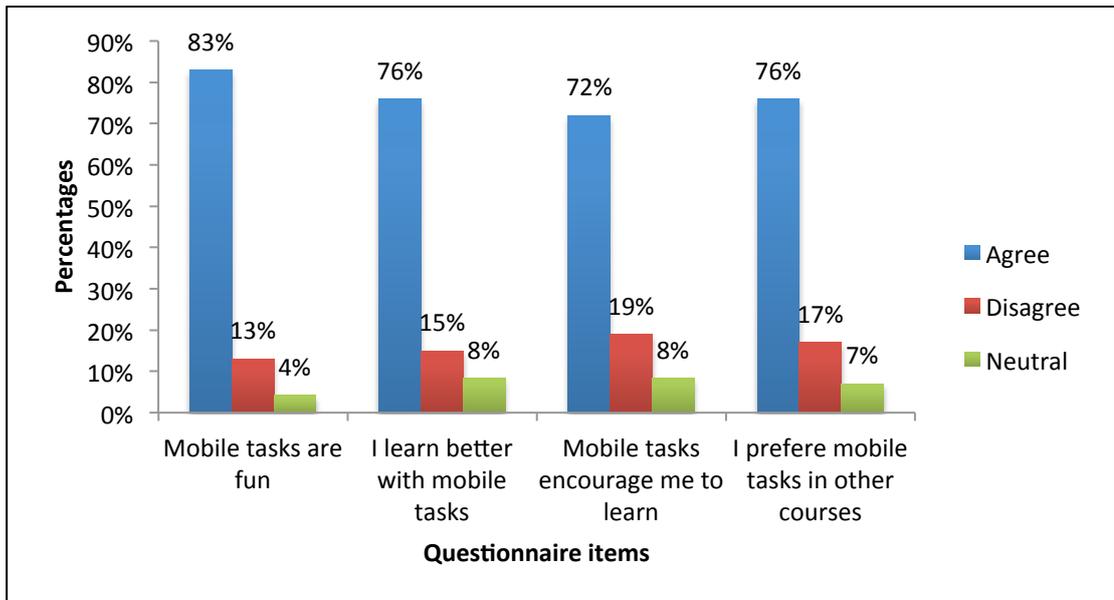


Figure 6.1 Questionnaire responses of general attitudes towards mobile tasks from all groups (%)

Figure 6.1 shows that 83% of all groups thought that mobile tasks were a fun way to learn English in general, and 76% thought they learned or would learn better using them. Similarly, 76% preferred using mobile tasks in other courses, and 72% said they would learn better if they were implemented in their classroom activities. Next, the responses of all groups were shown separately, starting with the 24 participants from the PPP group for the seven questionnaire items (20 to 26), as shown in Figure 6.2.

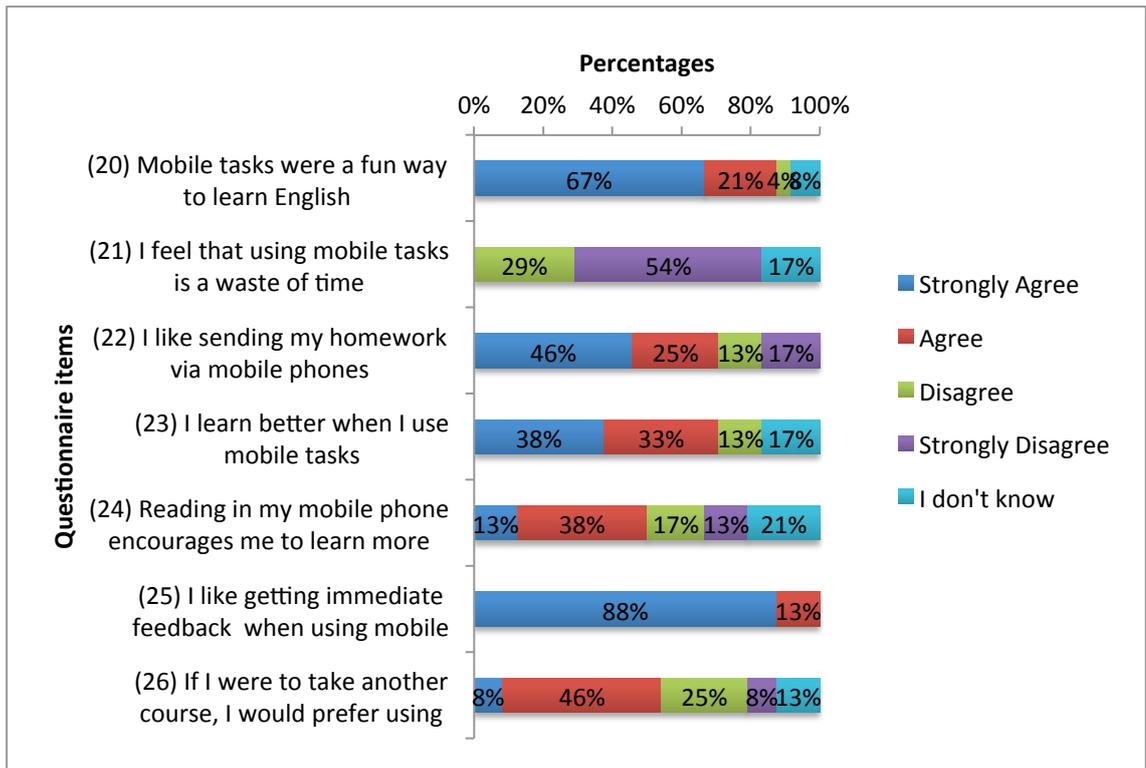


Figure 6.2 PPP group questionnaire responses about mobile tasks (%)

Figure 6.2 shows that 67% of the PPP group strongly agreed that mobile tasks would be a fun way to learn English, and 54% strongly disagreed that it is a waste of time. Item 22 asked the students if they like to send their homework via their smartphones: 47% strongly agreed and 17% strongly disagreed. Only 38% strongly agreed and 33% agreed that using mobile tasks would help them learn better in English classes (item 23). However, there were mixed perceptions as to how the use of mobile tasks could encourage students to learn English better than the traditional method (item 24). The majority (38%) agreed and 13% strongly agreed they would be encouraged, but 17% disagreed, 13% strongly disagreed, and 21% did not know if they would be encouraged or not. All of the students agreed that they would like immediate feedback (item 25). The final item (26) asked the students if they would take another English course using mobile tasks: 46% agreed, 25% disagreed, and 13% did not know. The percentage of students in this group who used the option “I do not know” from the five-

point Likert scale was greater than the other two groups (21% for item 24, 17% in items 21 and 23, and 8% from item 20).

Then, the seven closed-ended questionnaire items asked the 25 participants of the TBLT group about general perceptions of using mobile tasks in the language classroom. Their responses are shown in Figure 6.3.

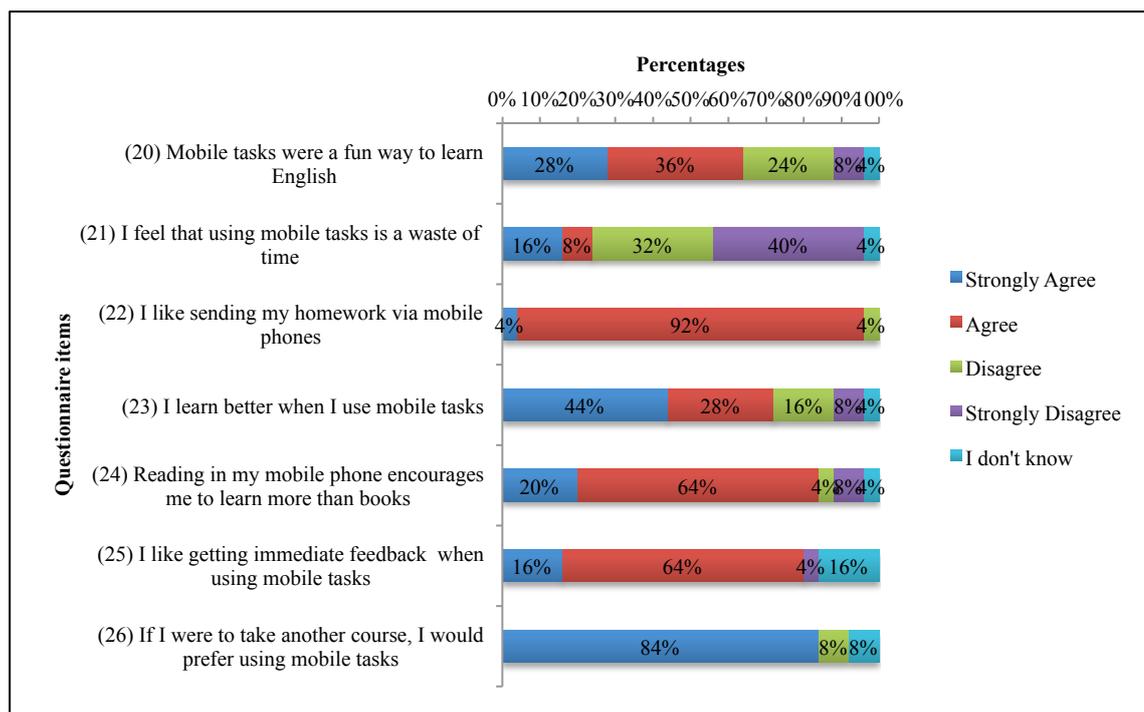


Figure 6.3 TBLT group questionnaire item responses about mobile tasks (%)

In Figure 6.3, item 26 revealed that the participants strongly agreed (84%) that if they were to take another course of English, they would prefer using mobile tasks. Another strong response was for item 22 about sending homework through their smartphones, to which 92% agreed. Items 24 and 25 had similar responses, with 64% agreeing that they would be encouraged to read on their smartphones and get immediate feedback for their work. However, the rest of the items showed a mix of responses, with more than half of students feeling positive toward the use of technology in language learning.

Lastly, quantitative data from the MTBLT group was drawn from 23 participants after they had finished 20 hours of a reading course with the aid of mobile tasks. Figure 6.4 shows their responses from the seven questionnaire items.

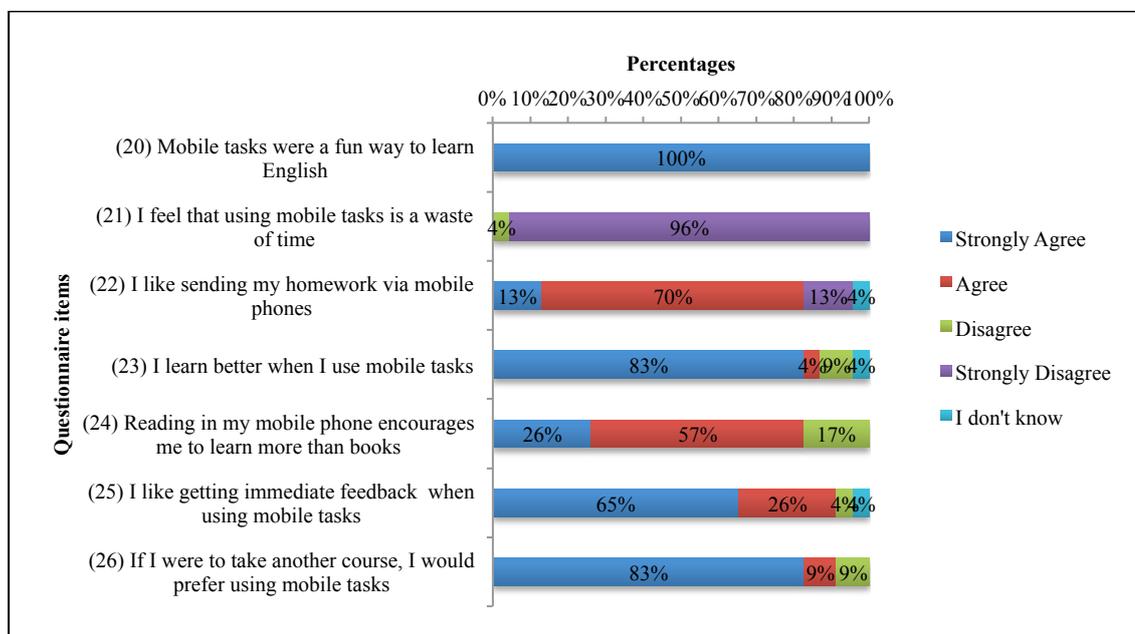


Figure 6.4 MTBLT group questionnaire items responses about mobile tasks (%)

Figure 6.4 shows the questionnaire items responses from the MTBLT group's perception of the mobile tasks they experienced. All 23 students thought that mobile tasks a pleasurable way to learn English in item 20. On the other hand, item 21 showed that 96% strongly disagreed that using mobile tasks was a waste of time. Furthermore, 70% of the students agreed that receiving homework via their smartphones was a good idea, and 13% strongly agreed. For the item 23, 83% strongly agreed they learned better when they used mobile tasks. Similarly, item 24 revealed that 57% strongly agreed they felt more encouraged to read and learn through mobile tasks. Moreover, item 25 showed that 65% of the mobile group strongly agreed that getting immediate feedback on their smartphones was an advantage of mobile tasks. Lastly, 83% would prefer mobile tasks in future English courses in item 26.

To summarise the quantitative findings, the data showed that the majority of students felt positively towards mobile tasks, but the PPP and TBLT groups, which did not experiment with mobile tasks, felt more negatively than the MTBLT group. Furthermore, the MTBLT group used “strongly agree” more than the other groups, and used “I do not know” far less.

The following sections present the qualitative data gathered from the focus group interviews. The PPP and TBLT groups did not use mobile tasks and therefore were asked what they thought of using this method. On the other hand, the MTBLT group experienced mobile tasks and students were asked to report on their effects on their overall behaviour and perceptions. Table 6.1 shows the themes according to each group, the number of participants that identified each theme, and sample quotes from the findings.

Table 6.1 Overview of the themes emerged from qualitative data of all the groups

PPP group (n= 24)	TBLT group (n= 25)	MTBLT group (n= 23)
<p>Translation 12</p> <p>“It makes it easier for us to translate words and look for answers if the task was difficult to understand” (PPP-10/603).</p>	<p>Translation 6</p> <p>“It is easy to understand words meanings and other information. It is easier to remember words and translate them” (TBLT/616).</p>	<p>Motivating tasks 15</p> <p>“It added excitement in the classroom, and it also made the students eager to participate” (MTBLT-19/627).</p>
<p>Change from traditional teaching 2</p> <p>“It would be a good change to the regular class. It would be interesting I think”. (PPP-5/6014).</p>	<p>Change from traditional teaching 2</p> <p>“I think it is a change from the usual classroom. It would be more exciting“ (TBLT11/618).</p>	<p>Retention 3</p> <p>“I really benefited from mobile tasks. I remember grammar and vocabulary better” (MTBLT-3/640).</p>
<p>Distraction 3</p> <p>“I think it would distract me and confuse me if we use a lot of websites at the same time“ (PPP-1/608).</p>	<p>Distraction 2</p> <p>“I don't think it is a good idea to use it, because it will distract me from the lesson” (TBLT2/619).</p>	<p>Independent learning 4</p> <p>“I liked the scavenger hunt as well because it lets you find information in websites. It is like you are searching for knowledge. You help yourself in finding answers“ (MTBLT-1/620).</p>
<p>Feedback 2</p> <p>“It is going to be easier for the teacher to give feedback and monitor students” (PPP-5/613).</p>		<p>Feedback 3</p> <p>“I like that it tells me if I got the correct answer immediately”. (MTBLT-14/636).</p>

As can be seen in Table 6.1, the PPP and TBLT groups shared similar overviews of the use of mobile tasks, while the MTBLT group identified more benefits. The qualitative data for this study were gathered from three focus groups and open-ended questionnaires to support, deepen, and further understand the quantitative data presented in Section 4.2. Thematic analysis of this data was based on the third research question, which explored how EFL learners perceived mobile tasks and understood how this approach could enhance their motivation.

6.3 The PPP group's perceptions of MTBLT

Five students participated in the focus group at the end of the module. Although the PPP group was taught using the PPP method, it was important to explore what they said about using mobile tasks to enhance their learning. The following sections present the themes that emerged from the PPP focus groups about using smartphones in the reading classroom. The qualitative findings were sourced from the open-ended questionnaire item and the focus group. Five themes were identified in this group: translation, distraction, access to educational material, feedback, and change from traditional teaching. Although one theme had only two responses in Section 6.3.4, it was important to present it in its own category for its relevance and importance to this study, as will be discussed later in this chapter. Participant quotations are numbered according to the group, student number, and sequence number. For example, (PPP-2/612) was taken from the PPP group, represents student number 2, and is number 12 in this chapter.

6.3.1 Translation

The most common theme within the control group was the use of mobile phones as a translation tool to aid the learning of new vocabulary. Eleven out of 15 students identified translation as a benefit of using their smartphones. Although there is a difference between looking up the meaning of the word and translating a word, they mean the same in this context. One example of this reported benefit is from PPP-15: *“I can easily translate words to understand the meaning and therefore I can participate and give my opinion on the subject discussed”* (PPP-15/601). Another student found that looking up vocabulary from reading passages using her phone gave her the opportunity to learn how to spell and pronounce the words: *“I can check spelling and how to pronounce words and translate difficult words”* (PPP-6/602). Another student

said that using her smart device was a useful way to search for meanings of difficult words in Arabic, which helped her understand them better: *“It makes it easier for us to translate words and look for answers if the task was difficult to understand”* (PPP-10/603).

When the focus group students were asked if any of their previous English teachers made them use smartphones, three students said that some of their teachers asked them to use their phones to translate words. One student said, *“Yes, a lot of them asked us to use our phones to get the meaning of words in most English classes”* (PPP-1/604). Another student thought that translating new words was the only advantage of using smartphones in the classroom: *“It helps me translate difficult words but other than that I think it is useless”* (PPP-9/605). Another participant agreed that translation was the only benefit of using smartphones in reading classes, and using them for other tasks might cause distraction: *“It has one benefit, which is translating new words. Other than that, it might distract me from paying attention to the teacher”* (PPP-12/606). This last quote about distraction leads to the next theme from this group, which students considered a disadvantage.

6.3.2 Distraction

Some teachers do not allow their students to use their mobile phones in the classroom because they are afraid learners would be distracted (AlTameemy, 2017). In the open-ended questionnaire, students wrote what they thought would happen if they had to use smartphones to learn English. Two students suspected that it might cause distraction from the actual content. A student was quoted in the last section as saying that the only benefit of smartphones was translation (PPP-12/606).

In the focus group, students explored how they would feel if their teacher asked them to perform reading tasks on their smartphones. One participant said that it might be tempting for students to ignore the class and get distracted by other phone apps: *“Some girls might try to use other apps and would forget about the class”* (PPP-2/607). Another student thought that using too many apps on her smartphone might cause her to be confused and lose focus when trying to cope with both what was going on in the class and the device’s applications. She said, *“I think it would distract me and confuse me if we use a lot of websites at the same time”* (PPP-1/608).

Distraction was the only disadvantage students in this group identified. Using smartphones was identified as being useful in delivering knowledge and engaging students in online tasks. Moreover, students identified that it was helpful in examination preparation by practising what they learned with their teachers, as discussed in the next theme.

6.3.3 Access to educational material

Using smartphones to access the Internet means that a variety of language learning material is available to the user (Godwin-Jones, 2017). Four students from the PPP group identified this to be a useful feature of using mobile devices in the classroom. A participant from the focus group remembered one of her previous teachers who sent web links to grammar exercises via students’ phones. That teacher sent the links after class, which the student liked because it was an extra way to study grammar for examinations:

Some teachers used to send us grammar exercises on our phones, but not in the classroom. She would send us links of quizzes and games and we did them at home to prepare for the exams. (PPP-5/609)

Another student agreed: “*Yes, one of our teachers did that before final exams. We liked those exercises from websites. They were interesting and useful*” (PPP-4/610). Three students agreed that smartphones would give them access to educational language materials, but for purposes other than examination preparations:

PPP-5: *It will help us find information from websites ourselves, not just depending on the book.*

PPP-3: *And you will remember the things you worked so hard to find.*

PPP-4: *Yes, I agree, and it is better than ready answers in the book.*

(PPP/611)

Using the Internet through smartphones can give learners access to endless sources of reading materials and educational content. However, participants who identified this feature had no accurate examples of using such educational resources. Two participants, as seen above, recalled some of their previous teachers providing web links to online grammar quizzes to prepare for their final examinations. Nonetheless, this theme is vital to the study because it relates to another theme from Chapter 4, which will be discussed in section 6.7 about motivational challenges. The next theme only has two participants who mentioned feedback as a benefit of smartphones, but it is also important to mention this because feedback was evident in the MTBLT group as well.

6.3.4 Feedback

Only two participants discussed this unique feature of using MTBLT. One example was found in the open-ended questionnaire about using smartphones in the language class. This student referred to using this technology to monitor students’ participation in classroom activities. She thought the teacher could monitor students’ engagement and provide feedback: “*All students must participate and the teacher can know who is*

participating. The teacher can also know how well the students understood the tasks from their answers” (PPP-7/612).

The other student was from the focus group and detected this feature because the researcher asked students to complete the questionnaire online using their smartphones during the class. She noticed that the researcher was monitoring the students online and knew when each student completed the task. PPP-5 said, *“It is going to be easier for the teacher to give feedback and monitor students. Just like the online questionnaire you gave us. You could see who finished doing it and look at the answers” (PPP-5/613).*

Although this theme had only two responses, it was important to present them here to enable comparison with the themes of all three groups, which will be discussed in Section 6.6. It was also intriguing to examine how students acknowledged feedback and monitoring as an advantage of using smartphones in the classroom because of the online questionnaire they received. The final theme about the change of teaching method also had two responses, as this group did not experience MTBLT and thus could have to only make assumptions about it.

6.3.5 Change from traditional teaching

In Chapter 4, students described their classes as “boring” and unappealing, so when they were asked about the use of smartphones in the classroom they thought it would produce a change. Only two participants from the open-ended questionnaire said that using smartphones in the classroom could act as an agent of change as opposed to confirmation of traditional teaching methods. She said, *“It would be a good change to the regular class. It would be interesting I think” (PPP-5/6014).* The other student from the open-ended questionnaire thought using mobile tasks may be related to a short-term

“wow factor”, in addition to finding word definitions. She stated that, “*It is a change from traditional teaching and it helps us in word meanings*” (PPP-12/615).

It was noteworthy to find the themes of translation and distraction emerge from data on the PPP and TBLT groups, but not from the MTBLT group. However, feedback was mentioned twice in that group as a potential benefit of using smartphones in the Saudi classroom. The rest of the students who took part in this study thought that MTBLT was either going to distract them or would offer them a wide range of educational materials to aid their learning and prepare for the examinations.

To conclude this section on the findings from the PPP focus group, most participants thought positively about using smartphones in the classroom. Nonetheless, since they had not previously completed tasks using smartphones, their perceptions of its benefits were limited to using it as a dictionary. Two students thought smartphones might distract from what the teacher was saying, although the same students complained about teacher-centred classrooms earlier in the discussion.

6.4 TBLT group’s perceptions of MTBLT

The TBLT group revealed less interest in MTBLT, as participants were more interested in the way their current teacher taught them. They mentioned having fun activities, group competitions, and quests with their TBLT teacher. Similar to the PPP group, this group thought that using mobile phones in the classroom was a change from traditional teaching methods and would help in translating new vocabulary. They also shared similar beliefs that smartphones would be distracting. Five students volunteered to take part in the focus group, but two had to leave before the start of the discussion for personal reasons. Thus, fewer responses were drawn from this group, compared to five participants in the PPP and MTBLT groups.

6.4.1 Translation

The theme of translation also appeared in this group, with six students considering dictionaries the main benefit of smartphones in the language class:

TBLT-16: *The dictionary is always with you to help you understand.*

TBLT-5: *It is easy to understand words' meanings and other information.*

It is easier to remember words and translate them. (TBLT/616)

One student did not understand how the mobile task-based teaching worked because she thought the only use for the smartphones in the class was to translate words: "*I think it might be interesting if you would try to find ... Do you mean for translation or? I don't know, maybe it has its advantages and disadvantages*" (TBLT-3/617). Students also considered the next theme an advantage, similar to the PPP group as discussed earlier.

6.4.2 Change from traditional teaching

Only two students thought that using smartphones in reading lessons would be a change from their traditional teacher-centred classes. However, their responses are mentioned here because they are an extension to what the PPP group identified in Section 6.3.5. These two responses were generic and did not give any details about how and why smartphones would be different from the usual teaching method:

TBLT-11: *I think it is a change from the usual classroom. It would be more exciting.*

TBLT-1: *It could be a kind of change of the method of teaching. But I think not everyone will like it.* (TBLT/618)

This theme has fewer responses compared to the PPP groups in that only six of 24 students answered the open-ended questionnaire item, and only three participated in the

focus group discussion. However, a few students mentioned distraction as a potential disadvantage to MTBLT, as was the case with the PPP group.

6.4.3 Distraction

When the TBLT focus group was asked about using smartphones in the classroom, one student thought that engaging in smartphone activities would make her lose focus, because she would have to alternate between her device and the textbook, which would make her lose her place:

I don't think it is a good idea to use it, because it will distract me from the lesson. For example, if I have the textbook in front of me and I have to go to my phone to do a task, I think I will lose concentration ... Maybe. (TBLT/619)

Another student had a negative experience with a previous teacher who did not implement mobile tasks effectively, although she did not provide an explanation for this. This incident made her feel distracted and, therefore, useless: *“I think it is distracting. One of our teachers used it with us but I did not benefit from it and I found it hard to understand anything”* (TBLT-1/617). Aside from this disadvantage, the students in this group did not offer any other themes regarding their opinions of MTBLT.

6.5 The MTBLT group's perceptions of MTBLT

The qualitative findings from this group revealed themes that were not evident in the PPP and TBLT groups. This group's participants did not acknowledge using smartphones as translation tools or as changes to the regular classroom as their colleagues from the other groups did. This group experienced the mobile task-based approach and discussed elements of mobile tasks that aided their motivation and the

quality of teaching instruction. The types of tasks used in this group were discussed in detail in Chapter 3, Section 3.4. Each reading lesson consisted of a pre-task, main task, and post-task. Two smartphone applications were used: Socrative and Padlet.

Generally, Socrative was used in the pre- and main tasks and Padlet in the post-task. Socrative is an online tool that enables the teacher to create quizzes (multiple choice, open-ended, and true and false questions) with the option of adding pictures and video clips to each. In that sense, Socrative is more controlled than Padlet and limits the students to what appears on the app without providing the option to connect with others or view each other's work. Two main features from Socrative were of importance to this study. The first was the instant feedback that students received after they finished each task and the entire activity. For instance, if a student got one question incorrect, an explanation appeared with the correct answer, and the total score was shown after finishing the quiz. The second feature was the Rocket Race, in which the teacher turned the quiz into a competition between groups of students who would race each other to complete the task.

The Padlet app was used for the post-task phase because it was suitable for creative and collaborative tasks. Padlet is an interactive online whiteboard, on which students can write, paste, and post pictures and other online resources for the class to view. Two types of tasks were designed using Padlet: a virtual scavenger hunt and a story completion task. The virtual scavenger hunt asked students to view the provided web links to gather information about certain topics and post them on the board. The story completion task provided the first part of a story, and asked the students to collaboratively write a suitable ending. All students could view and comment on each other's work.

The following sections present the themes that the MTBLT group identified when completing the tasks on Socrative and Padlet. The first theme referred to the use

of motivating tasks on their smartphones which encouraged them to engage in different reading activities. The second theme was the sense of independence they experienced by accessing different stories on the Internet. The third theme was the feedback offered by the mobile applications used to design the tasks. The last theme was retention, as students remembered the vocabulary and grammar rules using mobile tasks. Although there was little evidence of feedback and retention themes from the qualitative data, those themes are presented below for their relevance to other mobile task features, which are discussed later in section 6.6.

6.5.1 Motivating tasks

Previously, participants from the PPP and TBLT groups mainly described smartphone tasks as a “change” to the usual teaching classroom. However, this group used the adjectives “fun” and “motivating” and “a change” to describe the tasks they experienced in the reading lessons. This theme of motivating tasks included what students said about how smartphone tasks influenced their attention, participation, and interaction in their learning experience. It also included intrinsic motivation, with some students not caring about grades and completing tasks for enjoyment only. Some generic answers from the open-ended questionnaire were very short: “*It was very fun and motivating and made me learn faster*” (MTBLT-10/625); “*It is very colourful. It is motivating and exciting*” (MTBLT-18/626); and “*It added excitement in the classroom, and it also made the students eager to participate*” (MTBLT-19/627). One student from the focus group said the tasks made her pay attention and feel entertained while engaging in the smartphone tasks: “*I liked the mobile tasks. They were interesting. I liked them so much. I was alert and excited in the classroom*” (MTBLT-2/628).

Other students thought that the tasks were more motivating and exciting when competition was involved. One participant said, *“There is a sense of competition between the students over who will get the right answer, and it is far from traditional learning”* (MTBLT-15/629). Another student commented on the tasks done in the Socrative app by stating, *“I liked the quizzes in Socrative. I felt I was in a challenge. I want to win and be number one. Competition gets you involved and doing more”* (MTBLT-3/630). One student remembered how the rest of the class was excited to compete in the Socrative race: *“Tasks are various and there is competition and excitement among the students to participate in the class”* (MTBLT-17/631).

Furthermore, three participants discussed how they felt about previous traditional English classes. They stated that mobile tasks motivated them so much that they forgot they were in a classroom:

MTBLT-2: *I liked the scavenger hunt because it seemed to have nothing to do with the boring textbook.*

MTBLT-5: *Yes. It did not feel it was like a classroom.*

MTBLT-2: *I did not feel like I was forced to do things. I did not have to just listen to the teacher. I was concentrating on the tasks and what was written there. I was doing, not just listening.*

MTBLT-1: *It was enjoyable doing tasks with my group. We had fun and learned a lot. I don't think having fun is wrong in learning. Learning should be fun.*

(MTBLT/624)

Additionally, two students discussed how they used to make an effort for the sake of getting good grades, but mobile tasks were so enjoyable that they did not focus on grades:

MTBLT-4: *We got used to doing things for grades. Now it feels different doing it for fun, for myself in the class.*

MTBLT-1: *If there was grading in those tasks it would be nice, but it was good without it too.* (MTBLT/632)

Moreover, when the focus group participants were asked how MTBLT influenced their participation, one said that because she did not have to speak, she participated by writing instead:

For me, I know I have a problem in speaking. I am not very good, so I liked writing and choosing the answers instead. It is better for me. I do not like speaking in front of the class. (MTBLT-3/633)

Finally, another intriguing reason why two students from the MTBLT group were pleased with their English class experience was that their teacher trusted them. That trust led them to be more confident in the classroom:

MTBLT-2: *I did not have the confidence but now I can speak and improved myself. I started to teach my young brothers and sisters at home.*

Researcher: *Do you think MTBLT helped you?*

MTBLT-2: *Yes. In level 3 our teacher used to take our phones from us and put them in a box in front of her. We did not like that. Now we feel safe and trusted.* (MTBLT-2/634)

This reason might not be related to MTBLT itself, but rather connected with teacher strategies; however, it was a noteworthy addition to the reasons that students might not feel comfortable and motivated to take active roles in the English classroom.

In summary, MTBLT participants identified several aspects of mobile tasks which impacted their motivation and engagement in reading classes. The first was that the fun activities were unlike what they encountered in the textbooks. The second factor was the stimulating reading materials from different websites through their smartphones. The third element was the ability to participate through writing instead of speaking in front of the class. The fourth was the competitive nature of some of the

mobile tasks, like the one in the Socrative app. The following section presents another feature, that of independent learning, which participants of the MTBLT group identified as influential.

6.5.2 Independent learning

One feature of using smartphones that attracted two students was using the Padlet app to search for information and become more independent. One student commented on the scavenger hunt game the class performed at the end of one reading lesson: *“I liked the scavenger hunt as well because it lets you find information in websites. It is like you are searching for knowledge. You help yourself in finding answers”* (MTBLT-1/620).

Another student also mentioned looking for answers independently: *“I look for the answers myself”* (MTBLT-14/621).

However, these two were the only comments about using smartphones in the classroom. The other two students referred to independent learning outside the classroom: *“It teaches you to use your phone to learn by yourself. When I am bored I have my phone to educate myself and read”* (MTBLT-3/622) and *“It is difficult to have everything in the phone. Tasks and websites that will help us improve and rely on ourselves is a good idea”* (MTBLT-4/623).

Nonetheless, the fact that they acknowledged this feature of independent learning indicated how some students in this group appreciated this powerful potential in the educational setting. The next section presents the theme of feedback, which the MTBLT group identified.

6.5.3 Feedback

Feedback was evident from the PPP group's data presented in Section 6.2.4. It was also identified as a benefit of using smartphones to aid language learning in the classroom. Although only three participants identified this theme, it is important to present it here as a feature of mobile tasks that supports one of the arguments of SDT, which will be discussed in Section 6.6.

When the students were asked about what elements they appreciated in the apps they used in their reading class, they agreed that instant feedback on answers was a great feature. The Socrative app had a feature where the correction appears after the student chose the answer. The first participant stated on the open-ended questionnaire that she liked receiving the correct answers to the questions from the Socrative app: "*I like that it tells me if I got the correct answer immediately*" (MTBLT-14/636). The second participant from the focus group thought that getting immediate feedback made her focus on the mistakes she made during the task. She said, "*I liked Socrative because you can get your feedback instantly and it shows you what you got wrong. I can focus on my mistakes then*" (MTBLT-3/637).

The last participant referred to another form of feedback, which was the auto-correction feature implemented on most smartphones. This feature allows the user to identify spelling mistakes and offers suggestions on how to correct them in a convenient way. MTBLT-11 stated on the open-ended questionnaire that she appreciated auto correction and feedback: "*Our time is not wasted. There is auto correction and accurate and fast feedback*" (MTBLT-11/635). This theme is important to this study because it was identified by the PPP group as well, and while there was no sufficient evidence for this feature, it could be a suggestion for future research. This study's last theme presents data on how mobile tasks aided students' retention of newly learnt information.

6.5.4 Retention

The focus group students were asked about the difference between the reading class that used smartphone tasks and other classes. All the focus group participants agreed that the MTBLT classes were better because mobile tasks enhanced their vocabulary retention.

Two students stated that what they learned from mobile tasks lingered in their memory:

MTBLT-2: *It matters. The information lingers in our minds when we use phones, I think.*

MTBLT-4: *I agree. I remember things more when using my phone.*

(MTBLT/638)

The third and last participant said that she remembered vocabulary and grammar that she learned using smartphone tasks by saying, “*I really benefited from mobile tasks. I remember grammar and vocabulary better*” (MTBLT-3/640).

Although only three participants acknowledged the retention aspect of mobile learning, it is an important theme to this study and was therefore presented in the qualitative data to further understand how mobile tasks enhanced students’ motivation and aided their learning progress. This theme was similar to feedback from Section 6.5.3, in which the qualitative data were not supported by any quantitative data. This theme emerged from the focus group discussion and was not planned by the researcher when designing the data source’s questions.

In summary of the qualitative data sections, the data from the open-ended questionnaire and the focus groups revealed similar themes from the PPP and TBLT group, whereas the MTBLT group disclosed more elaborate themes. The PPP and TBLT groups showed little knowledge of how smartphones could be used in academic and formal learning situations. They found translation to be the most effective feature to aid their language learning. A few students revealed that their previous teachers did not use mobile tasks in the classroom, but they used to send them web links to practise

grammar and vocabulary before formal examinations. The students also thought that using smartphones in the classroom could be a source of distraction. On the other hand, the MTBLT group did not identify translation or distraction as traits of mobile tasks. Instead, this group expressed how motivating the mobile tasks were and that their learning experience was better than their traditional classes through the use of instant feedback, collaborative work, independent learning, and vocabulary retention. The following section discusses the findings in light of the research literature and the motivation theory of SDT.

6.6 Discussion and answer to RQ3

The previous sections presented quantitative data from a closed-ended questionnaire items and qualitative data from a closed-ended questionnaire item and focus groups discussion. This chapter presents findings that answer the third research question: *How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?* The majority of the participants were in favour of using smartphones to aid their L2 learning in the classroom. However, participants from the PPP and TBLT groups showed little knowledge of the nature of mobile tasks and their effects on motivation. They also identified engaging with mobile tasks during lessons to be a source of distraction from classroom learning. Conversely, MTBLT students highly favoured this method for enhancing classroom engagement, retaining new vocabulary, and gaining independence from the teacher. This section will discuss the findings to understand possible explanations for student responses and relate them to the findings of other studies and SDT.

The analysis of the questionnaire and focus groups revealed that the majority of students held positive attitudes towards using smartphones in the language classroom.

In the closed-ended questionnaire, all MTBLT group participants strongly agreed that mobile tasks were a fun way to learn. On the other hand, the TBLT group had mixed opinions, and the PPP group was mostly in favour of this method of teaching, with 4% against it. This was also evident in the fourth questionnaire item about learning better with technology, to which 87% of the MTBLT group, 72% of the TBLT group, and 71% of the PPP group agreed. Furthermore, the MTBLT held strong positive opinions of mobile tasks, while the other groups used a mix of “agree” and “I do not know” in their responses.

Students’ perceptions were usually highly in favour of using technology in the language classes in the Saudi context (Al-Fahad, 2009; Khristat & Mahmoud, 2013; Alamer, 2015; Elfeky & Masadeh, 2016; Hazaea & Alzubi, 2016; Nalliveetil & Alenazi, 2016; Taj et al., 2017). However, the participants in this study who did not experience this method of teaching (PPP and TBLT groups) showed little or no knowledge of how smartphone tasks could assist their motivation and learning experience beyond translating words. This was due to the limited number of teachers who used mobile tasks in their classes and thus suggests a need to train teachers to employ this technique. Qualitative data from the PPP and TBLT focus groups showed that translating new words, accessing educational materials, and changing from the traditional classroom were benefits of using mobile tasks in their language course.

This finding was in line with a study by Childs et al. (2005), which was conducted on health professionals and students, but not in the context of language learning. They found that although participants felt positively about using mobile phones for academic purposes, they were unaware of how this technology could be harnessed to assess their learning. Moreover, AlTameemy (2017) studied 85 students from different Saudi universities to investigate their perceptions and phone usage in classrooms. Although the findings revealed highly positive attitudes and moderate

mobile usage, only 24 participants used academic mobile applications like Edmodo. Furthermore, the participants were unaware of the difference between academic and personal use of smartphones, partly because teachers did not use or encourage student use of phones in class. Khrisat and Mahmoud (2013) reported that the majority of students used smartphones for social and entertainment purposes, and not for academic and educational practices and this is also evident in the case of the participants in this study. The following sections discuss five elements of mobile tasks that were identified by the participants of all groups.

6.6.1 Access to educational materials

Only three students from the PPP group identified a positive feature of using smartphones to aid language learning, which was access to educational materials through the Internet. PPP-5 recalled one of her previous teachers who used to send the class web links to practise grammar and vocabulary in preparation for exams (PPP-5/609). PPP-4 also remembered a teacher who sent links to her students before formal tests (PPP-4/610). However, sending web links for various language websites occurred outside the classroom, and was treated as revision material, not classroom tasks. In the context of this study, this type of smartphone use was considered a disadvantage rather than an advantage for two main reasons. First, it emphasised test-driven instruction in Arabian classrooms that is geared toward preparing students for formal examinations (Mustafa, 2002). This is an important demotivational factor that leads learners to acquire the bare minimum of language skills just to pass the English courses (O'Sullivan, 2004). Second, because the web links provided students with grammatical drills only, students shifted their energy and focus from practising the language to memorising vocabulary and grammar rules (Zaid, 2011).

6.6.2 Source of distraction

Three students in the PPP group and two from the TBLT group identified distraction from the classroom as a potential disadvantage of engaging in mobile-based activities. Students in those groups assumed that participating in mobile tasks might distract them and tempt them to use their devices for other purposes. Using mobile phones in the classroom could be a source of distraction for students if not implemented properly and monitored closely by the teacher. This finding is consistent with the work of Sana, Weston and Cepeda (2013), whose participants thought that multitasking in the classroom with portable devices was a source of distraction. However, students from the MTBLT group did not report getting distracted during the reading tasks, but rather felt excited and motivated. This is probably because there was nothing to be distracted from, as the reading lesson activity was on the smartphone.

6.6.3 Translation

Translation was one potential use of mobile phones in the language classroom, according to the PPP and TBLT qualitative data. Translation, as referred to by the participants, is a method of vocabulary acquisition. Some teachers encourage their students to translate new words into their L1 through the use of dictionaries or other applications on mobile devices. This use of mobile devices is important for language students because it aids their learning independently of the teacher (Rosell-Aguilar, 2017). While this use should not be underestimated, it is important to look beyond the simple features that this technology offers and harvest more of its potential for students' long-term learning and motivation. Students who reported this feature had no prior experience with other usage of smartphones in the classroom. One student from the

TBLT group could not even envision other uses for smartphones in English classrooms and preferred not to elaborate on the subject (TBLT-3/617).

Twelve participants from the PPP group and six from the TBLT group identified translation as the most useful feature of mobile phones in the classroom. This is similar to a study by Rosell-Aguilar (2016), which found that the majority of Spanish participants used their smart devices to translate, find word meanings, and practise grammar rules. Another study, conducted in Saudi Arabia by Nalliveetil and Alenazi (2016), had 52 Saudi undergraduates take a self-reported questionnaire about their use of smartphones in their English language course. However, the students did not use mobile tasks and no experiment was conducted. The results revealed that 88% of the participants found mobile phones useful in translating English vocabulary to Arabic, and 83% used it to translate Arabic words to English. Furthermore, a study on the use of mobile phones in a Saudi university revealed that the majority of participants regularly used offline dictionaries and online translation services like Google Translate to aid their learning (Hazaea & Alzubi, 2016).

Remarkably, the use of smartphones to translate words did not emerge from the MTBLT group's qualitative data. This might be because students used their phones to perform specific tasks, or because they treated this feature as a given advantage and were more interested in the motivational aspect of technology-enhanced tasks.

6.6.4 Stimulating activities

A major theme identified by the MTBLT group was the motivating activities. This theme was an elaborated version of the PPP and TBLT groups' view of mobile tasks as a change from the traditional classroom. On the closed-ended questionnaire, 100% of MTBLT participants strongly agreed that the mobile tasks were a "fun" way to learn,

whereas 88% of the PPP group both agreed and strongly agreed, and only 64% of the TBLT agreed and strongly agreed. This shows that students' perceptions of mobile tasks differed among students who used them and students who did not. A respondent stated that she was motivated through the various activities using her phone (MTBLT-2/628). Another student revealed that the mobile tasks motivated her to learn and stay attentive in the classroom (MTBLT-2/628). Students were motivated to learn through the task for various reasons, some of which were not based on the features of the mobile applications alone. This is a crucial argument in that other elements could have impacted motivation, like the use of task-based teaching and motivational strategies that were purposely integrated into the design of the mobile activities.

Attempting to define "fun" and "interesting" proved challenging because there were various factors to consider in this study's mobile tasks. Some of these motivating components could be assigned to the nature of task-based instruction, elements of motivating tasks, and conditions that enhance self-determination. Lepper and Malone (1987) studied the components of what learners perceived as fun and motivating and proposed six elements: competition, curiosity, challenge, cooperation, control, and recognition. Participants in this current study identified elements of competition, control and challenge in the mobile tasks. Another aspect of the TBLT is the focus on meaning and learners' involvement (Nunan, 2004). Some of these elements could be linked to the mobile tasks that motivated students. This could also connect to the SDT condition, where students need to connect to their peers to feel motivated (Deci & Ryan, 1987). The end of this section will discuss motivational theories in detail.

One element that was evident from the focus group data was competition, a feature of the Socrative app that allowed students to race each other to finish a task. MTBLT-3 related her excitement at the sense of competition while racing to be the first to complete the task (MTBLT-3/630). Another student from the open-ended

questionnaire also reported her motivation to participate and compete with her peers during the Socratic activity (MTBLT-17/631). Data from the PPP focus group in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.1 revealed that PPP-5 acknowledged the impact of group work in a competitive atmosphere on her motivation, without using smartphones:

Yes, I remember one time the teacher put us into groups and we challenged each other to make a list of all the vocabulary we learned that week. It was very interesting and made us all enjoy the class and remember some of the words when they came in the exam. (PPP-5/417)

The second element of the motivating mobile tasks that was drawn from the MTBLT focus group data was collaborative work. MTBLT-1 reported that working in a group motivated her to complete the tasks (MTBLT-1/624). Unfortunately, there was not enough evidence from the focus group to support this element, and it will be discussed in the limitations section of the next chapter. However, data from Chapter 4, Section 4.2 revealed that 79% of participants preferred working in groups or pairs as opposed to working individually. The third aspect of motivation during mobile tasks elicited from the MTBLT focus group findings was related to different learning styles. Some students refrained from classroom participation because they were not confident enough speaking in front of others. MTBLT-3 reported that she participated by writing her answers instead of speaking, which resulted in feeling less anxious and more motivated to participate. MTBLT-2 experienced a similar confidence in engaging in the tasks that did not require public speaking, which allowed her to improve her skills and practice more speaking (MTBLT-2/634).

6.6.5 Receiving feedback

Another motivating element of the tasks was that students received immediate feedback. The sixth closed-ended questionnaire item showed that 88% of the students in the PPP group strongly agreed that feedback would be an important aspect of mobile tasks, while 65% of the MTBLT group strongly agreed. This is noteworthy because two PPP focus group participants only received this questionnaire on their phones in their final class. Students might have not acknowledged this feature if the researcher had not informed them that she was monitoring their completion through her phone. PPP-5 stated that, *“It is going to be easier for the teacher to give feedback and monitor students, just like the online questionnaire you gave us. You could see who finished doing it and look at the answers”* (PPP-5/613).

The nature of the Socrative app allowed the teacher to add feedback to the tasks she set. For example, if the task was a multiple choice, the app told students if their answer was correct or incorrect. If it was incorrect, a message explained the correct answer. After completing the task, the students received an instant report on how well they had performed and on their total score. MTBLT-3 reported that she found this feature of the app very useful for learning from her mistakes (MTBLT-3/637). Padlet provided another form of feedback, in which one student typed something on the Padlet board and other students commented or worked on it together while the teacher monitored.

The MTBLT participants did not discuss this Padlet feature, so it requires further investigation. However, data from the questionnaire in Chapter 4, Section 4.2 revealed that 75% of participants agreed that they enjoyed reading their colleagues' answers during and after reading tasks. Students received feedback from different sources, like their peers, teachers, or other communities usually accessed through social media and the Internet (Akbari, Pilot, & Simons, 2015). In relatively large classes, it is

difficult to provide feedback after tasks that require production from each student. That could be one of the reasons why MTBLT students identified feedback as a unique feature of mobile tasks. In this study, students in the MTBLT group received instant feedback on their work using the Socrative app, and feedback from their peers in the Padlet app. Receiving immediate feedback can provide motivation for students who are not satisfied with traditional teaching methods (Valk, Rashid, & Elder, 2010). Ciampa (2014) conducted a study using several smartphone apps with sixth grade students in Canada to assess motivation. The findings were similar to those of Lepper & Malone (1987), in which students' motivation was enhanced through enforcing elements of challenge, curiosity, control, recognition, competition, and cooperation.

Receiving feedback is an important element in learners' competence; it relates to the psychological need to be motivated and self-determined (Deci et al., 1991). Getting positive feedback on work allows students to develop an increased sense of language skills competence and a motivation to learn. Jones et al. (2009) conducted an experiment on undergraduate students on a Spanish course by creating motivating tasks informed by the needs suggested by Deci and Ryan (1985). The tasks supported students' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness. The findings revealed that students found the activities to be intrinsically motivating and overall enjoyable. In this current study, the MTBLT focus group participants acknowledged aspects of autonomy like the choice of websites to scan in the online scavenger hunt, and aspects of relatedness where students expressed their appreciation in reading the other classmates' work in Padlet.

Elements like feedback and cooperative work are linked to the concept of recognition and relatedness in motivational theories. Recognition is an important factor in motivation; it involves students' work being recognised and read by their peers and teachers (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Lepper & Malone, 1987). It also relates to the STD

concept of relatedness, in which students can connect with others and feel appreciated and secure. The motivation of the mobile apps for the MTBLT group may have related to collaboration, assertion of different learning styles, or a sense of competition, but this study's data did not provide enough qualitative evidence to support a firm conclusion in this respect. Further research is needed to identify what students perceived to motivate them, a limitation that will be addressed in the next chapter.

The next section on motivational issues and mobile tasks discusses themes drawn from the MTBLT qualitative data, as well as findings from Chapter 4 in light of this chapter, in an attempt to understand how the use of mobile tasks affected students' motivation and contributed to the challenges faced in the traditional classroom.

6.7 Motivational issues and mobile tasks

This section combines the findings of the first research question about motivational issues in the reading classroom with the third research question about students' perceptions of the use of mobile tasks, because this study investigates the effects of mobile tasks on students' motivational perceptions and behaviour. The challenges that were presented in Chapter 4 will be discussed together with findings of this chapter in light of SDT as part of the triangulation of findings (Creswell & Clark, 2011) to answer the research questions. Chapter 4 presented the data revealing motivational issues, and this Chapter presented aspects of mobile tasks that affected the participants' motivation. Hence, a comparison between the two sets of findings should be made to further understand how mobile tasks could be utilized to enhance language learning.

Chapter 4 revealed that although the participants held positive attitudes towards learning English, there were some challenges that hindered their motivation in the reading classroom. One of those challenges was that students were motivated to take part in classroom activities for the sake of getting grades to help them pass course

examinations. Statements like, “*Yes if it had marks*” (PPP/431) and, “*Grades come first, then learning the language!*” (TBLT/436) showed that the strongest motivation for students to participate was passing the language course. The discussion in Section 4.5 explained why this motive was common amongst Saudi students and why it was considered a classroom obstacle in the study. Saudi students are required to pass English courses in order to progress academically, but they have few if any opportunities to use the language outside the classroom. This leads students to study English for the purely instrumental reason of graduating from school or university. Furthermore, teachers usually adapt to this fact by adopting knowledge-delivery and test-driven approaches to language teaching (Mustafa, 2002; O’Sullivan, 2004; Maherzi, 2011; Shah et al., 2013; AL-Seghayer, 2014).

Findings from this chapter identified that although the majority of students in the PPP group favoured using mobile tasks, three participants were in favour of using them because they could practise for final examinations. PPP-4 stated that a previous teacher used to send them web links for language exercises so they could prepare for their tests: “*Yes, one of our teachers did that before final exams. We liked those exercises from websites. They were interesting and useful*” (PPP-4/610). This indicated that students’ understood mobile devices as tools for academic achievement alone, not for developing language proficiency.

However, evidence from the MTBLT focus group data showed that because the mobile tasks were perceived as “*motivating*”, two participants found that it gave them a motive to participate even though they were not graded. MTBLT-4 stated that she felt differently about engaging in stimulating activities with the knowledge that they would not add to her academic achievement: “*We got used to do things for grades. Now it feels different doing it for fun, for myself in the class*” (MTBLT-4/632). MTBLT-1 also admitted that she used to be motivated by getting good grades, but mobile tasks

encouraged her to enjoy the learning process and put effort into her learning: “If there was grading in those tasks it would be nice, but it would be good without it too” (MTBLT-1/437).

Section 6.6 discusses the influence of motivating tasks on students’ attitudes and behaviours. Another factor that influenced motivation was the nature of the teacher-centred classroom, where the teacher was in full control and students were passive learners who felt like “machines” taking commands from the teacher (PPP-1/410, TBLT-3/413). Furthermore, 85% of the 72 participants agreed that having a choice in what they were learning could have encouraged them to participate more in the classroom.

In general, Saudi students are well adapted to focusing on knowledge and teacher-dominant instruction which rely heavily on fixed textbooks and curricular activities (Al Asmari, 2013; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Shehdeh, 2012; Tawalbeh & AlAsmari, 2015). Furthermore, most teachers in Saudi classrooms do not promote autonomous learning with their students, and are afraid to do so because they feel obligated to prepare students for examinations. Therefore, students do not usually take active roles in the classrooms. According to Moskovsky and Alrabai (2009), students who appreciate language learning commit to practising. Farahani (2014) revealed that data from Iranian EFL learners showed inconsistency between students’ positive attitudes towards English and their volunteering and putting effort into learning. He stated that one reason for this conflict could be students’ reliance on the teacher for delivering and “spoon-feeding” information. These findings were similar to those of Alrabai (2017a), who concluded that the majority of his Saudi EFL participants reported high levels of perceived motivation, but showed little responsibility and involvement in the lesson activities and high levels of dependency on their teachers ($M= 2.77$, $SD= .91$).

On the other hand, students from the MTBLT group felt very motivated when they used their smartphones to engage in different reading activities, like the Socrative race and Padlet scavenger hunt. One reason was because they felt a sense of control over their learning. Students in the TBLT group were motivated as well, according to observation, but the focus group data did not provide sufficient reports about their learning experience. However, a study conducted by Hakim (2015) of female students in King Abdulaziz University, the same context as this study, experimented with the use of task-based language teaching to identify changes in students' motivation and performances. The results showed that students' motivation to learn increased, and learners valued implementation of approaches that leaned towards student-centred instruction, and were not in favour of the passive nature of some methods of teaching. Participants in that study preferred the tasks that were not "conventional", or different from what they were used to encountering in their textbooks. Nonetheless, the next chapter will discuss the insufficient insights from the TBLT group as a limitation to this study.

Although this study's participants did not have full control over what they wanted to learn, giving them a choice of what to do and providing them with different means for independence had a huge influence on their perceptions and behaviours. An example of this was the Padlet activity, in which students were provided with a short story and asked to write a suitable ending. MTBLT-14 felt a connection to the task because she had to make her own choices to tackle the challenges (MTBLT-14/621). Furthermore, MTBLT-1 enjoyed the scavenger hunt activities that allowed her to browse different websites to find clues that would help her finish the task (MTBLT-1/620). The sense of autonomy made MTBLT-4 feel more confident and independent (MTBLT-4/623). Lastly, it was evident from the questionnaire data in Chapter 4,

Section 4.2 that 85% of participants preferred having a choice of material in reading lessons.

The concept of control is an important pillar in intrinsic motivation and relates to the need for autonomy, the first condition to enhancing intrinsic motivation according to SDT. Giving students a choice promotes their independence and increases the level of engagement with tasks (Ciampa, 2014; Deci & Ryan, 1985, Turner, 1995). In this study, students were given a choice of how to end a story, and what web sites to visit in a scavenger hunt. Competence is the second condition that enhances self-determination, because students need to have a sense of belonging in their learning communities and collaborate with others to connect and feel recognised (Kennedy, 2007). According to Godwin-Jones (2017), connecting to the digital world through the Internet and smart devices can enable learners to relate to local and global events, which are full of educational opportunities. Although the mobile tasks used for this study did not connect the participants to a global community, they provided them with global stories and a classroom community. The online scavenger hunt provided the learners with websites about global events at that time (such as the Zika virus), and the story ending activity allowed students to view and comment on their peers' work on Padlet. The third condition in SDT is the competence that students build when activities are challenging, provide constructive feedback, and are appropriate for their capacities and skills (Deci & Ryan, 2002).

Another motivational issue from the focus group data in Chapter 4, Section 4.4.3 was the lack of confidence to participate and volunteer in classroom activities. According to the closed-ended questionnaire, 84% of the TBLT group and 78% of the MTBLT group did not participate because they were afraid to be embarrassed in front of the class, while 58% of the PPP group disagreed with this statement. One reason for this was fear of public speaking in general. MTBLT-5 reported that she did not feel

comfortable speaking in front of the class, even when using her first language (MTBLT-5/428). Another possible reason for this lack of confidence was the fear of being judged for showing little competence in English. PPP-1 stated that she did not participate or volunteer because she did not want to embarrass herself if she made a mistake (PPP-1/427).

Participating through the mobile apps created an opportunity for shy students by providing other means of communication, through making choices in the Socrative app or writing their answers in the Padlet app. In a traditional Saudi EFL reading class, students are asked to read a passage or article and answer a few comprehension questions about the topic. The teacher then asks them to share their answers with the rest of the class. This observation was drawn from the researcher's own experience working with Saudi EFL learners and the observations of Al-Qahtani (2016).

Students in this study who lacked confidence would not take part in classroom activities that required speaking, even though they had written their answers, because they did not wish to speak in front of their peers. Writing their answers in Padlet spared them the fear of public speaking, but their answers were still available for the teacher and the class to read and comment on. The mobile application provided an alternative for shy students to participate in learning activities and become more vocal, as evident from the work of Pellettieri (2000) and Braine (2004). They stated that there are similarities between text-based communication via technology and face-to-face interaction. They suggest that the use of written language to communicate is not viewed as a writing activity, but rather speaking through text. This gives the students an alternative to speaking in order to engage in tasks they usually might avoid.

A study by Akbari et al. (2015) examined 40 Iranian PhD students' use of Facebook to investigate how social applications could impact autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Although social media is a different area to this study, it is presented

here to support the usefulness of text communication to aid shy students. The participants faced challenges in learning English on their own, and were shy about speaking in English. Half the participants joined face-to-face meetings, while the other half used Facebook to learn. The experimental group scored higher in achievement and intrinsic motivation than the control group did. The social interaction with the community promoted the participants' sense of relatedness and provided opportunities for shy students to communicate. Furthermore, the feeling of competence was evident from online collaboration and peer feedback. Autonomy was the weakest aspect among the participants, but nonetheless was evident from the sense of dependency they felt while taking their learning seriously.

Communicating through smartphones does not necessarily undermine speaking in the classroom. Communicating through technology is merely an advantage for shy students, allowing these students to communicate and build the competence and confidence to participate, as in the case of two MTBLT participants. One said that using mobile tasks made her participate more through writing (MTBLT-3/633), and another thought that writing the answers in Socrative and reading her colleagues' answers in Padlet improved her speaking and communication skills (MTBLT-2/634).

Finally, Chapter 4, Section 4.7 discussed how studying English for the sake of getting good grades was not a motivational challenge on its own and should not be addressed as such. Passing an English course is a valid motive for school and university students, since they did not enrol in those courses voluntarily. The researcher recognised the importance of preparing for examinations and designed tasks in such a way that they did not differ greatly from those the students were accustomed to. The pre- and main tasks were designed according to the textbook, but the post-tasks were slightly different to prepare students for their examinations as well. Changing the method of teaching to be more student-centred and autonomous is best if applied

gradually, especially if students are adapted to teacher-centred and content delivery methods (Moskovsky & Alrabai, 2009). The lack of motivation among most EFL Saudi learners is complicated and requires more than a change of teaching methods or use of technology (Alrabai, 2016). This study does not aim to investigate the role of the teacher and the student, but to explore how mobile tasks could make students more motivated and active in the classroom.

To conclude, the findings of Chapters 4 and 6 revealed that using a mobile task-based approach informed by the conditions of SDT positively impacted students' perceptions and motivational behaviour. The majority of students in all groups (99%) agreed that they wanted to get good grades, and 8 participants from the focus groups were not motivated to engage in learning activities because there was no immediate reward for performing them (grades). On the other hand, students from the TBLT and MTBLT groups were more motivated to be active in the classroom when tasks invoked their sense of autonomy, relatedness, and competence.

6.8 Summary

This chapter answered the third research question: *How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?* The data from the questionnaire and focus groups provided evidence that students in all groups felt positively towards the use of smartphones in the language classroom. Eighty-three per cent of the 72 participants perceived mobile tasks as stimulating approaches to learning English in the reading classroom.

Furthermore, evidence from the MTBLT group explained some of the elements that enhanced their motivation and increased their engagement in the classroom. One important feature of the mobile tasks identified by the MTBLT group was the

implementation of a competitive atmosphere, collaborative effort, recognition of their work, supporting their learning styles, and the sense of autonomy.

Finally, the findings of this chapter are summed up as follows:

1- The majority of students in all groups held positive attitudes toward using smartphones to aid language learning in the classroom.

2- Participants who did not use mobile tasks (PPP and TBLT groups) did not understand the potentiality and complexity of mobile tasks and how this method could enhance their motivation and learning.

3- Students who experimented with mobile tasks (MTBLT group) were motivated in the reading course for various reasons, for example engaging in tasks and participating without speaking in front of the class.

4- Smartphone tasks designed and informed by motivation theories like SDT enhanced students' attitudes and motivational behaviour through autonomy, relatedness, and competence.

5- Motivational issues that the Saudi students encountered could be reduced by the careful application of smartphone apps that are informed by motivational theories and teaching methods.

The next and final chapter provides an overall conclusion for the three research questions. Limitations will be highlighted, and suggestions for future research will be discussed. Finally, implications for EFL practice and future research will be identified.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

7.1 Introduction

Although English is considered a foreign language in Saudi Arabia, its importance for the development of the country is widely recognised by educators and policymakers (Alrabai, 2016; Al-Shammari, 2007; Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). The Ministry of Education introduced compulsory English language courses from the fourth grade in schools until the first year of university in the entire Kingdom. However, one of the primary concerns of teachers and researchers was the low motivation levels that have led to low language proficiency amongst Saudi graduates (Ahmad et al., 2017). This lack of motivation was attributed to a number of factors related to pedagogy, the curriculum, and students' beliefs (Al-Seghayer, 2014). Students attend the compulsory courses with positive attitudes towards learning the language, but most of them do not put effort into their learning as they rely on the teacher to deliver knowledge and refrain from taking an active role in the classroom (Alrabai, 2017a; Hamouda, 2012; Mohammed, 2015; Sarhandi et al., 2017).

In order to encourage students to take part in the classroom activities and develop their motivation in the classroom, researchers have started to investigate the effects of mobile devices on learners' motivation (Alm, 2006; Chen & Brown, 2012; Sarhandi et al., 2017; Ushida, 2005; Ushioda, 2013). However, few empirical studies have examined students' motivational behaviour with the use of mobile tasks in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, this study investigated the impact of mobile tasks informed by motivational theory (SDT) in reading classes. The classroom observation found significant differences in participation, attention, and volunteering between the experimental and control groups. Furthermore, the mobile task group performed

significantly better than the control group in the reading comprehension test. Other findings uncovered some of the aspects of mobile tasks that appealed to the students and explained why they were more motivated and engaged with the mobile reading tasks.

The findings of this study could encourage more use of mobile tasks in the Saudi context by teachers who want to aid students' learning experience. In the context of KAU, the researcher aims to continue the use of mobile tasks in her classes and support the ELI in designing and implementing their use in both female and male campuses. This could also go beyond KAU and can be extended to every educational institute in Saudi Arabia, so students of all ages could develop autonomy and increase their motivation to learn. Moreover, teacher-training programmes in various institutions should be updated to equip their teachers with opportunities to learn and integrate the use of smartphone tasks in their lesson plans. Finally, policy makers all over the world should also exploit the use of mobile tasks in the educational system to cater for students' learning styles and provide authentic materials for their institutions. The following sections provide more details on the main findings of this study, its limitations, and implications for research and practice.

7.2 The aims and main findings of the study

The study aimed to answer the following questions:

RQ 1- What are the motivational challenges that female Saudi EFL students encounter with their current teaching method in the reading classroom?

RQ 2- In what ways does the use of mobile tasks affect female Saudi EFL learners' motivation?

RQ 3- How do female Saudi students perceive the educational value of mobile tasks in EFL classrooms?

For the first research question, the aim was to uncover some of the motivational issues that faced the learners in their current classroom instruction. The findings showed that students were faced with four main challenges that affected their motivation in the language classroom. The first concern was the nature of the classroom, where the teacher is mostly dominant (delivering information) and the students are mostly passive (receiving information). The students used the word ‘machine’ to describe themselves while they wait for the teacher to tell them what to do and what to ‘memorise’. The findings of Alrabai (2017a) also revealed that Saudi students are heavily dependent on the teacher to the extent that they become passive and do not take responsibility for their learning. This issue is also linked to the second one, which is the nature of the grade-driven instruction. Students who study English as a university requirement are mainly interested in getting good grades, or as Mohammed (2015) phrased it: “To Saudi students, examination is not a means to an end but an end itself” (p.203).

The third issue was the lack of interest in the reading tasks and the reading topics. The reading materials provided in the textbooks are not of relevance to the students’ needs and interests. Students learn vocabulary that they do not use in everyday life, and read stories and articles that they do not relate to or understand.

The fourth challenge was the lack of confidence. Some students are reluctant to take part in the activities that require them to speak out in the classroom, even though it is a reading class. They feel embarrassed if they made mistakes in front of their peers, and some of them refrain from participating because they are afraid of public speaking. Hamouda (2012) and Mohammed (2015) also reported high levels of anxiety and reluctance to speak in Saudi English classrooms and related that to lack of interest, practice, linguistic resources, and confidence. In order to overcome the lack of confidence, it is important to create a friendlier atmosphere for the students, and engage them with topics they are familiar with to build their confidence (Hamouda, 2012).

For the second research question, the aim was to identify the aspects of motivation that have been influenced by the use of mobile tasks. The findings suggest that the MTBLT group outperformed the TBLT and PPP groups in terms of reading achievement, attention to the class, participation in tasks, and volunteering for teachers' requests. The participants of the PPP group were mainly passive learners, who did not pay attention, participate or volunteer in their reading activities. On the other hand, students who used mobile tasks scored highly significant results in achievement, attention, participation and volunteering.

As for the third research question, the aim was to investigate the students' perceptions of the impact of the use of mobile tasks on their motivation. The results showed that although learners from the PPP and TBLT groups held positive attitudes towards the use of smartphones in language classrooms, they displayed little awareness of how they could be used to aid their learning and motivation. Both groups identified the use of smartphones to aid in translating words and locating meanings of vocabulary as a major benefit. Other students thought that accessing educational materials through the Internet could help them practise and prepare for their final examinations. Fewer students recognised the advantage of receiving feedback from the teacher through smartphones. On the other hand, the MTBLT group thought that using smartphone tasks encouraged them to participate more in competitive and collaborative activities where they could share their work and receive as well as provide feedback for their colleagues using Padlet. Arising from the study, Figure 7.1 presents a visualisation of some of the suggested elements of mobile tasks that could aid students' motivation and encourage them to become active learners in EFL classrooms.

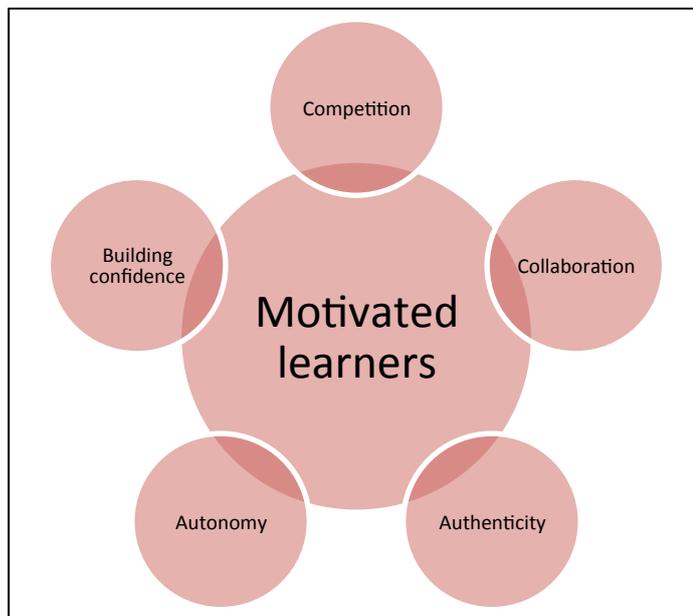


Figure 7.1 Suggested elements of mobile tasks

In Figure 7.1, learners could be motivated to become more involved in their learning through providing the following elements into mobile tasks. Students should engage in collaborative work and be able to view and share the outcome of the tasks with others to enhance their need for relatedness. Authentic reading materials can provide meaningful learning opportunities to which students can relate. Furthermore, giving learners a choice of what and how they learn can greatly enhance their autonomy and cause them to feel responsible for their learning. For students who lack the confidence, it is important to accommodate their learning styles and provide them with constant feedback to build their self-esteem. Finally, competitive tasks in a safe environment could add a sense of pleasure in the rigid classroom atmosphere.

To sum up the empirical findings, Figure 7.2 gives an overview of the motivational challenges that the students identified with their current teaching, and how the use of mobile tasks informed by SDT provided balance to the learning situation.

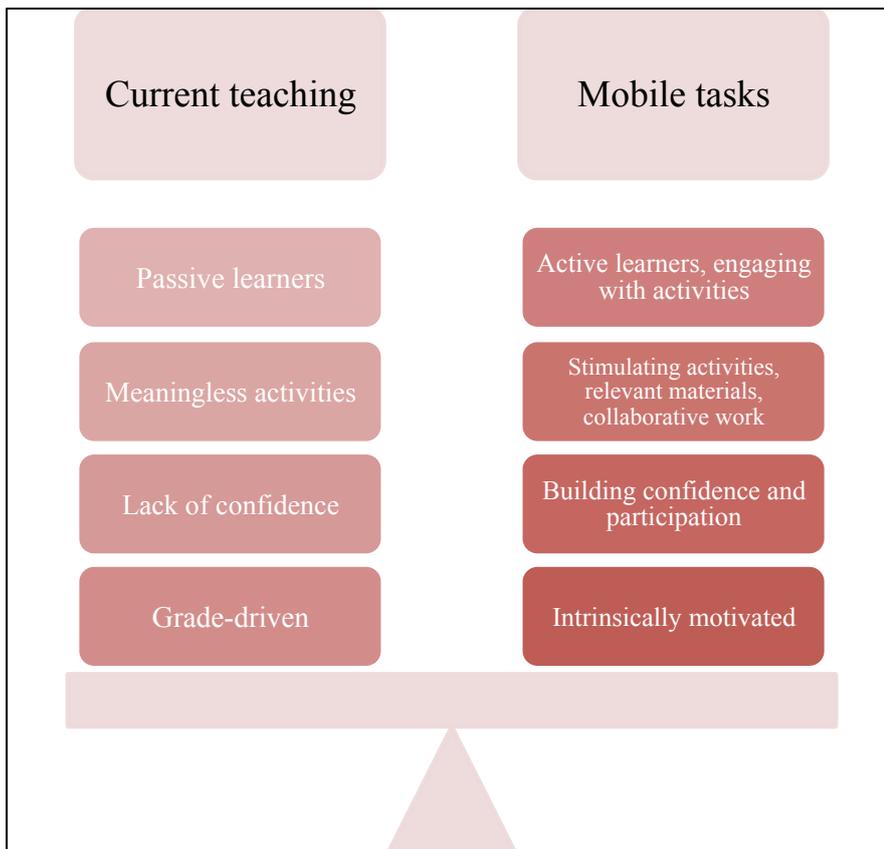


Figure 7.2 Summary of motivational challenges and mobile task gains

The next section presents the limitations of this study which occurred in the research setting, from the participants, and in the data collection procedures.

7.3 Limitations

Although the researcher carefully designed and conducted the study to the best of her abilities, limitations can occur in any kind of research (Creswell, 2013). This study is limited to the Saudi female students at the English Language Institute (ELI), and the design of the tasks that were used, and the participants who volunteered to take part in it. Therefore, the results of this exploratory study may not be generalised to larger populations.

The researcher's personal assumptions and prior experience with teaching in the ELI might have influenced the interpretations of the study's results. This section discussed those limitations that have occurred with the researcher, the research settings, the participants, and the data collection of this study. The researcher is a language instructor in the ELI who temporarily left Saudi Arabia to pursue higher education in the UK. The researcher did not teach in the ELI for more than three years before conducting the study, and therefore had no prior contact with the participants. However, being a member of the teaching staff in the ELI gave the researcher access to intact classes and other teachers cooperated to give permissions to conduct this study.

The researcher's previous experience with EFL learners made her aware of their lack of motivation, and personal attitudes towards using technology in the classroom might have had an intentional impact on the classroom observation and the focus group participants. The researcher attempted to reduce bias during observing students behaviours and by checking the scores with the class teacher after each lesson. Participants from the focus groups might have behaved differently because of the presence of the researcher. Furthermore, they may have responded positively in the focus groups when asked about mobile tasks, and negatively when asked about their current teaching method. The Hawthorne Effect occurs in observation, where the subjects of observation may behave differently in front of the observer than they normally do (Mackey & Gass, 2013). However, the researcher assured the students that their responses and behaviours would not affect them in any way and the research purpose was discussed with them before the observation and prior to conducting the focus groups. When the researcher analysed the data, she attempted to convey exactly what the students' had said and reviewed the translation and coding to reduce bias. Other limitations occurred in the research context, participants of the study, and the methodology as discussed in the following sections.

7.3.1 Research context

Firstly, this study did not use video recording when the classroom observation was carried out. For cultural and religious reasons, the administration of the ELI declined the request for video recording during class observations and interviews with students in the female campus. Because of this, it was not possible to review students' behaviour more than once and the scores obtained were finalised with the classroom teacher after each class. Secondly, the experiment could not be conducted for longer than six weeks with the same participants. The ELI used the modular system that divided each academic semester into two modules of six or seven weeks, in which each module has a mid and final examination that allowed students to go up a level if they passed (Shah et al., 2013). Each module consisted of four hours of English every day and teachers had to follow a specific curriculum based on the textbook. Finally, the study was only focused on the reading classes and did not cover other skills like writing, speaking, and listening.

Consequently, the findings of this study were interpreted in light of these settings and the current textbook that was used at the time of the study in 2016 (English Unlimited, Cambridge), and the reading section of that textbook.

7.3.2 Participants

Because male and female students in Saudi are segregated in separate university campuses, the researcher did not have access to male students. The findings of this study were limited to female EFL learners in the ELI only. Secondly, the ELI offered the researcher a choice of pre-existing classes to observe if the teachers and students of those classes agreed to take part in the study. The convenience sample of the classes and the participants from the focus groups might have yielded different results with other

classes, participants, or levels of proficiency. Thirdly, this study did not include demographic variables like age, ethnic background, and race. All the students were the same age (18), and came from the same background (Saudi) and the same race (Middle Eastern). When the focus groups were conducted, students' answers and responses to the researcher's questions were short in general and the researcher had to stimulate the students to speak out. This may have caused the direction of the conversation to change instead of flowing naturally.

Finally, the researcher aimed to investigate the use of mobile tasks in these limited classrooms and specific contexts, therefore, the findings of this study could not be generalised to other contexts in Saudi Arabia or other EFL contexts.

7.3.3 Methodology

This study used pre- and post-tests, questionnaires, observation, and focus groups to gather information about students' motivation. Although Self-Determination Theory informed the design of the tasks for the TBLT and MTBLT groups, the data collection tools were not designed to capture intrinsic motivation and elements of SDT. Instead, the tools aimed to examine students' motivational behaviour in terms of achievement, participation, attention, and volunteering. This provides opportunities for future research that will be discussed in section 7.6. Other limitations occurred in different data collection tools as follows.

First, the questionnaire and the focus groups were conducted in Arabic to make it easier for students to understand and express their opinions freely. Secondly, the last questionnaire item was open-ended to provide an opportunity for all the students to express their perceptions of mobile tasks in reading classrooms. However, few students from each group responded to that item, and their responses were very brief. This is

probably due to the fact that the last question was not a mandatory field, or perhaps the question was too broad. In either case, more responses from more participants could have provided depth and support to the findings.

This study did not employ a delayed test that could have been of significance to this study because it was difficult to assemble all the participants after they finished the last module of their course. The data collection tools were designed to explore students' motivation in reading classrooms and did not accommodate the features of the reading skill. In other words, this study did not examine the effects of mobile tasks on students' vocabulary, comprehension, and phonemic awareness.

The focus groups' questions were designed to explore the possible effects of mobile tasks from the students' perspective, and therefore did not have specific questions on aspects of mobile tasks like feedback and retention. As a result, some of the findings from the third research question did not provide sufficient evidence for the aspects of mobile tasks and could pave the path for future research.

7.4 Implications

Exploiting the potentials of smartphones can be of benefit to EFL instructors and teachers in reading classrooms. If the tasks were designed to offer students a choice of reading materials, collaborative engagement, and challenging opportunities, teachers could encourage passive learners to be more active and motivated to participate. The researcher used to teach quiet learners who refrained from taking an active role in the classroom, but was inspired to observe the differences in behaviour between the groups. However, a few things must be taken into consideration before attempting to employ this approach.

While it is important to provide opportunities for autonomous learning to the students, teachers should understand that this does not mean their role is reduced. The teacher plays an important role in the language classroom as a provider of knowledge and a facilitator of learning. Moreover, teachers who are autonomy-supportive have a more positive impact on students' intrinsic motivation than the teachers who are controlling (Deci & Ryan, 1985). However, balance is still important because students (usually in Asian contexts) are well adapted to teacher-centred classes and they still need that form of authority in the classroom (Alrabai, 2017a). Hence, balanced tasks that provide some kind of choice to the students could be more beneficial to the Saudi learners who are not ready for full autonomous learning.

Teachers who are afraid of not being able to control the students while they are performing mobile tasks could benefit from using applications like Socrative and Padlet to monitor students' participation. The Socrative app allows instructors to track students' progress while they are engaging in the task, as well as their overall progress through the classes. The app provides reports of students' development and can highlight areas of improvement in students' performances. However, this app does not allow much room for autonomy and collaboration, but the teacher can utilise it to warm up the students in the pre-task phase using digital photos and videos. Teachers could also use the Padlet app or similar free applications to provide opportunities for collaborative work and promote autonomy in their learners.

Implications from this study could also extend to EFL policy makers and administrators. Firstly, the focus of the learning materials should be on the quality of the curriculum, not the quantity (Al-Nasser, 2015). Providing engaging and authentic activities for students instead of focusing on the amount of topics and grammar covered in the textbooks could enhance learners' motivation. Furthermore, the quantity of the curriculum prevents some teachers in Saudi Arabia from implementing their own

instructional materials to suit the needs of their students for various reasons. According to Al-Mazrou (1988), Saudi teachers are afraid that they might distract the students from the lessons assigned in the curriculum and cause the students to fail. Additionally, teachers struggle with pressures of following the pacing guide of the curriculum, covering all the materials provided in the textbook, and preparing students for their final examinations (Al-Seghayer, 2014). Reducing the amount of content to be covered could help lift the pressure from the teachers who are hesitant to incorporate authentic materials and motivating tasks into their lessons. Secondly, teacher-training programs should provide guidance to teachers on how to implement smartphones in their everyday teaching.

Furthermore, this study could benefit the teacher-training programmes in Saudi Arabia by supporting teachers with the essential knowledge on combining motivational theories with mobile task design. Providing workshops on apps like Socrative and Padlet could indeed inspire teachers to motivate their students to be more active in the classroom. Implications could also go beyond the context of Saudi Arabia, to include other contexts following the footsteps of Solares (2014) in Mexico.

After completing this study, the researcher will go back to Saudi Arabia and resume teaching in the ELI, with the intention of pursuing the following:

- 1- Use mobile tasks in all English lessons, and not limit them to reading.
- 2- Make an online repository for ready-made mobile tasks and encourage other teachers to use them in their classes.
- 3- Join the teacher-training committee to help other instructors design and use mobile tasks on a regular basis.

To conclude this section, there are some implications for teachers who are concerned with students' lack of motivation in reading classes. Investigating motivational issues requires teachers to provide questionnaires or evaluation forms for

the students in order to fulfil their needs and improve or implement motivational strategies to aid their learning experience. Implications for policy suggest that, if decreasing the number of teaching hours is not negotiable, quality should be valued more than quantity, and instead of introducing more vocabulary and grammar rules in each module, the curriculum should integrate more meaningful opportunities for students to practise the language with meaningful and stimulating tasks. Furthermore, the learning environment should provide students with a choice of materials and let them take control of their own learning to promote their autonomy.

7.5 Future research

This current study addressed some gaps in the literature on using smartphones and TBLT to motivate students in reading classrooms. However, due to various limitations of this study, further research could be directed to address those limitations, as well as to address other aspects of mobile tasks. Firstly, similar research can be conducted on other areas of language learning (speaking, listening, and writing) or integrated skills. Furthermore, since this current study focused on reading tasks as a whole, further research could focus more on reading strategies or skills; i.e. learners' skimming and scanning while reading through the use of the latest eye-tracking technology (Stickler, Smith, & Shi, 2016).

Secondly, the novelty effect of using new technologies in education can still be a factor in motivating students (Krendl & Clark, 1994), and such effects could deteriorate. Hence, there is a need for longitudinal studies which should investigate the use of mobile tasks over a period of time (Ciampa, 2013), preferably more than one academic semester (Burston, 2014). Experimenting with the three approaches to language learning with one group in an in-depth case study could explain the effects of mobile

tasks. Thirdly, other aspects of motivation could be investigated using the mixed methods approach of this study to triangulate the data, or other participants from other universities and language institutions could also be triangulated. The use of variations of the MOLT scheme could be utilised to explore students' intrinsic motivation with the use of technology.

Finally, other studies could be conducted on both female and male students in Saudi Arabia, as the researcher only had access to female participants. Comparing how male students interact with mobile tasks with female students would be of great value to language learning research.

7.6 Closing remarks

This study aimed to explore the effects of using mobile tasks on Saudi students who are used to relying heavily on their teachers, and are still not prepared for autonomous learning (Al Asmari, 2013; Alrabai, 2017a). Therefore, Saudi researchers call for a gradual shift from traditional teacher-centred learning to a more learner-centred instruction (Alrabai, 2017a; Hazaea & Alzubi, 2016). Teachers play a crucial role in increasing or decreasing the level of enjoyment in the classroom activities (Jones et al., 2009). Therefore, they should involve their students in tasks that motivate them to take responsibility for their own learning, like “choosing and preparing learning materials, being a source of information to other learners, peer-monitoring, peer-teaching, peer-correcting, presenting a model of the target language, making decisions about the learning process, evaluating or giving feedback to other's performance” (Alrabai, 2017a, p.15).

The reading tasks that were designed for this study considered this aspect and targeted the post-task to provide some kind of choice of reading material and also

invoked students' creativity in writing endings to the stories. The use of smartphones and their various applications in the classroom could greatly provide opportunities for peer-activities and the ability for teachers to monitor the learning process and the outcome. The gradual shift from a focus on form to a focus on meaning is equally important; as Chen and Brown (2012) stated, students still need some focus on forms instead of the full focus on meaning feature of a task.

Finally, using technology in language teaching still needs a clearly defined pedagogy in order to be effective. In other words, "Good teaching remains good teaching with or without the technology" (Higgins, Beauchamp, & Miller, 2007, p.215).

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Appendix A: UCLAN ethical approval letter



6th March 2015

Michael Thomas/Mawaheb Mahmoud J Knojah
School of Language, Literature and International Studies
University of Central Lancashire

Dear Michael & Mawaheb,

Re: BAHSS Ethics Committee Application
Unique Reference Number: BAHSS 237

The BAHSS ethics committee has granted approval of your proposal application 'The use of mobile phones and task-based language teaching to motivate L2 reading: A case study of Saudi female EFL learners'. Approval is granted up to the end of project date* or for 5 years from the date of this letter, whichever is the longer.

It is your responsibility to ensure that

- the project is carried out in line with the information provided in the forms you have submitted
- you regularly re-consider the ethical issues that may be raised in generating and analysing your data
- any proposed amendments/changes to the project are raised with, and approved, by Committee
- you notify roffice@uclan.ac.uk if the end date changes or the project does not start
- serious adverse events that occur from the project are reported to Committee
- a closure report is submitted to complete the ethics governance procedures (Existing paperwork can be used for this purposes e.g. funder's end of grant report; abstract for student award or NRES final report. If none of these are available use [e-Ethics Closure Report Proforma](#)).

Yours sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be "MK", written in a cursive style.

Megan Knight
Vice Chair
BAHSS Ethics Committee

Appendix B: KAU ethical approval letter

KINGDOM OF SAUDI ARABIA
Ministry of Higher Education
KING ABDULAZIZ UNIVERSITY
Women's Campus



المملكة العربية السعودية
وزارة التعليم العالي
جامعة الملك عبدالعزيز
شطر الطالبات

Postgraduate Studies and Scholarships Unit

Data Collection Permission Form

This form has to be filled by the student and approved by Head of Postgraduate and Scholarships Unit, Head of Educational Affairs Unit and Vice-dean of ELI at Women Campus.

Part I Researcher's Statement of Commitment

Researcher name	Mawaheb Mahmoud Khojah
KAU ID	0007332
Research Title	The use of mobile phones and task-based language teaching to motivate L2 reading
Research Participants	Level 3 or 4 language classrooms
Data collection instrument (questionnaire, observation, etc)	questionnaires / pre-test / post-test focus groups / observation

I confirm that I will fully address the following ethical issues

- **Informed consents will be signed by all participants wherein each participant will acknowledge the following:**
 - The participant has been given enough information about the research: purpose of the research; the reason why she was chosen as a participant; and place, time, duration and frequency of data collection sessions.
 - The participant is made aware that she can withdraw from the study at anytime. (However students cannot withdraw from classes wherein data collection has been approved by ELI).
 - The participant is reassured of anonymity and confidentiality issues
- **Sufficient precautions will be taken in the processing and storage of confidential material** (audio-recorded interviews, completed questionnaires, written samples/reflections).

Researcher's signature

Date

1/1/2015

Postgraduate Studies and Scholarships Unit

Part II Permission

Comments:

Ms Mawaheb Khojah needs to observe Level 3 & 4 classes. She will also distribute questionnaires and conduct pre-tests and post-tests.

Head of Postgraduate Studies and Scholarships **Dr Fatimah M A Alghamdi**

Signature

Date

7/1/2015

Comments

Head of Academic Affairs.

Dr Hanan I. Kutubhanah

Signature

Date

11/1/2015

Comments

Vice-Dean

Dr Badia M Hakim

Signature

Date

11/1/2015

Appendix C: Participants' information sheet

Study Title

The Use of Smartphones and Task-Based Language Teaching to Motivate Female Saudi EFL Learners in Reading Classrooms

You are being invited to take part in a research study. Before you decide whether or not to take part, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

Do you think English classes are getting boring to you? Do you feel yourself motivated to learn English when you are not in the classroom? Do you think that using your phone in the classroom will allow you to have more fun when you learn? If you have access to several interesting English stories to read via your mobile phone, would you do it?

This proposed research would help to investigate both benefits and challenges of using smartphones to motivate English language learners to read and help further their comprehension skills. The research aims to:

1. explore the potential of using smartphones to acquire reading skills.
2. analyse students' motivation inside and outside of the classroom when reading using mobile phones, and
3. investigate key challenges that Saudi learners may encounter when performing task-based mobile activities in EFL classrooms.

In other words, the researcher would like to see if the use of reading tasks through your mobile phones in class will have a positive influence on motivating you to learn. Furthermore, the researcher would like to determine if there would be a significant difference between the use of paper-based tasks and mobile phone-based tasks for Saudi female language learners. This research will help greatly in pointing out the challenges that might face both the students and the teachers when such implementation of technology is in use. The study will take about six to seven weeks and will use reading tests, questionnaires, and focus groups.

Why have I been invited to participate?

You have been chosen to participate in this study because you are a Saudi female student taking English courses in the preparatory year at the university. You are an intermediate level student. You also own and know how to use a smartphone.

Do I have to take part?

It is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. In the case of withdrawal, you will be transferred to another class and your marks and progress will not be affected. However, if you agree to take part in this experiment and continue doing so, you have a chance to experience interesting activities using your phone in the classroom. This can motivate you to acquire new reading skills

and have a lot of activities to practice for the exams online. It will not have a negative impact on your learning process or your final markings.

If you are asked to join a focus group at the end of this study, you do not have to answer any question, and can leave the focus group at any point.

If you wish to withdraw after the data have been collected, it is advisable you inform the researcher within one month of the end of the research or before the data have been through the final analysis. If the data has been anonymised or the final analysis has been undertaken, the withdrawal will not be possible. However, focus group withdrawal will not be possible due to the group-based nature of the discussion.

What will happen to me if I take part?

If you take part of this study, you are going to be taught the reading material through your mobile phones during the whole module (seven weeks). The tasks are adapted from your textbook and the objectives for each lesson is the same as the textbook. That means you are going to be taught everything that other classes are taught with the exception of using fun and interesting reading tasks through your mobile phones and the tasks are available for you outside the classroom as well. Those sessions will be audio recorded. You will undertake a pre-test and a post-test to mark the level of improvement in reading skills. Each test will take about half an hour. This will not affect your marks for this course. You will also be asked to answer a questionnaire about what you think of mobile learning and how has the use of mobile phones motivated you to read in English. The questionnaire should not take longer than 15 minutes to complete. The final step is to discuss your experience in the classroom with some of your classmates in a focus group. The session will be audio recorded and will last about 30 minutes. If you do not wish to be recorded, then you cannot join the focus group.

You are able to request a copy of the findings after the data has been analysed. You can contact the researcher and ask for a copy of the findings and specify how you would like to receive it.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Your participation will attempt to reveal the possibilities of using mobile phones to motivate language learners to read inside and outside the classroom. It will also reveal the possible challenges that might face the use of such technology in this university. This will also give you an opportunity to improve your reading skills and enjoy the reading tasks through your mobile phone instead of using your textbooks. The online tasks are adapted from the textbooks, but are far more interesting with the use of multimedia and interactive quizzes and puzzles.

What are the possible risks of taking part?

There are no possible risks if you decide to join this study. Any potential harm will be the same as any harm experienced in everyday life.

Will what I say in this study be kept confidential?

The information that will be collected will be kept strictly confidential. Confidentiality, privacy and anonymity will be ensured in the collection, storage, and publication of research material. Data generated by the study will be retained in accordance with university's policy of Academic Integrity. The data generated in the course of the research will be kept securely in paper or electronic form for 5 years from the end of the project.

What should I do if I want to take part?

After everything about the study has been made clear to you, you can ask any questions you want and if you agree to take part, you can sign a consent form to agree in joining the study.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results will be used in a PhD thesis and might be part of a conference presentation or a published article in the future. If you wish to obtain a copy of the published research, you can contact the researcher and ask for a copy via email or post.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The researcher is a teacher assistant at the English Language Institute at King Abdulaziz University. She is also a PhD student at UCLan in the School of Languages, Literature, and International Studies.

Who has reviewed the study?

The research has been approved by the University Research Ethics Committee.

Contact for Further Information

Researcher: Mawaheb Khojah
Mobile phone:
Email: mmjkhojah@uclan.ac.uk
Director of Studies: Dr. Michael Thomas
Email: mthomas4@uclan.ac.uk

If you have any concerns about the way in which the study has been conducted or would like to complain, please contact the University Officer for Ethics (OfficerforEthics@uclan.ac.uk).

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet.

1/2/2015

Appendix D: Participants consent form

Title of the Research Project:

Name of the researcher:

Position:

Mobile Number:

E-mail:

Please read the following statements and initial the boxes to indicate your agreement to participate in this research study conducted by the above named researcher.

___ I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet, dated 22/03/2015 for the above study and have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

___ I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving a reason.

___ I agree to take part in the above study.

___ I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored (after it has been anonymised) in a specialist data centre and may be used for future research.

___ I understand that it will not be possible to withdraw my data from the study after final analysis has been undertaken.

___ I agree to the interview / focus group / consultation / being audio recorded.

___ I agree to the interview / focus group / consultation / being video recorded.

___ I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications.

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature

Appendix E: Sample Pre-Test

In this part, you will read two passages. Choose the best answer A, B, C, or D to each question according to the passage.

Passage 1

I don't believe that today's wonders are similar in kind to the wonders of the Ancient World. They were buildings, such as the Pyramids in Egypt, or other architectural structures. Over the past 100 years, we have seen amazing technological and scientific achievements. These are surely our modern wonders.

The Internet is everywhere. More than two billion people use it, and the number of people who are online increases by 100 million every year. In 1994, there were only a few hundred web pages. Today there are billions. It has revolutionized the way we live and work. But we are still in the early days. Soon there will be more and more interactivity between the user and the website, and we will be able to give instructions using speech.

Surely, nothing has done more for the comfort and happiness of the human race than the advances in health care! How many millions of people have benefited from the humble aspirin? How many lives has penicillin saved? Average life expectancy worldwide has risen dramatically over the past 100 years, from about 47 years in 1900 to about 77 years today.

We are a world on the move. Airlines carry more than 1.5 billion people to their destinations every year. It is estimated that, at any one time these days, there are as many people travelling in aeroplanes as the total number of people who travelled abroad in the whole of the nineteenth century (but I have no idea how they worked this out!).

In 1724, Jonathan Swift wrote, 'Whoever makes two blades of grass or two ears of corn grow where only one grew before serves mankind better than the whole race of politicians'. In Europe our farmers have done this. In 1709, whole villages in France died of hunger. Now in Europe, we can't eat all the food we produce. If only politicians could find a way to share it with parts of the world where there is famine.

The last wonder of the modern world is simply that we are still here. We have had nuclear weapons for over 50 years that could destroy the world, but we haven't used them to do it. This is surely the greatest wonder of all.

1. The writer of the passage thinks that technological and scientific achievements are _____.

- A) wonders of the ancient world
- B) the Pyramids of Egypt
- C) modern wonders
- D) technological achievements

2. The word ‘revolutionized’ highlighted in paragraph 2 means_____.

- A) changed for the better
- B) travelling in faster aeroplanes
- C) destroying the world
- D) ancient wonders

3. _____ people are carried to their destinations by Airlines every year.

- A) has decreased since 1994
- B) 1.5 billion
- C) Two billion
- D) is less than 100 million

4. Life expectancy has increased over the last 100 years because of_____.

- A) better health care
- B) the writing of Jonathan Swift
- C) travelling in faster aeroplanes
- D) the development of better web pages.

5. Which of the following is TRUE?

- A) The number of internet users worldwide is increasing every year.
- B) More people travelled in the nineteenth century than today.
- C) There is famine in France right now.
- D) Jonathan Swift made weapons.

6. Which of the following is NOT TRUE?

- A) The Internet has revolutionized how we live.
- B) Europeans produce more food that they can eat.
- C) There have been nuclear weapons for over 50 years.
- D) In 1709, whole villages in France had a lot of food.

Appendix F: Questionnaire

Motivation

- 1- I really enjoy learning English language in general.
- 2- I am learning English so I can communicate with others whenever I have a chance.
- 3- Learning English in reading class is a boring to me.
- 4- Getting a good grade in English motivates me to learn English.
- 5- I am learning English because knowledge of English will enable me to get a highly paid job.
- 6- I like English activities in which students work together in pairs of small groups.
- 7- I feel that I am encouraged to learn English when my teacher sometimes gives me the choice to decide on what to study in the classroom.
- 8- I am learning English because in my country people with good competence in English are in very high regard.

Reading

- 9- I feel I am making progress in English this semester.
- 10- I often volunteer to answer in reading activities.
- 11- I usually wait for the teacher to give the answers so I don't have to participate.
- 12- I don't like to participate because I am afraid that I will look stupid if I answered incorrectly.
- 13- I usually participate in reading activities.
- 14- I don't mind making a lot of mistakes as long as I can improve my English.
- 15- I enjoy reading my colleagues' answers after they have completed the task.
- 16- I usually pay attention to what the teacher say in the reading classroom.

Mobile tasks

- 17- My teacher made us use our phones to perform learning tasks in the classroom.
- 18- I think I will get better grades this semester.
- 19- Mobile tasks made me participate more in the classroom.
- 20- Mobile tasks were a fun way to learn English.
- 21- I feel that using mobile phones to perform learning tasks is a waste of time.
- 22- I like sending my homework via mobile phones outside the classroom.
- 23- I learn better when I use mobile tasks.
- 24- Reading in my mobile phone encourages me to learn more than books.
- 25- I like getting immediate feedback when using mobile tasks.
- 26- If I were to take another course of English, I would prefer using mobile tasks.
- 27- I think I volunteer more when we are using mobile tasks.
- 28- What are some benefits of using mobile tasks in the classroom?

What did you think about using mobile tasks in the reading classroom?

Appendix G: Observation sheet adapted from Guilloteaux and

**Dörnyei
(2008)**

Teacher: Unit and page: Group: Date: time: #students: duration: Goals:	Learners' motivated behavior		Volunteering	Ss volunteer readily			
			Volunteering	Ss need encouragement			
	Participation		Volunteering	Ss called on by teacher			
			Participation	2/3 or more			
			Participation	1/3 to 1/2			
	Attention		Participation	Few			
			Attention	Ss called on by teacher			
			Attention	2/3 or more			
	Task design		Task structure	Attention	1/3 to 1/2		
				Task structure	Team competition		
				Task structure	Individual competition		
				Task structure	Creative/interesting		
				Task structure	Group work		
	Task level		Task goals	Task structure	Pair work		
				Task level	Difficult		
				Task level	Medium		
	Task goals		Task level	Easy			
			Task goals	All goals achieved			
			Task goals	Most goals achieved			
	Duration		Task goals	Few goals achieved			
			Duration	Duration			
Task #		Task #	Task #				
		Task #	Task #				

Appendix H: Focus group questions

- 1- Do you want to learn English? Why and why not?
- 2- Do you think English is boring? Why and why not?
- 3- What do you suggest be done to make reading classes more enjoyable?
- 4- What do you think of using phones in the classroom? Have you tried that before?
- 5- What are the good and bad things you can think of about using mobile tasks in the classroom?

Appendix I: Sample PPP focus group transcript

Speaker	Transcript
Researcher	Let's get to know your names
PPP-1	
PPP-2	
PPP-3	
PPP-4	
PPP-5	
Researcher	Ok, first question. Do you want to learn English?
PPP-4	Yes, but not 4 hours a day.
PPP-2	It is too much. I like to learn on my own pace.
PPP-3	I want to learn but not just memorizing vocabulary and grammar. I want to practise and use the language.
PPP-5	Practise in real life, like talking to people without exams.
PPP-1	Acquire the skills of the language.
Researcher	Why do you want to learn English?
PPP-5	It is a required language in every aspect of life. Work.
PPP-3	I don't think it is not essential for work. Only if you want to pursue higher education.
PPP-4	You benefit from it for your general life. Travel. Knowledge.
Researcher	Do you think your English classes are boring?
PPP-1	Very much. Maybe just because how long it is.
PPP-2	Teachers are only concerned with giving information just to finish the curriculum.
PPP-4	Grammar and vocabulary are the most important things in the class. I think other information is useless. We spend little in class to get the important things, the rest of the class are things that are not important. Not the basics.
PPP-5	It is the same thing everyday. Nothing new. Grammar and vocabulary and exercises in the book.
PPP-2	The same grammar rules in the previous books and levels. Focus on grammar every time.
PPP-5	The same way to teach in grammar and vocabulary everyday. Nothing changes.
Researcher	How do you evaluate your participation in the classroom?
PPP-4	I try to participate at the beginning of the classes but then I stop. I feel bored.
PPP-5	Yes, by the end of the class no I cannot think anymore. Because the hours are long.
Researcher	What things prevent you from participating in the class?
PPP-1	I feel afraid that I might embarrass myself if I did not get the answer right. And if the teacher does not understand Arabic and I do not know how to say the word in English.
Researcher	What do you suggest to do to make English classes less boring?
PPP-2	I think it does not have to be educational, or informal, like you just chat with others.
PPP-5	Yes. Because when you go outside you will not tell people about the grammar you got taught. You will have to talk with them.
PPP-4	When we practise we make mistakes and those mistakes we learn

- from. But when the teacher just tells you the grammar and you have to memorize it you will not benefit from it. We will forget about it before the exam.
- PPP-5 We became like machines just memorize. We get from the teacher and that is all we do.
- PPP-2 Everyone makes mistakes in grammar. Why do all the teachers focus on grammar?
- PPP-3 I agree. We only memorize the grammar rules just to forget it when we get out of the final exam.
- Researcher Who do you think speaks more in the classroom? You or the teacher?
- PPP-5 The teacher does most of the speaking.
- PPP-4 The teacher should change the way she teaches us.
- PPP-5 Instead of just explaining a grammar rule, she can use games to make us more excited and motivated, and we will participate.
- PPP-3 One time we were going to sleep in the classroom, then the teacher gave us some scraps of paper and asked us to make a story. We all awoke from our snooze and got excited to be the first to finish making the story.
- PPP-5 Yes, I remember one time the teacher put us into groups and we challenged each other to make a list of all the vocabulary we learned that week. It was very interesting and made us all enjoy the class and remember some of the words when they came in the exam.
- PPP-3 Yes I still remember them from last time. It was good.
- Researcher How do you want to practise English in the classroom?
- PPP-5 We do not want just to sit in front of the teacher and be silent. We want to speak and make things with her and with the class.
- PPP-2 We can change the place of the classroom and go somewhere else from time to time.
- Researcher What is the most boring skill to you?
- PPP-1 Reading and listening
- PPP-2 Reading.
- PPP-4 Reading
- Researcher Why is reading boring to you?
- PPP-1 Vocabulary we do not understand, it is intimidating.
- PPP-3 It is too long and not important.
- PPP-4 You read boring things just to answer a few questions. Things we don't care about.
- Researcher Do you think this module is the same as the previous modules you took?
- PPP-5 I think I improved a bit. I am learning new vocabulary.
- Researcher Did any of your teachers use mobile phones in the classroom?
- PPP-1 Yes a lot of them ask us to use our phones to get the meaning of words in most English classes.
- PPP-5 Some teachers used to send us grammar exercises on our phones. But not in the classroom. She sends us links of quizzes and games and we do them at home.
- PPP-4 Yes one of our teachers did that before the final exams. We liked those exercises from websites. They were interesting and useful.

Appendix J: Sample reading scan English Unlimited

13.2

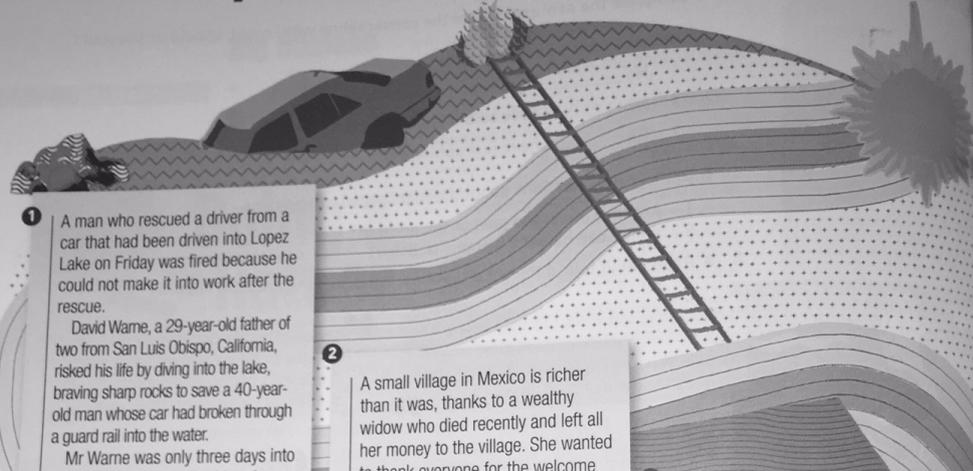
13.2 goals
talk about acts of kindness and bravery
speculate about the past

READING

A good deed

1 What would you do if you saw someone:
1 stealing a wallet or bag?
2 in trouble in a river or the sea?
3 pushing an old man in the street?
4 robbing a shop or bank?

2 Read three news stories. Which are about kindness? Which are about bravery?



1 A man who rescued a driver from a car that had been driven into Lopez Lake on Friday was fired because he could not make it into work after the rescue.
David Warne, a 29-year-old father of two from San Luis Obispo, California, risked his life by diving into the lake, braving sharp rocks to save a 40-year-old man whose car had broken through a guard rail into the water.
Mr Warne was only three days into his job with Paradise Pool Interiors, but when he phoned his boss to tell her he could not work due to the deep cuts on his feet and arms, he was told he no longer had a job. "I rang her and said, 'I've saved a guy from drowning and I've got to go to hospital to get stitched up,'" Mr Warne said.
Owner Lesley Burke was not impressed by the good deed. A spokesman for the company said: "If Mr Warne had worked here longer, it would have been different." However, San Luis Obispo Police have recommended Mr Warne for a bravery award.

2 A small village in Mexico is richer than it was, thanks to a wealthy widow who died recently and left all her money to the village. She wanted to thank everyone for the welcome she received when she moved there. Everyone over 60 received 10,000 pesos, while other gifts included 200,000 pesos to the local church. "She was a lovely lady who was always thinking of others," said a neighbour, 63, about Rosa Flores. "She helped me with my household chores when I was sick. She was always doing favours for people. But I think she was lonely after her husband died because she had no children. If she'd had a family, she probably wouldn't have left all her money to the village. We're very, very grateful to her."

3 "Seriously, I've got a gun. Give me the money." So shouted robber Robert Hendry as he burst into a bank in Portsmouth in England, his gun hand hidden in a bag. Terrified staff were about to do what he'd asked, when a customer who'd been quietly reading the paper walked up to Hendry and said, "You're joking, aren't you, mate?" and took the empty bag. Then Terry Parker sat down and went on with his reading. Hendry ran away. "If Mr Parker hadn't got involved," said John Anderson, the bank manager, "then I'm sure the man would have robbed the bank."

3 Cover the stories. Are 1–6 true or false?
1 David Warne was fired because his injuries stopped him going to work.
2 David had worked with Paradise Pool Interiors for a long time.
3 Rosa Flores left money to everyone in her village.
4 Rosa didn't have family in the village.
5 Robert Hendry tried to rob a bank with a gun.
6 Terry Parker didn't believe the robber had a gun.

Read again to check.

4 How would you describe these people? Give reasons.
David Warne Lesley Burke Rosa Flores Robert Hendry Terry Parker

David Warne was unfortunate to get fired.

Terry Parker was incredibly brave ... or maybe a bit foolish!

GRA
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cont
past

SPEAKIN

Appendix K: Complete lesson plans for reading tasks

Day	Goal	Task Cycle	Task type	TBLT tasks	MTBLT tasks	Duration
Day 1	- Evaluate ideas - Describe a preferred media	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss with your partner what news you should not believe in news media.	Search for word meanings in Google and share pictures on Padlet. Give examples of news you don't trust from personal experience.	15 min
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30 min
		Post-task	Speaking (presentation)	Complete speaking activity from the book (describe what your favourite media for news with classmates).	In groups, choose a preferred news media and give examples and pictures on Padlet.	35 min
Day 2	-Describe methods of communication - Express opinion	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss with your partner the advantages and disadvantages of social media.	Identify the social media Icons in the Padlet and comment on each Icon with what you think of each one.	15 min
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30 min
		Post-task	Writing (opinion)	In pairs, write a short paragraph about what you think is the future of social media.	In pairs, write a short paragraph about the future of social media on Padlet.	40 min
Day 3	-Talk about achievements - Take part in an interview	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	15 min
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	35 min

		Post-task	Writing and speaking (interview)	In pairs, write some questions and interview your partner about their achievements and prospects.	In pairs, write questions on you phone and interview your partner about their achievements and prospects.	40 min
Day 4	-Talk about natural events. -Say how you feel about an experience or event.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	In groups, try to identify the pictures on Socrative Student and answer questions.	15 min
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30 min
		Post-task	Writing (description paragraph)	In groups, discuss one of the natural disasters in the book and write a short paragraph about it.	In groups, surf the websites on Padlet, then choose one of the natural disasters to write a short paragraph about it.	45 min
Day 5	-Discuss plans and arrangements. -Make offers and promises.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Read and discuss what happened to Maria in Padlet.	10 min
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	35 min
		Post-task	Writing (short story)	In groups, write a plan that you have made but had to change it last minute.	Rearrange the pictures to make a story on Padlet. Write a short sentence under each picture to make a story.	45 min
Day 6	-Give advice. -Talk about how you manage money.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	In groups, try to identify the pictures on Socrative Student and answer questions.	14 min
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30 min
		Post-task	Speaking (Giving advice)	Look at the pictures on the board and try to give advice to each problem.	Write an advice to the problems in padlet.	40 min

Day 7	-Describe personality. -Make comparisons.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Watch a Youtube video about Mohammed Harib. Discuss his achievements with the class.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30
		Post-task	Writing (paragraph)	Describe one of your parents' job in a short paragraph.	Look at website links on Padlet. Write a short paragraph about one of the professions.	40
Day 8	-Describe objects. -Make deductions.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Watch a short video about recycling. Discuss with classmates.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30
		Post-task	Writing (ad on recycle.org)	Write a short description of something you want to sell on freecycle.org.	Write an ad on Padlet about something you want to sell or replace. Provide a picture.	45
Day 9	-Describe problems in the home. -Discuss the consequences of a decision.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Read the short story in the link provided and discuss with a partner.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	35
		Post-task	Speaking (describe a decision you had to make)	In pairs, describe a decision you had to make to deal with a problem you had at home.	In pairs, look at the problems in Padlet and try to make a decision and share it with the class.	35
Day 10	-Talk about memory. Complain about goods or services.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Watch a short video, after it finishes, try to answer the questions in Socrative Student. Discuss your answers.	20

		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	35
		Post-task	Speaking (describe what happened)	The teacher will perform an act. Students should take notes, then try to answer questions about what they remember from the act.	In pairs, watch the video in Padlet. Try to remember what happened and write about it.	40
Day 11	-Talk about truth or lies. -Summarize what people say.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Read a piece of gossip in the link. Discuss with partner.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30
		Post-task	Speaking	Read the exercise in the book, tell your friend if each sentence is a true or a lie.	Follow the links in Padlet and report to the class what you think of what you read.	45
Day 12/	- Make polite requests. - Ask polite questions.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Use Whatsapp to ask your partner some questions. Discuss with the class.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	35
		Post-task	Writing	Follow the exercise in the book to write about one of the professions.	Choose one of the links in Padlet and write a paragraph describing your experience.	40
Day 13	-Talk about mistakes. - Talk about acts of kindness.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Find word meanings in Google. Share with the class.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	30

		Post-task	Speaking\writing	In your book, try to answer the question and report to the class.	In groups, read the story in Padlet. Try to write a short paragraph to end the story.	45
Day 14	-Understand news stories. - React to the news.	Pre-Task	Vocabulary and topic introduction	Introduce new words on the board and discuss the topic with your partner.	Find word meanings in Google.	15
		Task	Reading comprehension	Read the passage from the book and answer the questions. Share opinions on board.	Read the passage from the book and answer related questions on Socrative Student.	35
		Post-task	Writing		In groups, follow the links on Padlet to find the answers to the questions. (scavenger hunt)	45